CONTRIBUTIONS OF NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN BUILDING CAPABILITIES AND ENHANCING QUALITY OF LIFE IN THE RURAL AREAS OF U. P.

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

BY

DENNY MATHEW ID: 10PHBM 102



2016

JOSEPH SCHOOL OF BUSINESS STUDIES
SAM HIGGINBOTTOM INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE,
TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCES
(Formerly Allahabad Agricultural Institute)
Deemed –to-be University
Allahabad



सैम हिन्गिनबॉटम इन्स्टीट्यूट ऑफ एग्रीकल्चर, टेक्नालॉजी एण्ड साइंसेज Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology & Sciences

(Formerly Allahabad Agricultural Institute)
(Deemed to be University)

Allahabad - 211 007, India Established: 1910

ISO 9001:2008 Certified
Office : 91-532-2684281, 2684781

Fax Website E-mail : 91-532-2684394 : www.shiats.edu.in : info@shiats.edu.in

Ph. D. Final Defense Report

This is to certify that Mr. Denny Mathew ID. No. (10PHDM102) presented the oral defense for his Ph. D. thesis entitled "Contribution of Non Governmental Organization in Building Capabilities and Enhancing Quality of Life in the Rural Areas of U.P." on 8th September, 2016 at 3:30 PM in the Conference Room, Joseph School of Business Studies, SHIATS, Allahabad. The results are genuine, have considerable scientific importance and performance of the candidate was found satisfactory.

We, the following members of the Evaluation Board agree and recommend the University for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy** in **Management** to **Mr. Denny Mathew**.

Prof. R.K. Singh

Associate Professor,

Department of Commerce & Business Administration

University of Allahabad

External Examiner

Dr. (Mrs.) Enid Masih

Associate Professor JSBS, SHIATS, Allahabad

Advisor

Prof. (Dr.) Wilson Kispotta

Director.

Directorate of Extension

SHIATS, Allahabad

Chairman, Final Defense Exam Board



सैम हिन्गिनबॉटम इन्स्टीट्यूट ऑफ एग्रीकल्चर, टेक्नालॉजी एण्ड साइंसेज Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology & Sciences

(Formerly Allahabad Agricultural Institute)

(Deemed to be University) Allahabad - 211 007, India

Established: 1910

ISO 9001:2008 Certified

Office Fax Website : 91-532-2684281, 2684781 : 91-532-2684394

: 91-532-2684394 : www.shiats.edu.in : registrar@shiats.edu.in

CERTIFICATE OF RECOMMENDATION BY STUDENT ADVISORY COMMITTEE

This thesis entitled "Contribution of Non Governmental Organization in Building Capabilities and Enhancing Quality of Life in the Rural Areas of U.P." has been prepared and submitted by Mr. Denny Mathew ID No.10PHDM102 for the award of degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY in Management of the Faculty of Management, Humanities & Social Sciences of Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology & Sciences, Deemed to be University, Allahabad (U.P)

Signature **Evaluation** Name Dr. (Mrs.) Enid Masih Satisfactory/ Not Satisfactory Associate Professor Dept. of Human Resources, JSBS Advisor Satisfactory/ Prof. Dr. (Sr.) Marion Mathew Dean, Allahabad School of Education **Not Satisfactory** Member Satisfactory/ Prof. Dr. Rajeev Khare Not Satisfactory Professor Dept. of Mathematics & Statistics Member Satisfactory/ Dr. E.P. K. Das **Not Satisfactory** Professor Chitamber School of Humanities & Social Sciences

This thesis is recommended by the Student Advisory Committee for partial fulfillment of award of Ph.D degree.

Prof. (Dr.) R. K. Singh

Associate Professor, Dept. of Commerce & Business Administration, University of Allahabad

External Examiner

Prof. (Dr.) Wilson Kispotta Director,

Directorate of Extension, SHIATS

Chairman

Final Defense Examination Board

Date: 8th September, 2016



सैम हिनिगनबॉटम इन्स्टीट्यूट ऑफ एग्रीकल्वर, टेक्नालॉजी एण्ड स Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology & Scie

(Formerly Allahabad Agricultural Institute)

(Deemed to be University) Allahabad - 211 007, India Established: 1910

ISO 9001:2008 : 91-532-2684281,

Office : 91-532-2684281, Fax : 91-532-2684394 Website : www.shiats.edu.i E-mail : info@shiats.edu.i

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINAL WORK

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "CONTRIBUTIONS OF NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN BUILDING CAPABILITIES AND ENHANCING QUALITY OF LIFE IN THE RURAL AREAS OF U. P." has been prepared and submitted by DENNY MATHEW, ID. 10PHBM102, in fulfillment of the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration, to Joseph School of Business Studies, Sam Higginbottom Institute of Agriculture, Technology and Sciences.

It is a bona-fide record of research carried out by Denny Mathew under my supervision and guidance. The research reported by him is genuine and the candidate himself has written the script of the thesis. The thesis is therefore being recommended for acceptance.

Date: September 8, 2016

Dr. (Mrs.) Enid Masih (Associate Professor) Joseph School of Business Studies

SHIATS, Allahabad

SELF-ATTESTATION

This is to certify that I have personally worked and submitted the thesis

entitled "CONTRIBUTIONS OF NON GOVERNMENTAL

ORGANIZATIONS IN BUILDING CAPABILITIES AND

ENHANCING QUALITY OF LIFE IN THE RURAL AREAS OF U. P."

The research has been carried out under the guidance and supervision of my

guide Dr. (Mrs.) Enid Masih, Senior Assistant Professor, Joseph School of

Business Studies, SHIATS, Allahabad.

The information in the thesis, that has been collected or borrowed from

various books, has been duly acknowledged. The study recorded in this thesis

has not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of

any degree or diploma

Date: February 5, 2016

Place: Allahabad

Denny Mathew

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Praise the Lord. With all my heart I will thank the Lord in the assembly of His people. How wonderful are the things the Lord does! (Ps. 111: 1ff).

With a deep sense of gratitude I would like to express my immeasurable indebtedness and deep sense of sincere gratitude to my advisor Dr. (Mrs.) Enid Masih, Senior Assistant Professor, Joseph School of Business Studies, SHIATS for her valuable and constructive guidance, creative suggestions, support and encouragement throughout my research.

I remember with gratitude Late Prof. Msood Naseer, former Dean, Joseph School of Business Studies, SHIATS, for his unwavering support and encouragement. May God grant him eternal rest.

I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to Prof. Newman Fernandes, Dean, Joseph's School of Business Studies, SHIATS, for the valuable guidance and support.

I am grateful to Fr. Varghese Vithaythil CMI, former Provincial Superior, St. John's Province, Bijnor, U.P. for his encouragement and support. I also thank Rev. Fr. George Kulangara CMI, Provincial Superior for his kind understanding, support, encouragement and continuous prayers. I would also remember with gratitude Rev. Fr. John Chakknatt CMI, Rev. Fr. Augustine Keemattam CMI former Superiors, Sacred Heart Monastery, Sitapur for their guidance, encouragement and constant support throughout my research. I also place on record all the encouragement and support extended to me by my community members in Sacred Heart Monastery, Sitapur. I also thank all the members of the CMI community, St. John's Province, Bijnor, for their encouragement and prayers. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my parents, family members especially to Rev. Fr. Joseph

Peedikathadathil CMI, my brother and Sr. Snow Mary CSC my sister for their continuous support, encouragement and prayers. In a special way I express my gratitude to Rt. Dr. Raphy Manjaly, Bishop of the Roman Catholic Diocese of Allahabad and Rev. Fr. K. K. Antony, Director, Diocesan Social Welfare Society and all the inmates of Jan Hit Sadan, Naini, Allahabad for the dedicated services, cooperation, encouragement and extending me all the facilities during my stay there.

The support and encouragement I have received from the faculty members of Joseph School of Business, SHIATS is immense. I sincerely thank them for their assistance and support.

I would like to thank in a special way the assistance given to me by Mr. Sandeep Jaiswal, Research Assistant, GBPSSI, Allahabad for the SPSS analysis of data, Dr. D.C. Pathak, Assistant Professor, BITS, Pilani (Hydrabad) and Dr. Ajay Singh, Assam University Silchar, for their valuable suggestions.

The encouragement and support extended to me by friends go well beyond all bounds. I sincerely with deep sense of gratitude thank each one of them. I pray that the Almighty God Bless all of them.

- *Denny Mathew* SHIATS, Allahabad

ABSTRACT

This research aims to highlight the role played by the Non Governmental Organizations in the rural areas in developing the society and the individuals, leading to the development of human capital through the effective interventions in the lives of the rural populations. It has been noted that the interventions of the genuine Non Governmental Organizations in the field of education, health, livelihood projects, economic activities and social skills as well as employment skills lead to human development and development of human resources in the rural areas. The study looks at human resource development in their fundamental aspects of basic human empowerment and enhancement of the quality of life in the rural areas. Such interventions create a platform and environment for the rural population to develop their knowledge, skills and abilities. The research conducted also sheds light on the context in which the Non Governmental Organizations have gained momentum in the last couple of decades. The state's compulsion to open up its economy and align with the forces and process of globalization and liberalization for its survival in a fast moving world has forced itself to withdraw slowly from investment in the social sector. The apparent reason was to maintain the fiscal discipline. In this process the vast majority of the deprived sections of the society was left behind. In this context as a normal reaction to such deprivation, the NGOs who works for the deprived sections of the society assumed significance and came to prominence by reaching out to the marginalized and left out sections of people and created a paradigm for development. This research makes an enquiry into the effectiveness of such interventions and reaching out of the NGOs to the rural population

CONTENTS

Acknowledgement		i-ii
Abstract		iii
Contents		iv-viii
List of Tables		ix-x
List of Figures		xi
Abbreviations		xii-xiv
CHAPTER – I:	INTRODUCTION	1-68
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Situating the Context of the Study	2
1.3	The Non Governmental Organizations	4
1.3.1	The Meaning of the Concept- Non Governmental Organizations	5
1.3.1.1	The World Bank Concept of the Term - NGO	6
1.3.1.2	The United Nations Concept of NGOs	7
1.3.1.3	Non Governmental Organizations- Defined by Researchers	8
1.3.2	Evolution and Development of NGOs	11
1.3.2.1	Influence of Religion on NGOs Development	12
1.3.2.2	Influence of Social System and Culture	13
1.3.2.3	Influence of Social Reform Movements on NGOs	13
1.3.2.4	The Influence Christian Missionaries in the Development of Modern NGOs	15
1.3.2.5	The Influence of Nationalist Leaders on Voluntarism	16
1.3.2.6	The Influence of Mahatma Gandhi and Sarvodaya Movement	16
1.3.2.7	Gandhian Followers and their Spirit of Voluntarism	17

1.3.2.8	Voluntarism in Post Independent India	17
1.3.2.9	Political Development and Impact on State-NGO Relationship	18
1.3.2.10	The NGO-State Collaboration in the Five Year Plans	20
1.3.2.11	The Gaining Importance of NGOs in the Context of Economic Liberalization	21
1.3.3	The Role of NGOs in Human Development	22
1.3.4	NGOs and their Contribution to Enhance Human Resource Development	23
1.4	Justification of the Study	26
1.5	The District Of Sitapur	26
1.5.1	Geography of Sitapur	27
1.5.2.	Transportation	27
1.5.3.	Agriculture	28
1.5.4.	Administrative Classification	28
1.5.5.	Demographic Profile of the District	28
1.5.6	Economic Profile	31
1.5.7	Education	33
1.5.8	Number of Schools and Colleges in Sitapur	34
1.5.9	Students-Teacher Ratio in Sitapur	34
1.5.10	Health and Family Welfare	34
1.5.11	Labour and Workforce	35
1.5.11.1	Number of Employees in Government Services	37
1.6	The NGOs Selected for the Study	39
1.6.1	World Vision India	39
1.6.2	Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (Holy Cross Welfare Trust)	44
1.6.3	Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthan (SSS)	51
1.7	Statement of the Problem	58
1.8	Objectives and Hypotheses of the Study	60
1.8.1	Objectives the Study	61
1.8.2	Hypothesis	61
1.9	Relevance of study	62
1.10	Significance of the Research Area	63
1.11	The Organisation of the Research Report	63

CHAPTER - II:	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	69-105
1	Akshay and Yashi (2014)	69
2	Chimiak (2014)	71
3	Dyke et, al (2014)	71
4	Maria (2014).	73
5	Vatamanescu et al (2014)	73
6	Yagub (2014)	74
7	Hassan & Forhad (2013)	74
8	Sitek (2013)	75
9	Farhad & Akram (2012)	76
10	Ismail (2012)	78
11	Rezaul and Morgan (2012)	78
12	Duru (2011)	80
13	Godwin, Deryl and Stewart (2011)	80
14	Armando et al (2010)	83
15	Nikkhah and Redzuan (2010)	86
16	Chalhoub (2009)	86
17	Bradaschia (2008)	87
18	Jessica (2008)	88
19	Vijay (2007)	89
20	Pearson et al (2006)	90
21	Jayati (2005)	90
22	Kelly (2005)	91
23	Sajnani (2005)	92
24	Guay, Doh and Sinclair (2004)	93
25	Nauro et al (2004)	94
26	Sangeeta (2004)	95
27	Michael Sarah, (2002)	95
28	Brian (2000)	97
29	Gibson (2000)	98
30	Mashinini (2000)	99
31	Renee (1998)	100
32	Shelly (1997)	100
33	Yianna (1997)	100

CHAPATER –III:	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	106-120
3.1	Methods Adopted for the Study	106
3.2.	Tools and Techniques Used for the Study	
3.2.1	Description of the Tools and Techniques	107
3.2.2	The Factors Selected for the Research Tool	107
3.2.3	Standardization of the Multi-Item Scale	109
3.3	The Sampling Frame	111
3.4	Sample and Sampling Technique	112
3.5	Collection of Data	112
3.6	Scoring Pattern	112
3.6.1	Demographic Profile	112
3.6.2	Perception Analysis	112
3.6.2.1	Methodology for the Calculation of the Range of Impact	113
3.7	The Organization and Analysis of the Data	113
3.7.1	Normality of Data	113
3.7.2	Verifying the Nature of the Test Data	115
3.7.3	Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test	119
CHAPATER -IV:	RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	121-202
Section I:	Demographic Characteristics	121-150
4.1	NGO, Religion, Caste, Age, Gender and Marital Statuswise Distribution of Selected Beneficiaries	121
4.2	Educational and Employment Status of the Population under Study	123
4.3	Economic Status and Source of Income of the Population under Study	124
4.4	NGOs Role in Getting Employment for the Beneficiaries	127
4.5	Descriptive Statistics of the Factors of Research	128
4.5.1	Analysis Based on Total Population (Selected Beneficiaries) of Individual Factors	128
4.5.2	Analysis Based on Gender	141
4.5.3	Age-wise Analysis	141
Section II:	Hypothesis Testing	151-202
4.6	Conclusion	202

CHAPTER -V:	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	203-212
5.1	Summary of the Research	204
5.1.1	Objectives of the Research	204
5.1.2	Hypothesis of the Research	205
5.1.3	Dimensions of the Research	205
5.2	Findings	210
5.3	Difficulty Level of the Study	210
5.4	Suggestions for Further Study	211
5.5	Conclusion	211
BIBLIOGRAPHY		213-229
APPENDIX – 1	Data Collection Tool	230-233
APPENDIX – 2	Formulas Used	234-237
APPENDIX – 3	The Baseline Assessment Reports	238-250

LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	Title	Page No.
1.1	Administrative Classification, District of Sitapur	28
1.2	Combined Demographic Profile: India, U.P, Sitapur	29
1.3	Block wise Population Details, Sitapur District	30
1.4.	Population and Decadal Growth Rate, Sitapur	31
1.5.	Projected Distribution of Population by Annual Income, Sitapur	31
1.6	Gross Domestic Prices at Constant Prices	32
1.7	Combined Table: Literacy Rate; India, U.P and Sitapur	33
1.8	Literacy Rate; Percentage	33
1.9	Educational Institutions in Sitapur	34
1.10	Students-Teacher Ratio, Sitapur	34
1.11	Health Institutions in Sitapur	35
1.12	Combined Workforce Profile, India, U.P and Sitapur	35
1.13	Types of Workforce	36
1.14	Total Number of Workers	37
1.15	Employment in Public Sector; Sitapur	38
1.16	Combined Indices Table; Demographics, Sitapur	38
1.17	Training Programmes Conducted for Capacity Building	47
1.18	Members Engaged in Income Generating Activities	47
1.19	Details of the students in Non-Formal Education Programme	48
1.20	Students Details: National Open School Programme	49
1.21	RNTCP; Details of Patients and Cure Rate	50
1.22	Major Interventions in Education Sector	54
1.23	SHGs Programmes: Details	58
3.1	The Factors (Dimensions) of Research	108
3.2	Summary Design of the Data Collection Tool	109

3.3	Test of Normality	110
3.4	Test of Homogeneity of Variance	117
4.1	NGO-Wise Distributions of the Selected Beneficiaries	121
4.2	Religion and Caste Wise Distributions of Beneficiaries	122
4.3	Age, Gender and Marital Status of Beneficiaries	122
4.4	Educational and Occupational Structures of Beneficiaries	126
4.5	Pattern of Responses Showing Assistance Received in Employment	127
4.6	Frequencies of the Responses of the Overall Factors	128
4.7	Frequencies of the Responses on the Factor of Achievement Motivation	129
4.8	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Active Initiative	131
4.9	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Emotional Control	132
4.10	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Intellectual Flexibility	133
4.11	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Self Confidence	134
4.12	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Social Competency	135
4.13	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Education	136
4.14	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Health	137
4.15	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Economic Development	138
4,16	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Livelihood Security	139
4.17	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Task Leadership	140
4.18	Frequencies of Responses on the Factor of Time Management	141
4.19	Frequencies of Responses of the Male Respondents on the Factors of Research	142
4.20	Frequencies of Responses of the Female Respondents on the Factors of Research	144
4.21	Frequencies of Responses of the Respondents Below 20 years on the Factors of Research	146
4.22	Frequencies of Responses of the Respondents Between 20 Years and 40 Years on the Factors of Research	147
4.23	Frequencies of Responses of the Respondents Between 40 Years and 60 Years on the Factors of Research	149
4.24	Frequencies of Responses of the Respondents Above 60 Years on the Factors of Research	150

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No.	Title	Page No.
4.1	Distribution of Beneficiaries Based on Age, Gender & Status	123
4.2	Distribution of Beneficiaries Based Education	124
4.3	Distribution of Beneficiaries Based on Job	124
4.4	Distribution of Beneficiaries Based on Income	125
4.5	Distribution of Beneficiaries Based on Occupation	126
4.6	Pattern of Response Showing Assistance Received By NGOs	127
4.7	Frequency Distribution of Responses on Overall Quality of Life	129
4.8	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor- Achievement Motivation	130
4.9	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor -Active Initiative	131
4.10	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor Emotional Control	132
4.11	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor- Intellectual Flexibility	133
4.12	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor- Self Confidence	134
4.13	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor- Social Competence	135
4.14	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor -Education	136
4.15	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor-Health	137
4.16	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor - Economic Development	138
4,17	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor - Livelihood Security	139
4.18	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor -Task Leadership	140
4.19	Frequency Distribution of Total Respondents Based on the Factor - Time Management	141

ABBREVIATIONS

ABSA – Additional Basic Shiksha Adhikari

ADP – Area Development Programme

AED – Automatic External Defibrillator

ANDS – Afghanistan National Development Strategy

ANM – Auxiliary Nurse Midwife

ANTEFA – National Agency for Ault Education and Training

AW – Angan Wadis

BEC – Basic Education Curriculum

BINGO – Big International nongovernmental organizations

BPL – Below Poverty Line

BRC – Block Resource Centre

BSA – Basic Shiksha Adhikari

CB-NGO - Community Based Nongovernmental Organizations

CBO – Community Based Organization

CDPO - Child Development Project Officer

CET – Centre for Education and Training

CHAI – Community-Lead HIV/AIDS Initiative

CMO - Chief Medical Officer

CO – Community Organizations

CS – Civil Society

CSO – Civil Society Organization

DIET – District Institute of Education and Training

DO – Developmental Organization

DONGO – Donor Nongovernmental Organization

DPO – Disabled Person's Organization

ECOSOC – Economic and Social Council

FAO – Food and Agricultural Organization

FCRA – The Foreign Contributions Regulation Act

FY - Financial Year

GDP - Gross Domestic Product

GOI – Government of India

GRESO - Grass-roots Support Organization

GRO – Grass-roots Organization

HD – Human Development

HDR – Human Development Report

HRD – Human Resource Development

HRM – Human Resource Management

IBSP – Integrated Birth Spacing Programme

ICDS – Integrated Child Development Scheme

ICTO – Interim Commission for International Trade Organization

IDCI – International Development Cooperation Institution

IDRC – International Development Research Centre

ILO – International Labour Organizations

INGO – International Nongovernmental Organization

ITO – International Trade Organization

JJCC – Jeevan Jyoti Community Centre

LDNGO – Local Development Oriented Non Governmental Organization

LEQ – Life Effectiveness Questionnaire

MSSRF – M.S. Swaminathan Research Foundation

MSW – Master of Social Work

NABARD - National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development

NGDO - Nongovernmental Development Organization

NGOs – Non Governmental Organizations

NNGO – Northern Nongovernmental Organization

NPO – Non Profit Organization

NPSO – Non Profit Social Services Organization

NREGA – National Rural Employment Guarantee Act

OBC – Other Backward Class
ORS – Oral Rehydration Salt

PHC – Primary Health Centre
PO – People's Organization

POUZN – Point-of-Use Water Disinfection and Zinc Treatment Project

PSC – Public Service Contractor

RCC – Reproductive and Child Care

RCH – Reproductive and Child Health

RMP – Registered Medical Practioner

RNCTP – The Revised National Tuberculosis Control Programme

RTE – Right to Education

SC – Scheduled Caste

SCO – Social Change Organization

SHGs – Self Help Groups

SMCs – School Management committees

SNGO – Support Nongovernmental Organization

SSS – Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan

ST - Scheduled Tribe

STP – Sitapur

TTC – Timed and Targeted Counseling

UN – United Nations

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

UNFPA – United Nations Population Fund

UNICEF – United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

VO – Voluntary Organizations

WB – World Bank

WCARRD - World Conference on Agrarian Reforms and Rural Development

WCO – Welfare Church Organization

WSHGs – Women Self Help Groups WTO – World Trade Organization

WV – World Vision

Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In the midst of the World War II, the then prime minister of Great Britain said, "There is no finer investment than putting milk in babies". India is a country with a population of 1.3 billion people. As in the case of any country it is an indisputable fact that its human capital is its greatest asset. While considerable effort has been made, many countries, particularly developing countries, continue to face challenges in developing sufficient human resources capable of meeting national development needs. In addition, because of lack of resources and capacity, developing countries often face difficulties in the formulation and implementation of effective human resource development strategies.

Progress is basically the result of human effort. A country needs educated political leaders, lawyers and judges, trained engineers, doctors, managers, artists, writers, craftsman, journalists and such other trained personnel in every field¹.

In the context of globalization and economic liberalization no government or international agencies could afford to ignore the interventions the voluntary sector in development and empowerment of the people left behind in the above said process. Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) embrace a wide array of agencies within and across different countries of the world. At their broadest, NGOs are simply agencies or groups which are different from government bodies. However, NGOs are distinctive in containing a voluntary component and because they do not operate for profit.

The foundations for the contemporary voluntary sector (NGO sector) were created in the Pre-Independence period; some of them associated with the social reform movements of the late nineteenth century, largely concerned with educational and cultural matters and only tangentially with the question of poverty. Christian missionary groups established a network of hospitals, schools, and welfare services for the poor in the first half of the twentieth century. A third tradition was the

Gandhian approach, which combined social reform with village development activities. The primary objectives of NGOs' activity in rural India are poverty alleviation and the empowerment of the poor, primarily through small scale development projects. some NGOs have chosen to tackle the symptoms of poverty manifested in low educational standards, ill-health, poor sanitation, and inferior housing, livelihood programmes by means of social welfare activities.

The role of the NGO sector is fast becoming, very substantial and foundational in the development of the population especially the rural population. They are seen not only just as one who ameliorate the worst effects of poverty, but they are becoming symbol of care, deliverers of services and partners of government and international institutions and handmaidens to the philanthropic sector². Development is their key agenda. Their development agenda includes alleviation of poverty, employment generations, education, health care, lessening of discrimination in all its forms and empowerment³. Some scholars would differently call it as creating capability (Martha C. Nussbaum; 2011) and others as human development or development of human resources (MahbubulHaq; 1995). Often questions are asked, why NGOs became so prominent. Many of the scholars attribute it to the failure of the state to meet the development of the people (Shelley Feldman; 1995, Riddell Roger, C., Robinson Mark; 1995, Brian K. Murphy; 2000). The problem of development has heightened after taking the path of economic liberalization and free market economy. Shelley Feldman argues that, "these conditions provide a ready market for the NGOs able to generate employment and income sources, provide skills training, and support the privatization of small scale production and petty trade. It generates as well growing interest in NGO participation as these new institutions are an expanding resource for skills training and credit, two critical ingredients for enhanced market involvement"⁴.

1.2 Situating the Context of the Study

In the context of the globalization and free market economy investment in physical capital has taken centre stage to the exclusion of many other factors (MahbubulHaq, 1995)⁵. Leaders of the countries often focus on national economic growth alone and they fail to see that the reports of the national prosperity in terms of the measurement of the GDP or GNP has not made significant changes in the quality of people's lives (Martha C Nussbaum, 2011)⁶. The countries respond to public rankings that affect

their international reputation. This makeshift approach encouraged them to work for economic growth alone, without attending to the living standard of their poorer inhabitants, and without addressing issues such as ill health and education, which typically do not improve with economic growth. Hence we need a counter theory⁷. A common, and unfortunately often justified, critique of many economic development policies in the Third World has been that, at best, they deliver 'growth without development⁸.

The recent global financial and economic crisis further weakened countries' capacity to address challenges in the area of Human Resource Development (HRD) and at the very moment an increased investment in human resources was required to overcome the negative effects of the crisis.

Furthermore, the countercyclical measures taken by many governments in the early stage of the global crisis have been abandoned in favour of fiscal austerity. Faced with widening fiscal deficits and rising public debt, many governments have been phasing out stimulus measures, ostensibly for fiscal consolidation⁹. This is jeopardizing government led recovery in many countries, increasing the risk of longer term unemployment and further decelerating global recovery. Many governments are cutting needed social expenditures, particularly in the areas of education and health, thus adversely affecting long term human resources development.

High unemployment levels in advanced economies, especially for youth, continue to pose risks for the world stability. Developing countries, especially in emerging economies, continue to recover, even though the pace varies across countries.

Many countries are also facing the emerging challenge of a "job-poor" recovery, with unemployment and underemployment remaining high. According to International Labour Organization (ILO), the number of unemployed was 205 million in 2010, 27.6 million higher than the pre-crisis level. The global unemployment rate stood at 6.2 percent in 2010, up from 5.6 percent in 2007. Nearly 30 million jobs were lost worldwide between 2007 and the end of 2009, and at least 22 million new jobs need to be created to return to the pre-crisis level of global employment (UN Report, 2011)

In this context of globalization, free market economy and the economic crisis and governments' concerns with regard to the strict control over the widening fiscal deficit by withdrawing from social investments, a space has been created for the 'non state actors'¹⁰. The phenomenal growth of NGOs can also be seen as a result of the failure of official aid programmes to reach down and assist the poor, and because of donor pressure on recipient governments to reduce their direct involvement in development programmes. Moreover, there was a further rise in their importance, as the World Bank and bilateral agencies continued to expand their funding of NGOs and were increasingly brought in to the mainstream of the development debate. Today we see that both official donors and NGOs are working directly (and often together) in efforts to strengthen civil society (Riddell Roger C & Robinson Mark; 1995)¹¹.

1.3 The Non Governmental Organizations

Over the past several decades the number of internationally active Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have grown exponentially. As NGOs have proliferated and become more important players in global politics, they have drawn greater attention from scholars in a variety of disciplines including political science, sociology, anthropology, history, non-profit studies and communications.

The reach and spread of NGOs' activities in India are reflected at various spheres; such as welfare programmes, development oriented initiatives, empowering women and weaker sections, protecting the lives of the marginal segments, protecting the environment, involving in literacy programmes and education etc. The motivating forces for the NGOs depended on the time, need and situations of the society and the nation. The struggle for freedom reigned supreme in the minds of the people after the independence and the people were motivated to join voluntary organizations in the 1950s. The NGO section got expanded in the due course of time. Many NGOs shifted to income generating activities in the minds of the people in the beginning of 1960s. The concern for the environment, ecology, technology and development grew in the minds of the people in the beginning of 1970s. By 1980s many NGOs became conscious of involving in human rights activities. In the context of the rapid progress in industrialization many NGOs originated to wage a war against the exploitation of the nature and environment.

Government machineries intended to play a dominant role in improving the condition of the millions of the peoples. Due to various factors and national and international development the NGOs have assumed a great significance for the lives of the rural population and they will continue to have a crucial role in the overall development efforts in the country. On the one hand, Government endeavour will dominate the national and regional scene, on the other importance of NGOs in the micro level interventions cannot be ignored. Garain (1994) ¹² specifies role of government and NGOs at certain level i.e., government will implement programmes which are planned at macro level for the betterment of the large section of population spread throughout the country. NGOs work at various projects and work with the issues touching the people at the grassroots.

NGOs are beginning to act increasingly like governmental regulatory agencies, issuing a new generation of *defacto* "regulations" in the form ofstandards, guidelines, and certifications. Once irritators and outsiders, NGOs increasingly are shifting to market based approaches in order to effect change and gain a prominent place at the table in stake holder negotiations¹³.

1.3.1 The Meaning of the Concept- Non Governmental Organizations

The term NGO is really a catch word for an enormous variety of structures, pursuing diverse strategies, of widely differing sizes, aims or missions, and defies definition because of this diversity¹⁴. They also embrace a wide array of agencies within and across different countries of the world. At their broadest, NGOs are simply agencies or groups which are different from government bodies. The formal use of the term derives from its recent manifestation as a highly significant vehicle for development. Some scholars also understand the NGOs as some of the smallest yet among the most visible of the institutional sectors within civil society. They have been called a "new sociological reality¹⁵.

The NGOs are also known as the Voluntary Organizations (VO). The term "voluntary" is derived from the Latin word "Voluntas", which means "wish/will/inclination/goodwill" (Muttalib M. A.; 1987)¹⁶. According to R. Suryamoorthy and K D Gangrade, Voluntary action is initiated on one's own volition and directed toward a number of noble, humanitarian and compassionate objectives, such as welfare of the needy, neglected, destitute, handicapped, aged, and infirm. Individuals who are relatively sensitive by nature would identify crucial areas wherein

committed voluntary action is necessary. Voluntarism as a philosophy and strategy of development exerts influence on individuals to initiate voluntary action and has emerged as a force to counter the anti-poor, fragmented and non-secular policies and actions of the ruling elites. When voluntary action is formalized and legalized and acquires some organized form, the action produces voluntary organization¹⁷. Voluntarism has generated a lot of interest as a philosophy and as an approach to tackle India's problem of poverty, unemployment, health and environment etc. It focuses on common action programmes at grassroots, the revitalization of corporate philanthropy and social responsibility. Individuals or groups whose urge for action arise and are motivated by the compassion, sense of justice, organize voluntary action as natural action. Once the action gets institutionalized into constitutions and by laws and governed by the board of management it takes the form of voluntary organization. The term voluntary organization thus encompasses a wide range of agencies viz., Societies, Cooperatives, Trusts and Trade Unions. It was the World Conference on Agrarian Reforms and Rural Development (WCARRD) held under the auspices of Food and Agricultural Organizations (FAO) in 1979 puts its official stamp on the role of NGOs in rural development. From then on the term NGO used to have a uniform terminology (Vindhya U and Kalpana V. 1989)¹⁸.

1.3.1.1 The World Bank Concept of the Term - NGO

The international institutions like the World Bank define NGOs in a broader sense.

"The diversity of NGOs strains any simple definition. They include many groups and institutions that are entirely or largely independent of government and that have primarily humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives. They are private agencies in industrial countries that support international development; indigenous groups organized regionally or nationally; and member-groups in villages. NGOs include charitable and religious associations that mobilize private funds for development, distribute food and family planning services and promote community organization. They also include independent cooperatives, community associations, water-user societies, women's groups and pastoral associations. Citizen Groups that raise awareness and influence policy are also NGOs" 19

The World Bank further states:

A nonprofit making, voluntary, service-oriented/development-oriented organization either for the benefit of its members or for other members of the population.

An organization composed of private individuals who believe in certain basic social principles and who structure their activities to bring about development to communities that they are servicing.

An independent, democratic, non sectarian people's organization working for the empowerment of economic and/or socially marginalized groups.

Organizations established by and for the community, with or without intervention from the government; they include not only charity organizations, but those that work on socio-economic–cultural activities.²⁰

A non-governmental organization, (also often referred to as "Civil Society Organization" or CSO) is a not-for-profit group, principally independent from government, which is organized on a local, national or international level to address issues in support of the public good. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights.²¹

1.3.1.2 The United Nations Concept of NGOs

As Per the observation of the United Nations (UN) private bodies that do not have any of the following fundamental features are recognized as NGOs

- organizations that engage in violence or advocate Violence as a political tactic;
- organizations that have the stated goal of replacing Existing governments; and
- organizations that are under the direct control of any government.

The term NGO is inter changeably used with Voluntary Organizations/Agencies (VOs), Actions Groups, Non Profit Organizations (NPOs), and Voluntary Organizations etc. As the term NGO has acquired currency in usage, we have preferred to use the term NGO in the thesis and this term is also interchangeably used with VOs and Action Groups. The complex nature of NGOs can be clearly understood from the usage of its term.

1.3.1.3 Non Governmental Organizations- Defined by Researchers

The NGOs have been conceptualised as NPOs as well as Civil Society Organizations (CSOs). For O'Neille (1989)²², NPOs are private organizations serving for a public purpose, i.e., some cause related to the good of the society. On the other hand few scholars have conceptualized NGOs as CSOs. Characterizing them as part of civil society implies that they are different from the corporate/bureaucratic organizations. Either in terms of their autonomy and flexibility with respect to their internal organization affairs on entering of their being a non-profitable entity, established for some social cause. They should be looked upon as autonomous public space of non-party political process outside the space of state and market (Oommen T.K.; 1996)²³. They are autonomous in the sense that they are initiated spontaneously at least at the level of persons who formed them, and are governed by their members without external controls and compulsions.

The NGOs involve organizational characteristics. According to Sundaram, I.S. (1986), "A voluntary organization, properly speaking is an organization- whether its workers are paid or unpaid, initiated and governed by its own members without external control"²⁴. It is also understood as a structure of voluntary action for societal development (Mukherjee; 1994)²⁵. According to Potter (1996), "An NGO is an organization in the sense that it has at least several fulltime people involved, some sort of hierarchy, a budget, an office"²⁶. However, he also refers to the boundary problems in conceptualizing NGOs, and argues that the boundary between organization and non-organization can be very thin.

To quote Princeton and Finger (1994), "The difficulty of characterizing the entire phenomenon results in large part from the great diversity found in the global NGO community. The diversity derives from differences in size, duration, range and scope of activities, ideology, cultural background, organizational culture and legal status."²⁷ Thus it is not always clear, what entities affect the phenomenon most in a given setting. Mohanty (1996)²⁸ also points out the apparent definitional problems of NGOs citing the diversification in size, forms and objectives. He conceptualizes NGOs as one of the alternatives in the context of the increasing problems of the third world and the perceived failure of national governments to effectively promote development and to raise the standard of living poor. He however, does not discuss about the nature, form and position of this new alternative.

Following Weber (1961)²⁹ the 'corporate organization' may be defined as an associative social relationship characterized by an administrative staff. They include wide network of relationships outside the administrative structure, which have a crucial role to play in the working of the voluntary organization. The phenomenal growth of NGOs sector during the past three decades has added new dimensions to this phenomenon. What started as an act of welfare and charity at the individual level or by some from the voluntary association has expanded, and diversified and considerably changed the nature of collective voluntary action at the grassroot level. The diversion of funds from the macro-structure towards the microstructures was underpinned by the philosophy of ensuring people's participation in the process of development through the institution close to the people. However, the conceptualisation of this phenomenon as an organization in the conventional sense eludes a comprehensive explanation on the role of NGOs in the radically changed social reality. In the contemporary socio-political contexts, NGOs are not being looked upon merely as an agent or organization of development or welfare. They have emerged and come to stay for achieving the broader goal of strengthening the civil society. There is a need to re-look voluntarism in a wider ambit, and situate the NGOs in a wider structural framework to capture their new characteristics (Bakshi; 1996)³⁰.

Anna C Vakil (1997), in her research on the classification of the NGOs explains the difficulties in classifying and defining NGOs. She summarily describes NGOs as "self-governing, private, not for- profit organizations that are geared to improving the quality of life of disadvantaged people". There were anthropologists and sociologists who tried to look at the non profit nature of the NGOs. But she is of the view that an NGO cannot be strictly be considered as 'non profit organization' as it would exclude the co-operative societies which are primarily community based organizations. The cooperative societies distribute profit among its members though their nature is not primarily profit making. The definition also needs to take into account to include the development oriented activities as they are involved in the development works in a community.

The essential descriptors are considered to be the matter of orientation given and refer to the activities of the NGOs such as welfare, development, advocacy, development education, networking and research. Contingent factors are set of attributes critical for analysts operating in particular policy fields. The type of

intervention that an NGO provides influences its structure, operating procedures, resource requirements and management strategies³¹.

Based on her research she classifies the NGOs in the following way

BINGO - Big International nongovernmental organizations

CBO - Community Based Organization

CB-NGO - Community Based Nongovernmental Organizations

DO - Developmental Organization

DONGO - Donor Nongovernmental Organization

GRO - Grass-roots Organization

GRESO - Grass-roots Support Organization

IDCI - International Development Cooperation Institution

INGO - International Nongovernmental Organization

NGDO - Nongovernmental Development Organization

NNGO - Northern Nongovernmental Organization

PO - People's Organization

PSC - Public Service Contractor

SCO - Social Change Organization

SNGO - Support Nongovernmental Organization

WCO - Welfare Church Organization³²

NGOs differ widely among themselves with respect to their ideological shades, sizes, levels of work. Based on the empirical observations and variations according to Dhanagare, the role may be classified as (a) relief and charity, (b) development work (c) mobilisation and organization (d) political education (Dhanagare; 1988)³³. NGOs are active at various levels. At the international level or national level they usually act as donors or advocacy agents.

NGOs are described as, by Clarke³⁴, "Virtuous David's fighting the Goliaths of famine, hostile climate, government inequity, slavery and oppression". At the grass

root level the role of NGOs as summarized by Garain; (1994)³⁵ is as follows:

- a) NGOs make adaptation in the application of schemes planned by the government at the micro level to specifications considering local requirements.
- b) Supporting the actions/programmes carried out by the government agencies.
- c) Providing alternative approach to government policies and programmes, addressing different problems of the target groups.
- d) Develop backward and forward linkages for enhancing the effectiveness of their own and the government in undertaking development opportunities.
- e) Supplement government efforts, particularly in reaching out to less accessible groups and at times complement existing services in response to other needs of the same target groups.

1.3.2 Evolution and Development of NGOs

NGOs have a long history of humanitarian activities worldwide (in both developed and underdeveloped countries). It is only recently however, that the importance of the roles they play in society, and the possibility of extending their activities into other aspects of social change and democratization have been recognized.

The spirit of voluntarism has existed from time immemorial. In a way we can say that the spirit of voluntarism is as ancient as the humanity itself. But the first structured NGO that we have found referenced in the literature was the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society in 1800s which was a movement in the 19th century to ban slavery in the British Empire. By 1849, four NGOs had been established. The World Alliance of YMCAs founded in 1855, was the first international NGO to appear on the scene. Other prominent nineteenth century NGOs included the International Committee of the Red Cross, Geneva (1863), the U. S Sierra Club (1892), and the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (1889). In the year 1910 under the label of the Union of International Associations 132 NGOs decided to cooperate on different fields.³⁶

India has a glorious history of organized voluntary work for public and social good. Cultural ethos and values of the country were partly responsible for this tradition as manifested in charity, relief work, and philanthropic activities. *Dana*, both at the individual and social domains, occupied a supreme position in the *dharma* scheme of Hindu life. *Dana* was believed to be a prerequisite for the attainment of *moksha*. Kings aspired to become benevolent rulers so that their *kirthi*(fame) would transcend across the boundaries of their respective

kingdoms. It was believed that it could assure them a berth in heaven as well. The rich adopted *dana*, normally at the end of their lives, as a means to *moksha* and to purge themselves of their sins and misdoings. Examples abound in Indian classics and epics.

In ancient and medieval India, voluntarism found expression in diverse forms. At the outbreak of natural calamities like drought, floods, and earthquakes, people came forward to volunteer their service to those who were affected. The case for first- generation NGOs in most parts of the world was similar. First- generation NGOs involved themselves in the direct delivery of services to meet immediate needs or shortages of food, health care, and shelter. This delivery of services was most obvious at the time of floods, earthquakes, or war, and involved assisting the victims and providing services to the poor (Korten; 1992)³⁷. People were motivated to voluntary work because of their concern for their less-fortunate brethren. Voluntary work assumed its most humane face on such occasions, when communities pooled their resources to help those in distress due to contingencies. Communitarian values dominated individuals' self-centered ones in traditional India.

In the latter part of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries India braved severe famines. Kings responded positively to the pitiable situation with royal charity doles. Philanthropists' faith in *danadharama*motivated them to help the victims. The rich and ruling classes extended support to the indigent (Gangrade; 1987)³⁸. Villagers confronted tragedies together without segregating themselves into the affected and the unaffected or grouping themselves on the basis of any other criteria of social stratification. During this time, particularly before the nineteenth century, charity on a voluntary basis outside religious channels took place, irrespective of caste, class, creed, or gender, when there were emergencies like famines and floods. The needy received help from their fortunate fellow men. Community and neighbourhood interests were predominant and inspired many to take up voluntary activities.

1.3.2.1 Influence of Religion on NGOs Development

Religion emphasized the value of philanthropy, mutual help and the virtue of that *dan*, i.e., free gift which encompassed different form of social service bringing cash assistance to the needy, imparting knowledge, providing food and shelter to pilgrim, care of the sick and the destitute were considered to be righteous act. Institution like

Matts and temples were responsible for the religion inspired form of social service, and the social institution like caste and the joint family were concerned with the case of handicapped the destitute, the widows and the aged. Religious consideration by and large motivated acts of charity and service to please God and acquire *Punya*. They also generated an honest desire in a large number of people to help the needy. Caste and community counters look over the responsibilities of providing support to the needy.

1.3.2.2 Influence of Social System and Culture

The economy system was also governed by the customs like the *jajmani* system (Patron client relationship) which made it imperative for the "Patron" (mostly higher caste people) to look after the interest of the "Clients" (belonging mainly to the lower caste)³⁹. In addition to these institutions, kings and emperors also provided services to the needy mainly as part of religious and social duties and responsibilities.

1.3.2.3 Influence of Social Reform Movements on NGOs

The beginning of the change in the voluntary efforts from information effort by family and caste to the relatively, formal and group efforts started with the advent of the British Rule in India. The Charter Act of 1813 finally removed all restrictions on missionary activities in India, which led to the expansion of missionary work in a big way. The formation of *AtmiyaSabha* in 1815 by Raja Ram Mohan Roy was an example, which later allied with Christian Unitarians and started the Unitarians committee in 1821 (AlkaSrivastav; 1999)⁴⁰. The consolidation of the British Rule brought about far reaching socio-economic changes in the society, thereby creating situations wherein interventions from outside became necessary to supplement local interventions to meet the needs of the people.

The British Government policy of non-interference and the socio-religious life of the people created opportunities of interventions to individual and groups. They responded to the situations initially by providing services and later by raising questions and initiating action against several socio-religious factors, which necessitated their inventions. Individuals providing these services included Christian missionaries, individual philanthropists and social reformers. The philanthropists and social reformers were drawn mostly from elite sections of the Indian society. (Higher/middle class urban based groups) mostly with the background of English education (Srivastav S.P; 1999)⁴¹. They viewed the British rule as beginning and

admired the administrative and judicial functioning. The spirit of religious, secularism and humanism often provided the inputs for their efforts. Social reformers attacked the age-old customs and practices rooted in religious doctrines, like child marriage, polygamy, female infanticide and *sati*. A large number of people volunteered to work with the great social reformers. As a corollary of this, several movements developed in different parts of the country.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy established *BrahmaSamaj* in the year 1828 with the object of the opposing belief of orthodox Hindus and opposing child marriage. Raja Ram Mohan Roy vehemently fought against the practice of *sati*, worked for the spread of education for women and removal of caste barriers. He also strongly advocated higher education and founded the Hindu College and the Vedanta College to reach his target. Because of his struggle, the practice of *sati* was banned in 1829. Ishwar Chand Vidhya Sagar also supported widow marriage. He started a campaign in favour of widow remarriage and could draw the attention of GOI, which passed the Hindu Widow Marriage Act, 1856.

Sasepada Benerjee is another social reformer of 19th Century whose efforts were unending for the protection of the women's cause. He founded the home for Hindu Widows in 1887. Keshab Chandra Sen also campaigned against untouchability. He founded the Goodwill Fraternity Society and the Calcutta Evening School.

Another important landmark in the reform movement was the *Arya Samaj* founded by Swami Dayanand Saraswati in Bombay in 1875. The *Arya Samaj* was established to fight against the idol worship, child marriage, forced widowhood and caste discrimination. Pandit Ramabai worked incessantly for the emancipation of women. She established *Arya Mahila Samaj* in 1860 and opened *Sharada Sadan* in 1889, a home for Hindu Widows in Bombay and soon shifted to Puna.

Sir Saiyed Ahmed Khan took interest in higher education for Muslim girls and supported modern education and social reform for the community. He started a number of education institutions which later developed into the Aligarh Muslim University. Swami Vivekananda, the disciple of Rama Krishna Paramhans, made lasting contribution to the making of modern India by propagating his views and ideals of service. He started a new type of religious organization called the Rama Krishna Mission. Social service became an integral part of the work of the mission.

The missions has covered in its activities like the education, health and as well as flood and famine relief.

As a sequel to the reform movement of the 19th Century a number of voluntary institutions, especially for the welfare of women were started towards the end of the century. These institutions were, by and large, the work of certain individuals totally dedicated to the cause of social welfare. Considering the period in which these institutions were established and the problems they faced because of the prevailing social customs and prejudices at the time, one could presume that the involvement of the community in the work of these institutions was very limited.

1.3.2.4 The Influence Christian Missionaries in the Development of Modern NGOs

The Christian missionaries of various denominations may be the oldest among the various agencies responsible for the development of tribals. They have been active in almost all parts of tribal India. The old Christians of Malabar Coast trace their conversions to Apostle Thomas as early as the first Century A.D., its real expansion began in South India with arrival of St. Francis Xavier in the 16th century. The Lutheran Mission started its activities as early as 1845 under the guidance of a priest named Gossamer. They were exclusively interested in preaching the Gospel, and the history in Chota Nagpur comprises primarily of evangelistic campaign. (Swavely; 1952, cited in Panigrah D. K.; 1993)⁴².

The Catholic Mission of Chota Nagpur began about 1885 by Rev. C. Lieveno who is said to have been pained to discover that the natives were being exploited by the Rajas and Zamindars. Dr. Leavens took up their cause being filled with the charity of Christ and a true love of justice (SC Roy; 1939, cited in LM Prasad)⁴³. Decades ago, Two American Missionaries called Dr. and Mrs. Spencer started YMCA programme for improved poultry and bee keeping for honey in the Marthandam *taluka* of the erstwhile Trivandrum State. Another missionary called Dr. Leonard Elmbirst from UK in collaboration with Rabindra Nath Tagore worked on rural reconstruction and made Sriniketan as a pioneering institution. (Sundaram IS 1986, cited in D. Rajashekher 2000)⁴⁴. Christian missionaries augmented voluntary action through relief and charity work. A network of agricultural colonies and new villages were formed for bettering the socio-economic life of the people. Establishing dispensaries and hospitals, welfare centres including rehabilitation institution,

constructing roads and other infrastructure facilities, helping women and children and eradication of social evils such as untouchability were part of the missionary activities in India.

1.3.2.5 The Influence of Nationalist Leaders on Voluntarism

The establishment of the servants of India Society, founded by Gopal Krishan Gokhale (1866-1915) in 1905 was a landmark in the history of social work of the early 20th Century. The society was started to promote a spirit of nationalism and of brotherhood. The servants of India Society marks the beginning of an organized effort for enlisting the cooperation of educated elites and dedicated volunteers recruited and trained for a specific purpose. They were expected to devote themselves to the cause of national development in rural areas after five years of study under his supervision. The provision was made for payment of living allowance for their work to the workers. The payments to the workers were then made out of donation, gifts and subscriptions recovered from the people and also from the mobilisation of resources through development of agriculture, village and cottage industries and so on. (Mukhopadhyay K.K; 1995)⁴⁵.

1.3.2.6 The Influence of Mahatma Gandhi and Sarvodaya Movement

The emergence of Mahatma Gandhi in the political scene gave a fillip to principle based voluntary work in India. The Gandhian workers had spread through the length and breadth of the country to organise what was called constructive work for all around development of rural society. The salient features of his constructive programmes were 'Charkha' (spinning wheels), 'Khadi' (Hand Woven Cloth), "Gram Udyog' (Village Industries), 'basic education', 'sanitation' and eradication of untouchability. In brief, he had favoured of building society that offered equal opportunity to all individuals for educational, economic and social development. The focus of the social work during the period was rather extended to promote a spirit of nationalism and a feeling of brotherhood among the people and train a band of men who would be prepared to give up everything and devote their entire life to service of the country in a missionary spirit. This approach of the voluntary activity was secular and it sought to solve the national and social problems on a rational basis.

Indeed, soon after independence, Gandhi exhorted congress members to abjure power and dedicate themselves to pure selfless service to others. He suggested that constructive workers should not aim at entering parliament, but should work to keep parliament under check by educating and guiding voters. (Jhunjhunwala, Bharat, 1986)⁴⁶.Gandhiji wanted the congress (the political party which came into power), to be transformed into a *Lok Sewak Sangh* (public service organization). His call to the congress party to disband as a political party went largely unheeded, but scores of his followers pledged themselves to a life of constructive work and austerity.

1.3.2.7 Gandhian Followers and their Spirit of Voluntarism

Although very few combined the missionary zeal with a complete indifference to their own wellbeing as did Vinoba Bhave, several hundred men and women founded groups and organizations to serve the poor while adopting Spartan life style themselves. The work of Vinoba Bhave in the *Bhoodan* movement is one of the major movements of voluntary action in independent India. The movement had an unexpected birth in the Ponchampalli village in Nalgonda district of Andhra Pradesh on 18 April 1951, later spread to many other states in the country. Vinoba Bhave was astonished by the gesture of Ramachandra Reddy who volunteered to part with 100 acres of land in favour of harijan landless labourers. The movement explored the possibilities of ethical transformation of the heart of the landowners and the rich to voluntarily offer a portion of their possession. Bhoodan grew into Gramdan movement. Under the gramdan programme, landowners were requested to donate one-twentieth of their cultivable land. About one fortieth of the produce of the landowners and one-thirtieth of the income of the landless was also donated to the village fund (gram nidhi) for the benefit of the whole villagers. The effort was not merely to collect some land but also to redistribute it among the needy. Bhoodan and Grandan were conceived as a mechanism for ethical restructuring of the consciousness of those who possessed land, as a kind of moral revolution (dharma pravarthan) and a first step towards establishing a samya yogi society in which land, property and wealth belonged to the society (Gangrade, K.D. and Sooryamoorthy, R; 1998)⁴⁷. Despite the limited success of the movement, it was rated as one of the remarkable steps in the path of selfless voluntary action.

1.3.2.8 Voluntarism in Post Independent India

The major change in the nature of voluntary action took place in the post-independent India when the constitution declared India as a welfare state and laid down the 'welfare' and 'development' obligation to the state in the directive principles of their state policy. Institutionalization of social service became the hallmark of welfare state

and car loads of money was made available for running a large number of state sponsored welfare programmes for the weaker and vulnerable sections of the society. With launching of a major community development programmes, for allround development of the countryside. The voluntary organization had to re-examine and redefine their role. The government undertook welfare schemes under various plans and policies. Besides, it has encouraged voluntary organization to undertake social welfare programmes under the grant-in-aid programme and set up autonomous bodies like Central Social Welfare Board (Lawani, B.T.; 1999)⁴⁸. It was around this time that several all India level voluntary organizations such as Kasturba Gandhi National Memorial Trust, Indian Council of Social Welfare, and Indian Council of Child Welfare came into being.

Various committees dealing with development duly acknowledged the role of voluntary agencies. The 1957 Balwant Raj Mehta committee that recommended the three tier *Panchayat Raj* Institution upheld the importance of voluntary agencies by underlining that 'today with implementation of various schemes of community development, more and more emphasis is laid on NGOs and workers and on the principle that ultimately people's own local organization should take over the entire work (Bidyut ,Chakraborty; 2004)⁴⁹.

During the 1960s, it was found that economic growth combined with welfare activities at the micro level, were not adequate to alleviate poverty. Hence, the Indian government initiated small and marginal farmer development programmes with the view to alleviate poverty. Indian NGOs were called upon by the government to enlist support of the local population for these programmes and help out in their implementation. This was in addition to their involvement in welfare programmes and vocational training (Murthy &Rao; 1997)⁵⁰.

1.3.2.9 Political Development and Impact on State-NGO Relationship

During this period, alternative perspectives on development and role of NGOs were also emerging. A large number of people with liberal and radical ideology were attracted to the Marxist analysis to understand the fundamental causes behind poverty and exploitation. The cause of poverty was understood to be the class nature of the society with the rich exploiting the poor. They, therefore, rejected the development models followed by the government on the grounds that they mainly addressed the symptoms rather than the root causes of the poverty. Therefore, a large number of

young people and a section of intelligentsia with Marxist perspective sought to organize the poor and the exploited in rural areas (Bhat, M. K.; 1999)⁵¹.

The 1970s began with the euphoria of military and moral victory in the Bangladesh war. But soon, poor economic performance, coupled with decline in political standards, caused widespread unrest. In 1973, the *Nava Nirman* (New construction) movement spearheaded by student activist in Gujarat led to the fall of a corrupt state government. By 1974, Jaya Prakash Narain had developed serious differences with Indira Gandhi and started a political movement for "total revolution", which led to the imposition of "emergency" in mid-1975, and clamping down on political opponents as well as voluntary activists, many of whom were seen by the government as disruptive.

Hence the first post-independence downturn in the relationship between the government and the voluntary sector. The Foreign Contributions Regulation Act (FCRA) was enacted in 1976 to control the inflow of foreign funds to voluntary agencies, which were by then beginning to be called non-governmental organizations or NGOs.

After the LokSabha elections in 1977, the Janata Party came into power, which visualised specific role for NGOs in various development and welfare programmes launched for the rural people. The government sought active involvement of industrial and business houses in rural development work by granting them special tax exemption. The tax exemption policy of the government gave added impetus to industrial houses, like Mohfatlal groups etc, which were already engaged in the rural development (Paul, D. Choudhary; 1985)⁵². A number of private firms and agencies dealing in agricultural inputs like fertilizer, seeds, pesticides, farm machinery etc., who were interested in sale promotion of their products are doing useful extension work by conducting demonstration offering soil testing and other advisory and custom services, organising training workshops for farm machinery etc. These firms organized special camps in various zones to impart knowledge to farmers about the kind and quality of inputs needed in particular types of soil and climate situation, how much quantity needed and where from farmers can get these inputs.

Indira Gandhi was re-elected in 1980. She set up a Commission (Kudal Commission) of Enquiry to enquire into the affairs of certain Gandhian organization,

particularly AVARD and the Gandhi Peace Foundation. This enquiry caused a lot of disruption for the voluntary sector, particularly to Gandhian and Sarvodaya organizations, and led to a certain degree of loss of credibility as well. The government also further tightened the Foreign Contribution Regulations Act (FCRA) based on charges of foreign funds being misused for fomenting disruption. The exemptions granted to the industrial houses were withdrawn. Thus, the new partnership, which was built between the government and industrial houses during the *Janata* period, came to an abrupt end. This certainly was not an attack on Gandhian organization alone, but reflected government's attitude to NGOs as a whole (Chaturvedi H. R; 1987)⁵³.

1.3.2.10 The NGO-State Collaboration in the Five Year Plans

In the next turn of the historical cycle, when Rajiv Gandhi came to power in late 1984, he decided to give a larger role to NGOs in implementing development programmes. Bunker Roy was brought in as Advisor to the Planning commission and Rs.100 Crores were earmarked in the Seventh Five Year Plan for funding NGOs. During this period government, resources and foreign aid to voluntary groups, increased significantly. Notwithstanding efforts to control the flow of foreign funds, many bilateral donors, foundations and international NGOs in the business of grant making opened offices in India and started disbursing funds for development work (Vimala Ramachandran; 1998)⁵⁴. Similarly, the governments also initiated special grant-in-aid programmes in adult education, rural technology, rural development and women's development and family welfare. Around the same time political activists who had become disillusioned with their parties and with armed struggles started rural groups, which focused on people's mobilisation instead of development projects.

By the time we reached late 80s, the picture started changing again. The international development climate and growing professionalism created a demand for organizations that could provide professional support to the grassroots organization. As a result, the new genre of agencies specializing in training, documentation, research, evaluation, and other forms of resource support became popular.

In 1990s the eight five-year plan emphasised on participatory rural appraisal for drawing up development plans at a very low cost and involving the rural community. In this connection, the statement of the former prime minister, Shri P.V. Narasimha Rao is worth considering, which was delivered on March 7, 1994 while

addressing a conference of NGOs at Vigyan Bhavan (Mishra, S.N. &Chaitiali Pal; 1997)⁵⁵. It reads as follows:

"In all this we have to remember that the people must occupy the centre stage. At all times they should be the focus of all that we aim to do. Therefore, when I talk participatory approach to development, I have in mind approach where people would be helped to help themselves. In other words, we envisage a situation in our country where people would deal with their problems on their own in the not too distant future, without having to depend on outside agencies. In the ultimate analysis, the people should not merely change their masters; people should be their own masters. That is what people centered development is about. Therefore, if a particular area is taken by a non-governmental organization it is expected that it would function there for all time to come. A time should come when the people would have been fully mobilized and made aware of and empowered to deal with their own problems. In other words, the NGOs should withdraw after the task is completed and shift to other place where their services are needed."

1.3.2.11 The Gaining Importance of NGOs in the Context of Economic Liberalization

By 1990s, significant developments started taking place in India and across the world. NGOs became popular with the government and aid agencies in response to certain development in economic and political thinking. The development policy of the world bank, bilateral and multi-lateral agencies, and aid transfers from them, have come to be dominated by what is referred as 'New Policy Agenda', which gives prominent role to the NGOs in poverty alleviation and the development of the civil society (Robinson , 1993)⁵⁶. The agenda has two elements: Economic and Political.

The economic agenda, followed in India since 1991, sees the markets and private sector as efficient in producing the goods, services and in achieving rapid economic growth. Liberalization, globalization and privatization of the economy are the key elements of this agenda. The economic growth is considered as the key strategy for poverty alleviation. It is market led rather than state led, export-orientation rather than import-substitution oriented, labour intensive, and women inclusive rather than women exclusive. The aid agencies prescribed that Indian

government should gradually reduce its role in service provision and development and leave the task to the NGOs as these are seen as cost-effective and efficient service providers.

1.3.3 The Role of NGOs in Human Development

The fundamental objectives of NGO activity in rural India are poverty alleviation and the empowerment of the poor, primarily through small-scale development projects. Some NGOs have chosen to tackle the symptoms of poverty manifested in low educational standards, ill health, poor sanitation, and inferior housing by means of social welfare programmes. The NGOs also take active interest in enhancing the asset position and income earning potential of the poor through land improvement schemes, credit, and skills training. An alternative approach has been for NGOs to empower poor people to demand resources from the state or to challenge injustice and exploitation⁵⁷

The NGO sector within the voluntary sector has grown heterogeneous, with diversity on interests and ambiguities in intent and vision. NGOs in India play diversified role for the development of society. The roles of NGOs are effective in activities in areas where the government agencies cannot reach at the micro level. NGO also have a role in influencing local administration. In most of the developing countries red-tapeism and political interferences restrict the access of government services to the disadvantaged groups, here NGOs who represent rural poor can ensure greater responsiveness of local administration to their needs and aspirations.

The NGOs being the peoples' institution help in motivating, organizing and mobilizing people especially the poor to participate in planning and implementing the development programme put forward by the government. They are also supposed to assist, motivate and organize people for self reliant and group reliant development activities based on the local needs and with the available resources. These provide communication channels between the rural people and various organizations such as village councils, extension agencies, etc., engaged in the development activities and also initiate innovative approaches for more effective human development programmes. NGOs play crucial role in rural development by supplementing government efforts as they are close to the minds and hearts of the rural people.

NGOs act as 'creators', 'preservers' and 'destroyers' in rural areas. They create awareness among people, create livelihood and opportunity, for people with their cooperation. They preserve what is essential to their environment, appropriate technologies and scientific practices etc., and they destroy the evils like alcoholism, superstitions and other social evils (Mishra, S.N. &Chaitali, Pal; 1997)⁵⁸.

1.3.4 NGOs and their Contribution to Enhance Human Resource Development

The most important objective of the grass-root developmental NGOs is development of the individual and the community. The Human Development Report of the UNDP 1993 finds that the lives of over 250 million people world over, especially in the third world countries and the developing countries were being touched by the developmental activities of the NGOs (UNDP, 1993: 93).

The forces associated with economic globalization and the apparent supremacy of market forces have unleashed a range of political and social processes that have served, and were indeed designed, to enrich and empower the few at the expense of the majority. These include phenomena such as the rise in armed conflict, threats to food security, the loss of livelihoods and traditional ways of life of millions of people worldwide, the commoditisation of social provision, assaults on national sovereignty, and the privatization of citizenship⁵⁹.

International institutions which advocate development have often neglected to recognize people as an end of development⁶⁰. So also the states which are being swept away in the powerful current of globalization and multinational market forces.

The global development era was inaugurated on January 20, 1949 with inaugural address of the then American President Harry Truman, the *de facto* leader of the free world after the second world war, with his four point speech on his concept development for the world ahead⁶¹. But unfortunately even after so many years the development concept put forward by him has not shown the desired equitable results. The people marginalized by the development agenda have not got a fair deal either in economics, politics or social policy⁶². Unlike the NGOs, the international systems and strategies have failed to see development as empowerment. The development as empowerment is central to the strategies of the NGOs' programmes.

In this context the question of whether it is still possible to bring about a truly free, humane, equitable, and just world, and how such a historic project might be relaunched and realized within this new century for equitable development of individuals and society. What is the role of NGOs in this process of individual and social development? Hans Holmén and Magnus Jirström argue that Non Governmental Organizations are major players in the field of development in the world today. They have become an integral part of the civil society. Today the NGOs sector must be strengthened more so that they can influence policy formulation, implementation and development. The world bodies and the governments need to accept them as partners in the common goal of human empowerment and development.

This research is to enquire the role played by the grass-root NGOs to create a favourable environment to reap the demographic dividend which India possess in a remarkable way by having the youngest population of the world. Development of the Human Capital is the primary responsibility of a nation. But as mentioned above the economic globalization and the market forces have forced the government to reorient their priorities for the sake of structural adjustments.

In this context we can say that the Indian NGOs making use of the space created by the Governments withdrawal and structural adjustments are responding to needs that governments and the private sector have been unwilling or unable to provide. NGOs have also cooperated with the Indian central government to implement policies or to show innovative and alternative ways of program and policy implementation especially with regard to the development of the rural sector ⁶⁴.

The approach and strategies for the human resource development with regard to the developing countries and the third world Countries will differ from that of the developed countries. The HRD scholars need to go beyond workforce issues, process, systems within the organizational environment for an effective development of people and society. As Meena Razvi and Gene L. Roth urges, HRD scholars and practitioners must connect the role of HRD to the disparities of health, education, and knowledge that afflict residents of impoverished communities. With a focus on improving the overall health of the world's people, a human resource model should aim at creating, crafting, collaborating, connecting and contributing knowledge to construct humane and sustainable social communities.

No country can attain development without investing in human resource. The interventions of NGOs in the sectors of livelihood, health, education and training immensely contribute to healthy and dignified life, economic freedom and freedom of choices, which in turn go a long way in the development of human resource. We can reasonably argue that the investments that NGOs make are basically investments in the development of human resource. Jere R. Behrman of the International Labour Organization (ILO) finds that, "... processes of human resource development are improvements in the health of the working population through better medical and public health programmes, and improvements in nutrition, which increase the working capacity of the people. Obviously, improvements in health and improvements in nutrition are related, and like formal education may be both a cause of economic growth"⁶⁶.

It is in this context a new approach and strategy which is termed as human development approach or human capability approach for human resource development for the developing and third world countries is advocated. The NGOs working in the rural areas in fulfilling the basic needs such as education, health and livelihood of the populations are actively participating in this approach. As Frederick Harbison and Charles A Mayer observes, "A human resource strategy may have as its central goal the enhancement of the freedom, dignity, and worth of man, but has some obligations to help build the kind of economy which can provide decent living standards and protection of freedoms" 67.

The capability approach advocated by Martha C Nussbaum basically aims at building up the capabilities of individuals for building their own lives and choosing their own destinies. For scholars and researchers advocating this approach measure development in terms of opportunities open to each individual and developing policies that are truly pertinent to a wide range of human situations that means attending to diverse factors that affect the quality of human life asking in each area, what are people (and what is each person) actually able to do and to be?⁶⁸. Because as Frederick Harbison and Charles A Mayer argues, "there is no reason to believe that the people of the free world place a higher value on an increase in material wealth than on an increase in health, the expansion of educational opportunities, and the opportunity for self-development of their innate capacities. They want all these things and more"⁶⁹.

1.4 Justification of the Study

I have selected the rural areas of Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh for the study. As we would see below the district of Sitapur is one of the least developed districts of U.P and of India. I would like to make a brief analysis of the activities of the three major NGOs working in the different blocks of Sitapur district and show how their interventions primarily contribute to the investment in human resource in the rural areas.

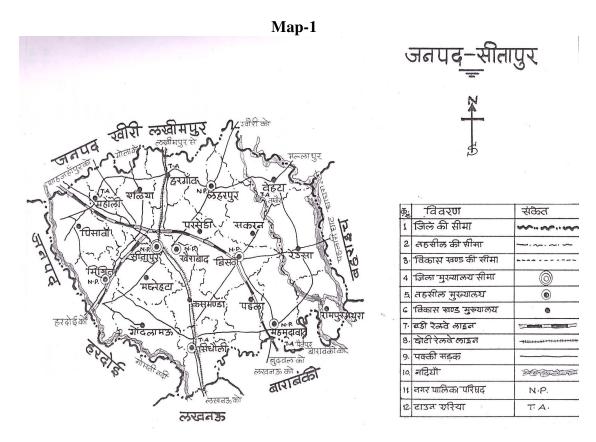
The research is titled "Contributions of Non governmental Organizations in Building Capabilities and Enhancing Quality of Life in the Rural Areas of U.P". The title sheds light on the nature, importance scope of the study undertaken. The development of the human capital is of utmost importance for any society. A nation whose population is the youngest population in the world with regard to the average age in comparison to other developed and developing nations, is of great significance in terms of its contribution to the developed human capital of the world. The vast majority of the Indian population is still living in the rural areas where seldom the benefits of the welfare and quality improvements programmes the government reach the target group. The governments inability to focus substantially in the development of the human capital of the rural areas has given space for the voluntary organizations to intervene and bring out changes in the quality of the peole especially the rural population. Hence this study focuses on the works of the NGOs and the effectiveness of their efforts in developing the human capital.

1.5 The District Of Sitapur

District Sitapur is famous in India due to its mythological and historical background. There is no official description for its name but according to the traditional belief the name has its roots to the name of Sita, Lord Ram's wife. It is said that she stayed with Lord Ram at this place during a pilgrimage. Sitapur as the name depicts, was established by King Vikramaditya. This place can be said as the confluence of ancient, medieval and modern history. The City is situated on the river bank of 'Sarayan', at Lucknow-Delhi National Highway No-24, 89 km. from state capital Lucknow.

1.5.1 Geography of Sitapur

The district of Sitapur is situated in the central part of Lucknow division, capital of U.P. It is 27.6° to 27.54° in the longitude in north of Lucknow and in between 80.18° and 81.24° latitude in east of Lucknow. This district is spread about 89 km area from north to south and about 112 km area from east to west. The District of Sitapur has an area of 5743 square kilometer. The district is divided into six tehsils- Sitapur, Biswan, Mishrikh, Laharpur, Mahmoodabad and Sidhauli. There are 19 blocks, two parliamentary constituencies (Sitapur, Mishrikh (SC)) and nine assembly constituencies (Behta, Biswan, Mahmoodabad, Sidhauli (SC), Laharpur, Sitapur, Hargaon (SC), Mishrikh and Maholi). Total population of the district is 4483992. There are 2348 census villages and 1329 Gram Panchayats in the district.



1.5.2 Transportation

The district is traversed by meter gauge railway from Lucknow to Bareilly and on broad gauge train network connecting Gorakhpur and Delhi via Gonda, Burhwal, bypassing Lucknow and Hardoi. Lucknow-Delhi National Highway No 24 is well linked to Sitapur.

1.5.3 Agriculture

The annual rainfall averaged 38 inches. Agriculture is the primary activity with wheat, rice and *urd* being staple crops with sugarcane, mustard and groundnuts as cash crops. The crop area peppermint is also rapidly increasing especially in eastern part of the district. Narrow tracts of sandy soil in the valley of rivers produce potato, groundnut and gingili.⁷⁰

1.5.4 Administrative Classification

The district of Sitapur consists of six tehsils and nineteen development blocks. The Tehsils of Sitapur districts are Mishrik, Sitapur, Laharpur, Biswan, Mahmudabad and Sidhauli. The average number of tehsils and blocks seems to be more in ratio when we compare it with the state average. The district has got two thousand three hundred and fourty eight habitated villages.

Table 1.1: Administrative Classification

Particulars	Sitapur	Uttar Pradesh
Tehsil	6	312
Blocks	19	820
Statutory Towns	11	648
Nagar PalikaParishads	6	194
Nagar Panchayats	5	423
NyayPanchayat	219	8135
Gram Panchayat	1329	51976
ZillaPanchayat	1	71
Villages	2348	106773

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, India

1.5.5 Demographic Profile of the District

The density of population seems to be more in comparison to many of the other districts of U.P. The decadal population growth rate also seems to be considerably high when we compare it with the state average population growth rate. As per the last census, Sitapur has got a population of fourty four lakh eighty three thousand nine hundred ninety two. There is also considerable difference in the decadal population growth rate of the urban and rural area. The rural growth rate is 24.04 against the urban growth rate of 23.37 of Sitapur district.

Table 1.2: Demographic Profile of India, Uttar Pradesh and District Sitapur

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
2 WI VI GINI S	Total	3287469.00	240928	5743
Area (sq.km.)	Rural	3101505.41	233365.71	5662.4
(-1)	Urban	102220.59	7562.29	80.6
	Total	249501663	33448035	801764
No of Household	Rural	168612897	25685942	714655
	Urban	80888766	7762093	87109
	Total	1210854977	199812341	4483992
Population Person	Rural	833748852	155317278	3953208
T	Urban	377106125	44495063	530784
	Total	623270258	104480510	2375264
Population Male	Rural	427781058	80992995	2098123
	Urban	195489200	23487515	277141
	Total	587584719	95331831	2108728
Population Female	Rural	405967794	74324283	1855085
	Urban	181616925	21007548	253643
	Total	164515253	30791331	747558
Population in the age group 0-6 Person	Rural	121322865	25040583	676004
	Urban	43192388	5750748	71554
	Total	85752254	16185581	387417
Population in the age group 0-6 Male	Rural	63084449	13135595	350180
	Urban	22667805	3049986	37237
	Total	78762999	14605750	360141
Population in the age group 0-6 Female	Rural	58238416	11904988	325824
	Urban	20524583	2700762	34317
	Total	201378372	41357608	1446427
Scheduled Castes population Person	Rural	153850848	35685227	1393577
	Urban	47527524	5672381	52850
	Total	103535314	21676975	767033
Scheduled Castes population Male	Rural	79118287	18663920	738958
	Urban	24417027	3013055	28075
	Total	97843058	19680633	679394
Scheduled Castes population Female	Rural	74732561	17021307	654619
	Urban	23110497	2659326	24775
	Total	104545716	1134273	1602
Scheduled Tribes population Person	Rural	94083844	1031076	1257
	Urban	10461872	103197	345
	Total	52547215	581083	833
Scheduled Tribes population Male	Rural	47263733	526315	667
	Urban	5283482	54768	166
	Total	51998501	553190	769
Scheduled Tribes population Female	Rural	46820111	504761	590
	Urban	5178390	48429	179

Source: Census of India, 2011.

The total population of Sitapur district is 4483992 persons (2.24 percent of the total population of Uttar Pradesh) out of which 2375264 are males and 2108728 are females. We can say that it is a rural district by its very characteristics as 88.16 percent of the total population of Sitapur district lives in rural areas whereas the percentage of rural population of Uttar Pradesh is 77.73 and India 68.85 percent. The number of households in Sitapur is 714655 and 89.13 percent of households are spread out in the rural areas. The percentage rural households in India are 67.58 and Uttar Pradesh 76.8. The schedule caste population in the district of Sitapur is 32.25 percent of the total population and 0.036 percent of population belong to schedule tribe.

Table 1.3: Block-wise Population Details

Name of Blocks	Area	Households		Population	
Name of blocks	Area	nousellolus	Total	Male	Female
	Total	40801	223674	120723	102951
Pisawan	Rural	40801	223674	120723	102951
	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	30920	166237	88115	78122
Maholi	Rural	30920	166237	88115	78122
	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	35330	190334	101546	88788
Mishrikh	Rural	35330	190334	101546	88788
	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	35228	189368	100984	88384
Machhrehta	Rural	35228	189368	100984	88384
	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	39084	207663	110637	97026
Gondlamau	Rural	39084	207663	110637	97026
	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	34789	189885	101050	88835
Ailiya	Rural	34789	189885	101050	88835
, ••	Urban	0	0	0	00033
	Total	38420	212323	111974	100349
Hargoan	Rural	38420	212323	111974	100349
Turgoun	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	39360	219944	116586	103358
Parsendi	Rural	39360	219944	116586	103358
1 arsenur	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	38897	214563	113401	101162
Khairabad	Rural	36907	203682	107723	95959
Kilailabau	Urban	1990	10881	5678	5203
	Total	30370	169713	89191	80522
Laharpur	Rural	30370	169713	89191	80522
Lanarpur	Urban	0	0	0	00322
	Total	39372	225537	119705	105832
Behta	Rural	39372	225537	119705	105832
Denta	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	50829	283686	151013	132673
Reusa	Rural	50829	283686	151013	132673
Reusa	Urban	0	0	0	0
	Total	38028	206042	109163	96879
Sakran	Rural	38028	206042	109163	96879
Sakiali	Urban	0	0	0	90879
	Total	50035	281215	147779	133436
Biswan	Rural	50035	281215	147779	133436
Diswaii	Urban	0		0	
			204860	108756	06104
Kasmanda	Total	36588 36588	204860	108756	96104 96104
Kasmanda	Rural				
	Urban	36554	202637	106859	05779
C: 411:	Total Rural			106859	95778
Sidhauli	Urban	36554	202637	_	95778
		24697	100005	101247	90729
Doholo	Total	34687	190985	101247	89738
Pahala	Rural	34687	190985	101247	89738
	Urban	20047	165791	0	79264
M.t., 1.t. 1	Total	29047	165781	87417	78364
Mahmudabad	Rural	29047	165781	87417	78364
	Urban	0	0	0	101007
	Total	38306	219642	117655	101987
Rampurmathura	Rural	38306	219642	117655	101987
	Urban	0	0	0	0

Source: Census of India, 2011.

The population decadal growth rate of the district is 23.88 percent. The table below shows that the decadal female population growth rate is higher (25.65 percent) in comparison to the decadal male population growth rate (22.35 percent). The pattern is same in the rural as well as urban areas.

Table 1.4: Population and Decadal Growth Rate of Sitapur District

	Population	Decadal Growth Rate
Total	4483992	23.88
Male	2375264	22.35
Female	2108728	25.65
RURAL		
Total	3953208	24.04
Male	2098123	22.39
Female	1855085	25.97
URBAN		
Total	530784	22.67
Male	277141	22.04
Female	253643	23.37

Source: Registrar General of India.

1.4.6 Economic Profile

From the below given tables it is evident that the district of Sitapur is one of the backward district of U.P. Most of the households in the rural area have an income of below Rs. 45000 and none of the households have above Rs. 425000 income in the rural areas. As per the latest census the average per capita income of a person is Rs. 16555.11 per year which means a person has to live with just Rs. 45 a day. The per capita income shows a nominal increase every year.

Table 1.5: Projected Distribution of Rural/Urban/Total Households by Annual Income Groups in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh) (2007)

Annual Income Groups	Rural	Urban	Total
Less than 45,000	364982	29629	394611
Rs. 45,000 to 90000	223998	35089	259087
Rs. 90000 to 150000	53137	18555	71692
Rs. 150000 to 240000	13393	2834	16227
Rs. 240000 to 330000	13393	2045	15438
Rs. 330000 to 425000	2276	1319	3595
Rs. 425000 to545000	0	1666	1666
Above 545000	0	1000	1000

Source: Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Govt. of Uttar Pradesh.

When we analyse each individual activity in the major sectors of economy we find that the agricultural and Animal Husbandry activity in the primary sector is the biggest contributor to the GDP of the district. It contributed Rs.2071.79 crore (2.51 percentage in comparison to the state's total in this sector) to the GDP in the year 2010-2011. This seems to be significant as it shows more involvement and dependence of the rural population on agriculture and its allied activities for their livelihood and development. When we analyse the sector wise contribution to the GDP we can see that the tertiary sector is the highest contributor to the GDP with a contribution of Rs. 3490.43 crore. The total contribution of Sitapur district to the GDP of the state is only 1.83 percentage. Therefore it can be concluded that the economic contribution of the district is not very significant in comparison to other districts and sectors.

Table 1.6: Gross District Domestic Product (GDP) at Constant (2004-05)
Prices by Economic Activity in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh)
(2010-2011)

(Rs. in Crore)

Economic Activity	Sitapur	Uttar Pradesh
Primary	_	
Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	2071.79	82571.17
Forestry and Logging	251.43	7230.60
Fishing	12.59	1477.72
Mining and Quarrying	24.14	3990.75
Total Primary	2359.95	95270.24
Secondary		
Manufacturing	658.29	50793.56
(a) Registered	218.57	27105.75
(b) Unregistered	439.73	23687.81
Construction	645.26	34633.42
Electricity, Gas and Water Supply	62.08	5553.66
Total Secondary	1365.63	90980.64
Tertiary		
I. Transport, Communication and Trade	1450.33	88314.93
(a) Transport, Storage and Communication	408.88	37700.73
Railway	41.63	7266.75
Other means of Transport and Storage	230.67	19139.96
Communication	136.58	11294.02
(b) Trade and Hotel & Restaurant	1041.45	50614.20
II. Finance and Real Estate	991.89	62493.12
Banking and Insurance	256.74	21709.31
Real Estate, Ownership of Dwellings and Business Services	735.15	40783.81
III. Community and Personal Services	1048.21	57440.33
Public Administration	543.65	25942.38
Other Services	504.56	31497.95
Total Tertiary	3490.43	208248.38
Gross District Domestic Product (GDDP)	7216.01	394499.26
Population (In Thousands)	4359	199347
Per Capita Income (In Rupees)	16555.11	19789.58

Source: Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Govt. of Uttar Pradesh.

1.5.7 Education

Education is one of the areas of concern for the district of Sitapur. According the census data 2011 the literacy rate of the district is just 61.12 percent. It means that almost 40 percent of the total population is illiterate. It is considerably below in comparison to the national and state literacy level (72.98 percent and 67.68 percent respectively). The rural literacy level is still worse as it records just 59.58 percent where the national and state literacy level is 67.77 percent and 65.46 respectively. The literacy level of the female population is much worse in the district (just 48.27 percent whereas the national literacy level of rural female population is 57.93 and the state 53.65 percent).

Table 1.7: Literacy Profile of India, Uttar Pradesh and District Sitapur

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
	Total	763638812	114397555	2283733
Literates population Person	Rural	482793835	85284680	1952518
	Urban	280844977	29112875	331215
	Total	434763622	68234964	1397702
Literates population Male	Rural	281361374	51793688	1214326
	Urban	153402248	16441276	183376
	Total	328875190	46162591	886031
Literates population Female	Rural	201432461	33490992	738192
	Urban	127442729	12671599	147839
	Total	447216165	85414786	2200259
Illiterate Persons	Rural	350955017	70032598	2000690
	Urban	96261148	15382188	199569
	Total	188506636	36245546	977562
Illiterate Male	Rural	146419684	29199307	883797
	Urban	42086952	7046239	93765
	Total	258709529	49169240	1222697
Illiterate Female	Rural	204535333	40833291	1116893
	Urban	54174196	8335949	105804

Source: Census of India 2011.

Table 1.8 Literacy Rate in Percentage

	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
Total	72.98	67.68	61.12
Male	80.89	77.28	70.31
Female	64.63	57.18	50.67
RURAL			
Total	67.77	65.46	59.58
Male	77.14	76.33	69.47
Female	57.93	53.65	48.27
URBAN			
Total	84.11	75.14	72.12
Male	88.76	80.45	76.44
Female	79.11	69.22	67.41

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Govt. of India

1.5.8 Number of Schools and Colleges in Sitapur

The district has got very poor infrastructure for educational development of the population. Major area of concern is very poor student-teacher ratio. In spite of the number of colleges and schools (29 colleges, 199 higher secondary schools, 1012 upper primary schools and 3085 primary schools) the educational scenario remains very grim.

Table 1.9: Number of University, Degree College, Primary Schools, Upper Primary Schools and Higher Secondary Schools in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh) (As on 30.09.2009)

District	University	Degree College	Higher Secondary School	Upper Primary School	Primary School
Sitapur	0	29	199	1012	3085

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Govt. of India

1.5.9 Students-Teacher Ratio in Sitapur

As per the statistical records of the government the student's teacher's ratio also is not in accordance with the norms and orders of the respective departments. The data shows that the teacher-student ratio for the primary section in the district is 1:77, upper primary section 1:127, higher secondary 1:57 and degree college 1:67. The situation as per the given data is much below average at the state level. The teacher-student ratio is for the state is 1:80, 1:70, 1:51 and 1:84 for primary, upper primary, higher secondary and degree college respectively.

Table: 1.10: Pupil-Teacher Ratio by Institution in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh) (2009-2010)

	Number of Students per Teacher					
District/UP	Primary School	Upper Primary School	Higher Secondary School	Degree College		
Sitapur	77	127	57	65		
Uttar Pradesh	80	70	51	84		

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Govt. of India

1.5.10 Health and Family Welfare

Health care system is very grim in the district. There are no multi-specialty hospitals in the district. People depend on the neighbouring districts; especially state capital Lucknow for any specialized treatment. Basic health facilities are also lacking in the district as very few of the health centers are in a functioning conditions. As per the

government records there are 219 health related institutions including 94 government health centers and 120 private hospitals.

Table 1.11: Number of Medical (Allopathic) Institutions in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh) (As on 01.01.2007)

	State G	overnment	Local Bodies				
District	Public	Special	and Municipal Board	Private Aided	Private Unaided	Other	Total
Sitapur	94	3	0	2	120	0	219
Uttar Pradesh	4085	325	124	61	15297	48	19940

Source: Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Govt. of Uttar Pradesh. (Includes Hospitals, Nursing Home, Medical Clinic, Pathology Lab, Dig Clinic, X-ray, Auraved and Homeopathic Hospitals in private institutions.)

1.5.11 Labour and Workforce

Work participation rate as per the census 2011 for the district of Sitapur is just 31.73 percent. National work participation rate is 39.80 percent and the state of Uttar Pradesh is 32.94 percent. Non worker percentage in the district is 68.27 percent. It comes almost close to the state average of 67.06 percent. The non worker population at national level is 60.20 percent. The nature and distribution of labour force is given in detail in the table given.

Table 1.12: Workers Profile of India, Uttar Pradesh and District Sitapur

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
	Total	481888868	65814715	1422602
Total Worker	Rural	348743092	51950980	1262595
	Urban	133145776	13863735	160007
	Total	331939875	49846762	1171252
Male	Rural	226837013	38352879	1038888
	Urban	105102862	11493883	132364
	Total	149948993	15967953	251350
Female	Rural	121906079	13598101	223707
	Urban	28042914	2369852	27643
	Total	362565571	44635492	1023642
Main Working Population	Rural	245868421	33538817	900223
	Urban	116697150	11096675	123419
	Total	273209976	37420299	900129
Male	Rural	178095330	27812347	793537
	Urban	95114646	9607952	106592
	Total	89355595	7215193	123513
Female	Rural	67773091	5726470	106686
	Urban	21582504	1488723	16827

Contd...

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
	Total	119323297	21179223	398960
Marginal Worker Population	Rural	102874671	18412163	362372
	Urban	16448626	2767060	36588
	Total	58729899	12426463	271123
Male	Rural	48741683	10540532	245351
	Urban	9988216	1885931	25772
	Total	60593398	8752760	127837
Female	Rural	54132988	7871631	117021
	Urban	6460410	881129	10816
	Total	728966109	133997626	3061390
Non Working Population	Rural	485005760	103366298	2690613
	Urban	243960349	30631328	370777
	Total	291330383	54633748	1204012
Male	Rural	200944045	42640116	1059235
	Urban	90386338	11993632	144777
Female	Total	437635726	79363878	1857378
	Rural	284061715	60726182	1631378
Common Common of Ladia 2011	Urban	153574011	18637696	226000

Source: Census of India 2011.

Table 1.13: Type of Workers Profile of India, Uttar Pradesh and District Sitapur

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
Total Cultivator	Total	118808780	19057888	571097
Total Cultivator	Rural	115084638	18500982	561989
(Main + Marginal)	Urban	3724142	556906	9108
Male Cultivator	Total	82762934	15511533	510831
	Rural	79895308	15030284	502412
(Main + Marginal)	Urban	2867626	481249	8419
Female Cultivator	Total	36045846	3546355	60266
(Main + Marginal)	Rural	35189330	3470698	59577
(Maiii + Maigiliai)	Urban	856516	75657	689
Total Agricultural Labourana	Total	144333690	19939223	473554
Total Agricultural Labourers (Main+Marginal)	Rural	136998308	18910579	456718
(Main+Marginar)	Urban	7335382	1028644	16836
Mala Amigultural Labourara	Total	82742337	13803442	386427
Male Agricultural Labourers (Main+Marginal)	Rural	77932222	12957833	371588
(Mani+Marginar)	Urban	4810115	845609	14839
Famala Agricultural Labourara	Total	61591353	6135781	87127
Female Agricultural Labourers (Main+Marginal)	Rural	59066086	5952746	85130
(Main+Marginar)	Urban	2525267	183035	1997
Total Haysahald Industrias	Total	18338168	3898590	70971
Total Household Industries	Rural	11949480	2687850	56030
(Main+Marginal)	Urban	6388688	1210740	14941
Male Household Industries	Total	9776530	2354136	43484
	Rural	5864786	1494896	32097
(Main+Marginal)	Urban	3911744	859240	11387

Contd...

Particulars	Area	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
Female Household Industries	Total	8561638	1544454	27487
(Main+Marginal)	Rural	6084694	1192954	23933
(Main+Marginar)	Urban	2476944	351500	3554
Total Other Worker	Total	200408230	22919014	306980
(Main+Marginal)	Rural	84710666	11851569	187858
(Main+Marginar)	Urban	115697564	11067445	119122
Male Other Worker	Total	156658074	18177651	230510
(Main+Marginal)	Rural	63144697	8869866	132791
(Main+Marginar)	Urban	93513377	9307785	97719
Famala Othan Wadvan	Total	43750156	4741363	76470
Female Other Worker (Main+Marginal)	Rural	21565969	2981703	55067
(Manitiviarginar)	Urban	22184187	1759660	21403

Source: Census of India 2011.

The comparison of the data of the census in 2001 and 2011 respectively shows that there is an increase in the overall employment situation in the district of Sitapur. The increase can be attributed to various factors of development like improvement in economic development, education, health, etc. Among various sectors employment agriculture constitute about 18.4 percent (262453 Persons) and public services 0.019 percent (27797 persons) and other 81.5 percent of the labour force is employed in the private, domestic and other industrial sectors.

Table 1.14: Number of Workers in Sitapur District (As per 2011 & 2001 Census)

	As per Census 2001			As per Census 2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total	862588	61337	923925	1171252	251350	1422602
Rural	772701	53382	826083	1038888	223707	1262595
Urban	89887	7955	97842	132364	27643	160007

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Govt. of India

1.5.11.1 Number of Employees in Government Services

As per the data available from the Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Government of India, the number of employment in public sector in the district of Sitapur is 27797 in which 16295 are employed in state government services and 1244 employed in central government services. Quasi government bodies employee 8833 persons.

Table 1.15: Employment in Sitapur Public Sector in Sitapur District (Uttar Pradesh) (As on 31.03.2009)

District	Central Government	State Government	Quasi Government	Local Body	Total
Sitapur	1244	16295	8833	1425	27797

Source: Office of the Registrar General and Census Commissioner, Govt. of India

The state of Uttar Pradesh is a densely populated state. It is very high in comparison to the national average of 368 persons per square kilometer. Uttar Pradesh has 829 persons per square kilometer and in the district of Sitapur the population density is 781 persons per square kilometer. The average size of the family at national level is 5 members and in the Uttar Pradesh and in the district of Sitapur the average size of the family is 6 members. The percentage of rural population is comparatively high with 88.16 per cent. Uttar Pradesh has 77.73 per cent of rural population. At national level the rural population comes to 68.86 percent of the total population. Sex ratio in the district of Sitapur is 888 females for 1000 males. It is much below the national ratio of 943and state ratio of 912. A caste-wise analysis of the sex ratio at all levels show that the Schedule Tribe has a comparatively very good sex ratio. Schedule Tribe sex ratio at national level is 990, state 952 and the district 923. The Schedule Caste sex ratio at national level is 945, state level 908 and district level 886.

Table 1.16: Comparison of Some Selected Indicator (India, Uttar Pradesh and District Sitapur

Particulars	India	Uttar Pradesh	Sitapur
Population Density	368	829	781
Size of Family	5	6	6
Rural population (in %)	68.86	77.73	88.16
Urban population (in %)	31.14	22.27	11.84
Sex ratio (all)	943	912	888
Sex ratio (0-6 year)	918	902	930
Sex ratio (SC)	945	908	886
Sex ratio (ST)	990	952	923
SC Population (in %)	16.63	20.70	32.26
ST Population (in %)	8.63	0.57	0.04
Literacy (in %)	72.98	67.68	61.12
Work Participation Rate (in %)	39.80	32.94	31.73
Non-worker (in %)	60.20	67.06	68.27
Main worker (in %)	29.94	22.34	22.83
Marginal worker (in %)	9.85	10.60	8.90
Cultivator (Main+Marginal) in %	24.65	28.96	40.14
Agricultural Labourers (Main+Marginal)	29.95	30.30	33.29
Household Industries (Main+Marginal)	3.81	5.92	4.99
Other Worker (Main+Marginal)	41.59	34.82	21.58

Source: Census of India, 2011.

1.6. The NGOs Selected for the Study

1.6.1 World Vision India

Brief History

Internationally, World Vision came out of the passion of Robert Pierce, a war correspondent moved by orphaned children in Korea in 1947. Touched by the plight of White Jade, a little Korean orphan girl, he gave five dollars initially to the warden of a mission house and later continued supporting her. This grew to become what World Vision is today. In India World Vision's work began in the year 1958 in a small way in Calcutta. Today, more than 1700 staff work in over 5000 communities, touching the lives of a little over 2,25,000 children, their families and communities.

Focus Areas and factors of Intervention

Focus on Children

All development work World Vision India carries out is focused on building the capacity and ability of communities and families to ensure the wellbeing of children. The wellbeing of children includes ensuring children have access to education, health, protection and participation. World Vision's 'Child Health Now' is a five year campaign to improve maternal and child health in India. World Vision India's 60 years of experience of improving life for children and their families in 24 states and more than 5000 communities means it can speak with authority on the issue of child mortality. Every day its staff witness and work to address the devastating effects of poor health on mothers and their children.

Grass Root Based

World Vision India is an operational organization involved in relief and development that is community-based. World Vision India's staff live with communities at grassroots level, learning from them and working alongside them while pursuing the goal of promoting the wellbeing of all children. At the grassroots, the partnership with Community Based Organizations keeps the organization accountable, committed, and responsive to the children and their communities. An independent Board exercises overall governance leadership, managing risks and ensuring compliance to statutory requirements.

Partnering for Change

World Vision partners with communities, children, Government, civil society, corporations, academia, and faith based organizations to build a nation fit for children.

HIV and AIDS Response

World Vision's HIV and AIDS initiative is a natural extension of World Vision's work with the poor and oppressed to seek justice and transform their lives. The organization works with people living with HIV and AIDS in the six 'hard hit' states of India - Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Manipur and Nagaland. It also works in vulnerable districts in other states.

Principles

World Vision seeks to be in all its work:

- Faithful messengers of God's love
- Trusted partners in lasting change
- Powerful motivators of caring
- Courageous promoters of justice and peace
- Inspiring models of co-operation

Priorities

In all its field programmes, World Vision will focus on these priority areas towards building a nation fit for children:

- Well-being of every boy and girl
- Sustainable livelihood security
- Access to water
- Peace building and reconciliation
- Prevent and mitigate HIV/ AIDS & TB

Area Development Programme-Sustainable Solutions to Poverty

World Vision's primary approach to poverty alleviation through transformational development is called 'Area Development Programme' (ADP). Each ADP focuses on a geographical area and covers a population of 20,000 to 1,00,000 people. It is a long-term involvement of 12-15 years, rooted in the community and in partnership with the civil society, NGOs and the Government. ADPs focus on the needs of children tackling child mortality rates, their health, and education. Providing access to water for drinking and agriculture, building food security and household resilience through income generation and access to credit, directly impact the wellbeing of children. Every community is also sensitized on aspects of environment, gender, persons with challenges, care for the vulnerable and peace building. The communities are involved

in designing and implementing the long term programme. The chief aim of the ADP is to empower the people so that they can eventually own (meaning self-manage) their development process. It seeks to place ownership and resources in the hands of the community based organizations (CBOs) and to build their capabilities. The CBOs include Women federations, Development Committees, *YuvakMandals*, Child Parliaments, Self Help Groups, Child Protection Committees, Children Clubs etc. While this approach facilitates the sustainable transformational development of the communities, the main focus of this development is the wellbeing of children. The building up of the community in this fashion facilitates the equitable development of every child in the community, bringing with it a promise of a life filled with dignity, justice, peace and hope.

Building up Rural India – Alleviating Poverty (Micro Enterprises)

Nearly 40 per cent of India's population of a billion plus lives in abject poverty. In India, we find that many are poor because of one simple reason — 'lack of regular income'. Micro Enterprise Development (MED) is a proven way to strengthen viable, small businesses, resulting in increased household income and savings, and thus, alleviating the crunch of economic poverty. World Vision works alongside enterprising members, helping them realize their economic potential and proving that they have the capacity to build their own, small Micro Enterprise units. World Vision facilitates the formation of Self-Help Groups (SHGs) to save, share and build capacity. Small loans for the businesses are provided and collected through individual members in SHGs.

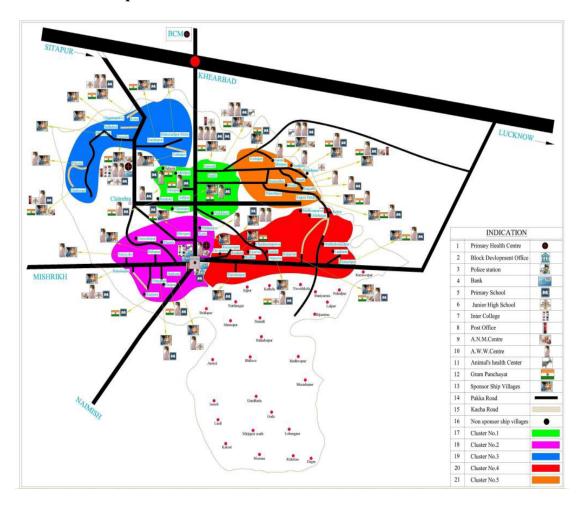
As a result of such economic development initiatives, many small businesses expand and become viable and poor families have enough to feed their children and send them to school. The marginalized poor develop their businesses and manage to live a decent life. This approach is very powerful in lifting communities from economic poverty, ultimately leading the community to be self-reliant and live with dignity.

World Vision in Sitapur District

The Area Development Program (ADP) of the World Vision was initiated in August 2005. The first two years went for assessment while the implementation started from FY 2008. The World Vision as an organization is known for its systematic work and evaluation of its programmes.

The Specific goal among others of Sitapur ADP is "To increase economic status of small and marginal farmers, agriculture labourers and landless households in Machreta block of Sitapur District". The ADP had planned to work towards achieving this objective through 3 core sectors i.e., Livelihood Security, Education and Health Projects. The ADP intends to provide support to a population of about 7713 households (HH) in 60 villages / hamlets in Machreta Block.

The Area of Sitapur ADP



All these three sectors: Livelihood, Education and Health are very well integrated for the holistic and sustainable development of the children in the community.

Sitapur Livelihood Intervention: The programme focuses on the increase in the household income of the families of the working area through small income generation activities for which Self Help Groups (SHGs) are the base. The major goal of this sector is to enhance the socio-economic status of small and marginal farmers, agriculture and less households in Machretta block of Sitapur District. The team had been successful in forming 216 SHGs over a period of time, covering more than 2584

members of the community of the target area. Over the past three years, the SHG movement has developed strong saving habits.

Sitapur Primary Education Project: It has special focus on primary school going children. It focuses on age appropriate learning of the primary school going children, initiating evening classes for children known as remedial teaching classes. This project has two outcomes first, early childhood preparation and second, to improve the quality of primary education. In the initial stage this project focuses on the physical and intellectual development of pre-school children registered in *anganwadis* in the target area and in the later stage, the team has been focusing upon the basic calculations and letters or alphabets literate. Remedial teaching classes/ evening tuition centres have been started for this purpose.

Sitapur Primary Health Project: The project has a goal to enhance the physical wellbeing of children, their families and communities in Machretta Block of Sitapur District. The integration of the livelihood sector helps the women, who are a part of Self Help Groups to meet the health and educational needs of their children. They are able to draw money from the groups account immediately when required and has to reimburse the money at the minimum rate of 2%. Various training programs on diarrhoea management and counselling given by the health volunteers on Family Planning methods, breast feeding practises, pre-natal and post-natal care and by creating awareness to avail health benefits are being provided in the nearby areas.

Integrated Birth Spacing Program (IBSP): The Timed and targeted counselling (TTC) is the main mode through which the pregnant as well as the lactating mothers is being administered to. The health volunteers who have been deployed into the community closely monitor the women in the community and counsel them on various health and nutritional issues. Through this special integrated project, in the second phase, the health volunteers are also being a part of CBO meetings, mahilamandal meetings as well as youth meetings creating awareness about the health issues amongst the lay man other than pregnant ladies and lactating mothers.

At the grass roots level the volunteers work in close coordination with AWs, ANMs, and ASHAs. Each volunteer covers about 3000 population under this project. The meeting of volunteers and health workers are conducted both at cluster and block levels.

The details about the grass-root interventions reports are given in the Appendix-II

1.6.2 Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (Holy Cross Welfare Trust) Brief History of the Organization

Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (JJCC) a welfare Trust is a registered not for profit organization registered as Trust (Holy Cross Welfare Trust) formed with the spirit of service towards the poor and marginalized, adopts various measures to work as an effective agent of social change. It considers this mission as the preaching of God's kingdom of Justice, Peace and Equality. Ever since its existence from 2000, Jeevan Jyoti has been engaged in the process of empowering the poor, socially excluded and the marginalized and attempts to incarnate the social justice, peace and fullness of life to all in the structures of the society. It facilitates the marginalized especially the women and children and the socially excluded population to liberate themselves and come to the mainstreams of the society. To achieve this, Jeevan Jyoti, has a full time Asst. Director cum Accountant, a Program Manager, one Program Coordinator, 6 supervisors, 10 animators, 60 community mobilizers who are working in 4 blocks of Sitapur district covering a population of 8 lakhs. The vision of the organization is to work towards a society based on values such as fraternity, justice, peace, and unity, enabling every person to receive and support life in its fullness and the mission is to empower the marginalized sections of society, especially the women, dalits, children and neglected in the Society, by raising their socio, economic, political, moral, spiritual and health status.

Objectives

- To enable the marginalized communities to have access to basic and specialized health care services undertaken by the Government.
- To empower the people in the target area socially and economically.
- To enable the people to tap avail Government schemes.
- To raise the literacy rate by enabling the children between the age group of 6-15 belonging to marginalized groups of the target area start attending primary education by the end of project period.
- To improve the capacity of the people in target area in decision making power and
- Exercising their rights.

The Main Activities Undertaken

Following activities were undertaken as part of their interventions among the rural population.

- Creating awareness regarding health issues, education, right to health facilities available and the government schemes through community awareness, mass media, puppetry, community meetings, mother meetings adolescent girls gathering etc.
- Training on Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) for the target people
- Training on Communicable diseases
- Conducting health camps
- Formation and strengthening of SHGs
- Capacity building of the SHG leaders and Issue based capacity building & legal awareness to selected leaders
- Capacity building of Panchayat Raj to leaders
- Enrolment of children to the school
- Awareness programmes on National and International Days of Importance.
- Capacity building for the people to enable them to tap the government medical facilities such as immunization and other schemes specially meant for the welfare of pregnant women, children and adolescent girls.
- Programmes and training sessions to promote self-confidence leadership skills and fraternity.
- Training to spread the awareness thorough regular programs about HIV/AIDS,
 Sexually Transmitted Disease, Tuberculosis, Polio, Leprosy and other communicable disease.
- Programmes for empowering Adolescent Girls for Social Transformation
- Awareness programmes for improved sanitation at home & schools.
- Awareness programmes for reduction in early marriage of adolescent girls and Improved Reproductive health care.
- Programmes to increase in the number of adolescent girls completing class 8th class education
- Awareness programmes for reduced work load & equal treatment towards adolescent girls by family members & teachers

 Programmes for enhancing life skills, vocational skills, information and giving exposure to adolescent girls.

The main thrust of the Jeevan Jyoti Community Center has been the overall development of women and adolescent girls. An incessant focus is laid on the promotion of primary education, basic health and awareness on life skills activities amongst the masses. In order to attain the goals, in depth analysis at grassroots level was done by conducting regular field visits, formal and informal meetings household surveys, discussions with village leaders and village folks at individual and group levels. In addition to this various women empowerment programmes like poultry farming, small shops embroidery and knitting, awareness campaigns on promotion of self-help groups, saving schemes etc., have also been undertaken. The participation of masses especially women, in events like international Women's day, World Health Day, Children's Day Literacy Day etc. have encouraged the organization to move forward with enhanced enthusiasm and strength which in turn has given birth to many more activities and programmes.

Major Areas of Interventions

The major areas of interventions are women empowerment, capacity building of adolescent girls, community based education and reproductive and child health program. Women's health care is an important factor that influences all aspects of their life, and it has consequences not only for the women themselves but also for the wellbeing of their family. Women's health problems are closely related to their social situations. They are forced to follow traditional methods of the society. Jeevan Jyoti empowers them and enables them to negotiate better with reproductive health care systems and services.

Community Development Programmes

The community development programme initiated by the organization with the assistance of 20 voluntary health workers and 102 women Self Help Groups (SHGs) with 1189 members reached out to the population of one lakh covering 80 villages in the Khairabad block. The groups volunteered to take up issues of concern like safe drinking water, sanitation and education of children etc. Knowledge and skill updating of the SHG members were taken up by giving sessions on group formation, leadership development, accounting and record keeping etc. All these efforts have helped the people to sort out their problems of welfare and employment.

Women Self Help Groups (WSHGs)

One of the main thrusts of Jeevan Jyoti Community Center is to support the women to enable them to come out of the shackles of drudgery and vulnerability, hence formation of WSHGs emerged as the one of the focus areas. In the initial year 48 WSHGs were formed which helped the women to gain self-worth and dignity. Today the organization animates 125 WSHGs consisting 1500 women from 80 villages. Out of 125 WSHGs 85 of them have been linked with banks to avail the facility of the Micro Credit Facility. The micro credit activities have helped the women to save their earnings and encouraged them to start their income generating programmes to improve their standard of living and generate employment for the rural population.

Table 1.17: Training Programmes Conducted for Capacity Building & Income Generating Activities

Sl. No	Topic of Training	Beneficiaries	Number of Beneficiaries
1	Soap Making	SHG members	250
2	Animal Husbandry, including technical aspects on poultry farming, goatery and dairy	SHG members	650
3	Sewing and chicken embroidery	Adolescent girls	325
4	Jam, Jell, Pickle and Squash making	Animators	950
5	Candle making	Staff and elected SHG Officials	250
6	Herbal Medicine preparations	Animators	1025
7	Course on communicable diseases and their precautionary measures	Animators and SHG members	1125

Source: Annual Reports, Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (2013)

Table 1.18: Members Actually Engaged in Income Generating Activities

Sl. No	Income Generating Activity	Number of Individuals Engaged
1	Tailoring Shop	55
2	Agricultural Activities	46
3	Carpet Making	70
4	Chicken Embroidery	50
5	Poultry	35
6	General Shop	125
7	Buffaloes and Cows	650
8	Goat Rearing	150
9	Vegetable Shop	50
10	Tea Shop	25

Source: Annual Reports, Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (2013)

Non Formal Education Programme

The non-formal education programme commenced with the motto 'Education should be learning for change and about learning to change'. The programme started with 23 students. It aims at educating the marginalized and vulnerable sections of the society in order to integrate them into the mainstream of the society to lead a respectable and dignified life.

The topics covered under the curriculum include health and hygiene awareness, nutritional diet, rights of children, prevention of road accidents and adoption eco-friendly behaviour etc. These endeavours in terms of their education, exposure and interaction have resulted in a remarkable change in the attitude and behaviour of these children.

Table 1.19: Year-wise Number of Student enrolled and passed

Sl. No	Year	Number of Students Enrolled	Number of Students Passed
1	2000 - 2001	232	232
2	2001 - 2002	200	200
3	2002 - 2003	245	245
4	2003 - 2004	254	254
5	2004 - 2005	295	295
6	2005 - 2006	245	245
7	2006 - 2007	280	280
8	2007 - 2008	256	256
9	2008 - 2009	275	275
10	2009 - 2010	270	240

Source: Annual Reports, Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (2013)

The Adolescent Empowerment Programme

This programme was initiated with the aim to enable and strengthen the adolescent girls to explore their potential as an individual entity and recognize their role not only in their family but also in community and society as a whole. The organization till date has trained 135 adolescent girls groups with 1485. The participants belonged to 80 villages from the age group of 13 to 19 years. The following issues were dealt with in the training programmes

- 1. Education and Health
- 2. Life skills education and leadership
- 3. Gender development
- 4. Human rights education
- 5. Sex education and child marriage

- 6. Awareness on female feticide
- 7. Health and malnutrition
- 8. Personal hygiene and sanitation
- 9. Dowry
- 10. Child labour
- Awareness on communicable diseases like tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, leprosy, etc.

National Institute of Open Schooling Programme

It was a government affiliated programme which provides the opportunity of education to the children who are school drop outs. The organization initiated this programme with a special focus on girls, women, rural youth, working men and women, SC/ST, differently abled persons and other disadvantaged sections of the society. The work was carried out by the grass root workers identifying such beneficiaries and helping them to register for the programme.

Table 1.20: Year-wise Number of Student enrolled

Sl. No	Year	Number of Students Enrolled
1	2003 - 2004	08
2	2004 - 2005	10
3	2005 - 2006	19
4	2006 - 2007	22
5	2007 - 2008	17
6	2008 - 2009	22
7	2009 - 2010	15
8	2010 - 2011	33
9	2011 - 2012	16
Tota	1	162

Source: Annual Reports, Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (2013)

The Revised National Tuberculosis Control Programme (RNTCP)

The RNTCP started on August 26, 2000. This programme was run in collaboration with the Government of India. The organization appointed resource persons, volunteers, doctors, and paramedical staff to run the unit effectively. About 50 centers are being run today for this purpose targeting a population of 580552 people. The outcome of this programme has given a great impact in the wellbeing of the people. About 8424 patients have benefitted from this health drive and they are now able to

live a health life taking up employment for the family and themselves. The attitudinal changes in the family members towards the TB patients are very much visible.

Table 1.21: Year-wise Number of Patient Treated

Year	Number of Patients Treated	Cure Rate in Percentage
2000	146	Nil
2001	240	92
2002	266	94
2003	486	93
2004	933	88
2005	1005	85
2006	916	83
2007	985	83
2008	925	84
2009	899	84
2010	811	90
2011	812	89

Source: Annual Reports, Jeevan Jyoti Community Center (2013)

The Polio Eradication Initiative Programme

The organization also focuses on the development of health children. The polio eradication initiative programme is targeted in the blocks of Parsendi, Macchrehta and Biswan of the Sitapur district. Children under the age of 0-5 years are the beneficiaries.

Community Based Rehabilitation Programmes

- They include various programmes like:
- Corrective surgery
- Physiotherapy
- Medical assistance
- Home level education
- Academic educational assistance in primary, senior secondary and other higher education programmes
- Admission in special schools
- vocational training
- Mechanic training etc.

Maternal and Child health Programme at Nagar Palika

This project coverage area included 21 *mohallas* consisting of 3254 families comprising of 20919 populations with 2081 children from the age group of 0-5 years

and 254 pregnant women in the Khairabad block. The major focus area of the programme included achieving 100% routine immunization for 0-5 years. The programme endeavoured to establish 60 women groups and 60 adolescent groups in order to upgrade the health and sanitation conditions the targeted areas.

1.6.3 Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthan (SSS)

Brief History and Organizational Culture

Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthan (SSS) is a voluntary organization in Uttar Pradesh, the most populated province in India. SSS was founded in 1996 by a group of young professionals and alumni of Lucknow University from Master of Social Work (MSW) course. It is registered as a society under the Societies Registration Act, 1860. It is also registered under the Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA), 1976, and Section 12 A of the Income Tax Act, 1961. It works with some of the most deprived communities through interventions in education, health and livelihood sectors. Its work is guided by principles of partnership, participation, equity and sustainability.

SSS is working extensively in Sitapur, Hardoi, Shahjahnpur, Bareilly, Budaun and Ferozabd districts of Uttar Pradesh. The organization has its district head office at Mishrikh tehsil of Sitapur district and state office at Lucknow. In Sitapur district the journey of SSS began with strengthening *panchayats* in a small area in Mishrikh development block. While working with *panchayats* attention of the organisation was drawn to a few basic issues that were staring in the face. In rural areas of Sitapur district literacy rate of females was very low, a large number of people were unable to access health services and livelihood options before people were very few. The situation was particularly grim as almost 32 per cent population of the district was of Scheduled Castes. SSS took these issues one by one and today it is addressing all the three issues.

Shashwat envisages the creation of a humane, gender sensitive and environmentally sound rural societies where people critically and actively participate in local self-Governance by embodying the values of humanism, egalitarianism, and equal participation. The mission of Shashwat is to mobilize, organize, and strengthen people's institutions and bodies of local self-governance in such way that the rural communities become self-sufficient politically, socially, and economically by utilizing local as well as global resources and knowledge. Shashwat has adopted the following strategies:

- Direct intervention at grassroots level.
- Enabling role through education and training.
- Mobilizing and organizing women around the issue of equal participation, leadership roles, entrepreneurial activities and rights to livelihood and entitlements.
- Sensitize and influence administration, officials and other key stakeholders through documenting and disseminating field based learning for policy advocacy.

Major Areas of Interventions

The main the main programme interventions of the Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthaninclude:

- Education projects in 2 developmental blocks of Sitapur district through remedial, different approaches of school support and rural library centers.
- Diarrhoea management among 0-5 years children in Sitapur, Hardoi, Shahjahnpur, Bareilly and Budaun districts through ORS AND zinc treatments.
- Livelihood intervention through Agriculture diversification project in Firozabad district.
- Disability issue has been identified as major issue and Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthan has worked on that in Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh.

Education Program

Promoting Education amongst Girl Children

Promotion of education among girls has been one of priority areas, especially mainstreaming girl children with the elementary level education. Focus has also been laid on mainstreaming dropout and out of school children with the formal education system through working and mobilizing the community members around the issue of education.

Bridge Education Centers

The Sansthan started to Bridge Education Centers in 10 villages/hamlets in 2008 and continued till 2012, where concentration of dropouts and out of school children is comparatively higher as compared to other villages. The statistics was obtained through a baseline survey which was conducted before program initiation. After

completion of the fourth year, 1653 children were mainstreamed into nearest government primary schools. The mainstreamed children are also supported by the centers in terms of remedial inputs to ensure their good performance at schools.

Remedial Coaching Centre for the Adolescent Girls

Since the inception of education project the Sansthan started 10 remedial coaching centers for the adolescent girls in the age group of 12-18 years. The objective behind this initative was to link the young and adolescent girls with education who have either dropped out or are irregular at school because of security reason or because of low performance level at schools. In the remedial coaching centers apart from studies discussions are held and information is shared so that they build confidence and shed all inhibitions. 881 girls were given remedial educational support thorough this venture.

KishoriSamuh

The Sansthan organized KishoriSamuh for the overall development of the adolescent girls. There are 22 kishoriSamuh with total 275 members. The girls are emerging as young leaders and facilitators of change. They are spreading across awareness on education and linking young girls to education by identifying and meeting girls of their age group who do not go to school. An in- house orientation program was organized for the active members of KishoriSamuh. An education kit (containing hanging blackboard, chalk and wall posters, bag and Naya Safar, a reference book and other stationeries) to each of those girls were provided. The kishorisamuh members have made more than 1500 girls literate. They also spread awareness on personal hygiene and importance of iron intake to avoid malnutrition and anaemia

Improvements in the Functioning of the Government Schools

The School Management Committees (SMCs) have been entrusted with many important roles (As per the RTE Act passed in 2009. The Sansthan found that in reality, most of the SMCs are not completely aware of the Acts as well as their roles. RTE campaign was organized in which training and information generation on RTE Act was intensively focused. 576 SMC members were trained in the process. Apart from this, block and district level sharing workshops were organized in which 85 and 89 participants participated respectively.

Apart from issues concerning quality education and school management, focus was also given on promoting education among girls and providing them with safe environment.

Table 1.22: Other Major Interventions in Educational Sector

S.No	Activities	Narration		
1	Models Schools Programme	4 government schools have been identified which are targeted to be developed into model schools. One trained teacher from the SSS team has been deputed in each school and they teach children following joyful teaching and learning processes. Total 755 children have been covered through this process.		
2	Training Programmes	3 days training program on activity based teaching methodology was organized for ShikshaMitras. In total there were 30 participants who also included regular teachers and private school teachers. Teaching methodologies, linguistics, retention, evaluation of children's performance and elementary education for girls were the main issues covered.		
3	Liaison with Government Teachers	Efforts are made to build rapport with government teachers, staffs of ICDS, DIET and BRC to involve them in on- going activities. For these individual meetings are held with teachers, CDPO, BRC coordinator, ABSA, BSA, District Institute for educational training. Interface workshops are held with community members to identify issues and are taken to corresponding government departments and also to the media to highlight them.		
4	Art Competition	Seven art competitions and melas were organized at different locations of the project area for school going children, BEC and RCC children/adolescent girls. The winning children were given suitable awards. Over 1,145 children, 102 guardians, 84 school teachers including sikshamitra, 27 panchayat members and 52 women SHG members actively participated.		
5	Girls Education Awareness Week	This campaign is carried out twice in a year for one week each in July and November in all the 25 gram panchayats. Nearly 4,000 men and women participate in the campaign. The event is marked by wall writings in 80 villages, 45 village level meetings and distribution of pamphlets and posters, and rallies. Apart from the above mentioned participants school teachers, parents, panchayat members, ashabahus, anganwadi workers, SHG women, BRC coordinator and ABSA also participate in the event.		

Library Program

A rural library program is currently underway in 10 villages of Mishrikh and Gondalamau developmental block of Sitapur with support from Rajiv Gandhi Foundation. The aim of the project is to enable the children and women especially those belonging to Scheduled Castes and Muslim community to access books and other materials. 10 libraries, known as *Rajiv Gandhi Gram Pustakalaya*, have been established and each library caters to three to five villages. Any person who intends to become member of the library pays a nominal membership fee of Rs. 2 per month.

Apart from books and newspapers, indoor and outdoor games material is also available in the libraries. At the initial stage the libraries are managed by the librarians and the communities are trained to take up the running of the libraries. On an average there are around 200 books in each library. There are around 604 males and 244 female members. Over Rs.3000 has been collected as membership fee.

Health Program

Diarrhoea Management through ORS and Zink Therapy

The project titled 'Sensitization of Rural Registered Medical Practitioners (RMPs) and Chemists on Zinc Therapy for treatment of Children Diarrhoea', this project is underway in 21 development blocks of Hardoi and Sitapur districts. The SSS sees it as necessary to sensitize the critical health service providers (like RMPs and Chemists) about new treatment of diarrhoea with ORS and zinc.

With the help of AED/POUZN, SSS started Zinc-ORS Project in Mishrikh block of Sitapur in June 2008 to sensitize and aware health care providers. Emboldened by the success of the project, it was expanded to 21 blocks of Hardoi and Sitapur districts. After the successful completion of the project presently SSS is working in 5 districts of Uttar Pradesh which are Sitapur, Hardoi, Shahjahnpur, Bareilly and Budaun and sensitizing more than 20000 RMPs in the area. The broad project objectives are to sensitize RMPs and medical store personnel in 85 blocks of Sitapur, Hardoi, Shahjahanpur, Bareilly and Budaun districts of Uttar Pradesh and to increase the number of zinc users for diarrhoea management.

As a results of the awareness creation and training programmes almost 40 per cent RMPs have started prescribing Zinc treatment to the children suffering from diarrhea.10-15 per cent chemists maintain stocks of Zinc products on regular basis. Overall, there is increase in number of Zinc users in the operational area.

Mainstreaming People with Physical Disability

Mainstreaming people with physical disability with the development process is a real challenge. Shashwat Sahbhagi Sansthan has addressed the issue with right based approach and has taken the issue among community and government. Following activities are undertaken to help the differently abled persons

• Forming 6 community level organizations of differently abled people known as Disabled Persons' Organization (DPO) with proper administrative set ups

- Organizing workshops for the improvements of documentation skills for the administrative staff.
- Conducting Disability Melas
- Conducting one day training cum meeting programmes for PRI members, school teachers, *Anganwadi* workers and ANMs for creating and increasing awareness about disability issues.
- Identifying disabled people and helping them to obtain disabled certificates from the government authorities (A certification camp for the disabled was organized at Machhrehta PHC on 31st May 2011 with the help of CMO and its board members. Total 46 people out of 96 were issued certificates.)
- Helping differently abled people to get job cards and enabling them to obtain disability pension (22 differently abled persons have been linked to NREGA)

Livelihoods Program

Agriculture

Activities

- SHG formation, male and female
- Agricultural demonstrations
- Training for food production
- KisanVidyalaya
- Vermi-compost promotion
- Marketing of produce
- Building model DASP villages
- Identification of model farmers and capacity building of identified model farmers
- Association with line departments related to agriculture like horticulture, floriculture, poultry, dairy, food preservation, animal husbandry, fisheries, etc., have been forged.

Achievements in Last 3 year

- SHG formation(Male 86, female 73)
- 540 Agricultural demonstrations
- 23 Training on food production
- 19 KisanVidyalaya, one in each block

- 44 units of Vermi-compost
- Linking of Producers Association with three marketing agencies
- 36 model DASP villages
- Identification of 40 model farmers and capacity building of identified farmers

Self-Help Groups (SHGs)

Women's self-help groups have been formed at *Panchayat* level. The members are from deprived sections of the society. Meetings are held regularly and information and issues are discussed to develop their understanding on *Panchayat*, health, women exploitation, issues around women and adolescent girl, etc.

Initiatives for the SHGs

For improving economic status of the women, the groups are imparted training on cash and credit limit, records that need to be maintained, CCL, etc. Twenty groups have been given Cash on Credit Limits (CCLs) and are linked with the income generation activities.

Many SHG members have participated in different activities and have played proactive role in bringing positive changes in their personal as well as in social environment. The groups have become centre of development and information dissemination as the members share information on education, health and development program like, NREGA, BPL & Antodya Card, Mid-Day Meal etc., with community members.

A forum titled, 'POWER' has been constituted with the representatives of SHG groups in Misrikh developmental block of Sitapur district. The forum identified active members and prepared them to fight last *Panchayat* election. The forum also identified other active members from community and they were encouraged to participate in the process. Around 26-27% of the elected women members were part of the forum.

Under NABARD's supervision, a financial inclusion program has been initiated to link all community members with banks to develop saving habit. Since students are good carriers and disseminator of information, NABARD in association with Shashwat Sansthan organized college quiz related to financial literacy in 5 colleges. Three village levels meets and five street plays were also conducted. District level bank officials and those from NABARD also participated in these events.

Table 1.23: Status of SHGs

Sl.	Indicators Meetings and participation	At Beginning (April 2010)	Present Status (March 2013)
1	Formation of Self-help Groups	50 SHGs	150 SHGs
2	Bank linkages with banks	10	70
3	CCL in different banks	28	48 people
4	Receiving 2nd loan by SHGs	25 SHGs	60 SHGs
5	Exposure to SHG s members	12	48
8	Computer literacy to women	8 batch	18 batch
8	Exposure to agricultural women for CB	3 excursion	13 excursion

Actions in near Future

- Scaling up and sharing of learning with NGOs, government health and education department.
- Pilot intervention in community through PRIs, SHGs, Mother Groups, Schools
- Awareness generation through folk media, wall writings, and street plays etc.

Advocacy with the government departments to propagate the usage of zinc in diarrhoea management

1.7. Statement of the Problem

Developing the untapped human capital in the rural area is an imperative need of the hour and is crucial for over all development of the country. The present study is an attempt to probe into the various dimensions of HRD initiatives of NGOs in rural context. It also strives to present a model for the corporates to develop and train human resources from the rural population of India.

Rural human resource is the key resource to push ahead the economy of countryside and the whole society. The study intends to probe the systematic work done by the NGOs in human resource development and precisely unscramble the characteristics of India's rural human resource. It goes on to explain the overall condition and trends of employment of rural labour forces, sums up four basic information: we have made great progress in rural human resource development, however, there is still huge gap between the current situation and economic and social development; rural education and training has taken shape initially, but it cannot live up with the need of rural human resource development; there is significant change of the flow of rural labour, however the employment situation is still severe.

Farmers'self-development consciousness are strengthening gradually, nevertheless, it still lacks effective organization and guidance.

This Study also aims to deal with one of the problems at the core of labour market, social and human resource development as well as general and economic development in India. The agriculture, as a fundamental sector of India's economy, in total employment, as well as the means andways through which almost 60 percent of the country's population, inhabiting its communities and villages will start being more deeply involved in the development processes fuelled by the country's completion of Plan to Market Transition, is a widely shared concern both among policy makers as well as the academic community and civil society. Increasingly, the business sector, until now overwhelmingly concentrated in the urban areas, starts looking with more concern towards this large untapped reservoir of both natural resources and labour, which combined could easily turn India into a "power-house" of Asia as labour force gradually released from subsistence agriculture.

The topic "Contributions of Non Governmental Organizations in Bulding Capabilities and Enhancing Human Resource Development in the Rural Areas of U.P." has been a well-considered subject. First of all the researcher wanted to highlight the contribution this sector is making in the field of human resource development, enhancing the employability of the rural population and social development in the rural areas where the benefits of public investment and schemes seldom reach. For long, it has been an unexplored area. The works of the NGOs has been highlighted by different world bodies and agencies and much appreciated as significant player in the anthropological and social studies. But there have been no significant studies conducted with regard to their contribution to the human resource development and enhancement of employability of the rural population in India.

In this context the observation of Roger C. Riddell and Mark Robinson is noteworthy. "there is a widespread agreement among development practitioners, government officials, and foreign donors that NGOs play an important role in helping to alleviate rural poverty in India, complementary to the government, both in terms of providing additional resources and in making government programmes more effective...some see their role in terms of empowering the poor rather than implementing development programmes⁷¹.

Developing the people is the essence of any human resource development effort and it is an important goal of all other development activities like plans, policies and programmes. All forms of development i.e. social, economic, technological and agricultural are ultimately meant to serve the people in terms of improving their happiness through better standards of living. Human resource development holds the key for economic development through enabling people to become more productive. As economic development of any country depends upon the development of the population, many developing countries are becoming increasingly aware of the need to involve people through participation, empowerment and better access to opportunities. The objective of HRD is to develop competencies in individual, groups. Developing competencies is a never-ending process because competency development is the pivot of development for any nation. In economic terms, HRD in the early years (1950-60) was equated with human capital formation. The basic philosophy underlying this fact is that human resources are the most important assets and can be developed and increased to an unlimited extent. Currently, for most of the developing countries, HRD strategies are focusing on the alleviation of poverty to the most possible extent. For this purpose, investment in education and health services at the basic level and creation of employment and self-employment opportunities for people become very critical. HRD is the need of any nation, if it wants to be dynamic and growth-oriented to succeed in the fast changing environment. Countries can become competent in a global environment, only through the competency development of the human resources.

1.8 Objectives and Hypotheses of the Study

The research was conducted to see how the interventions of the NGOs are contributing to the building up and development of human resources in the rural areas. As the research is conducted in the rural areas the aspect of human resource development is looked into in its fundamental aspect rather from the organizational context. Hence the research has been focused upon how effective is the interventions of the NGOs in ensuring the quality of life of the rural population and by improving the quality of life how they contribute in enhancing the human capabilities.

1.8.1 Objectives of the Study

- 1. To study whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the quality of life in the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- To find out whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the social and personal skills of the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- 3. To analyze whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the education and health of the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- 4. To investigate whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in creating livelihood security and economic development in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- 5. To asses the impact of training of NGOs on rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- 6. To study the impact of NGOs interventions in enhancing Human Capability and Human Resource Enhancement.

1.8.2 Hypothesis

Hypothesis: The median of differences between before the intervention of NGO and after the intervention of NGO is zero.

Thus, we can write the null hypothesis as:

- Hypothesis 1 (H_0) : The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.
- Hypothesis 2 (H_1) : The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is not zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{OF} = Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} \neq 0$

1.9 Relevance of Study

The rural human resource development, which involves rural education, vocational skill training, health care, social security, and so on has a great influence on the country, society and individual. However, most studies conducted so far lack overall thinking on this issue. To resolve this problem, this study strives to come up with an overall resolution for rural human resource development. First of all, at the macroscopical level, we could formulate rural human resource development strategies guided by scientific development concept. At the same time, establish and improve the rural human resource development system, which includes policy planning mechanism, education and training mechanism, flow of labour mechanism, social security mechanism, health care mechanism and crisis management mechanism. At the middlebrow level, to take the construction of rural human resource development as the main task, including construct multi-level rural human resource education system, establish the long-term mechanism of the flow and training of rural surplus labour, and the multi-dimensional employment service networks for rural labours. The ultimate goal, at the micro-scopical level, is to lay emphasis on the construction of both individual and organization in rural areas. The study stresses on to realize the orderly development of rural human resource is far from an easy thing. It is a complex system that involves many variables, such as population, economy, politics, system, policy and culture.

The present study aims at the concerns of human resource development, mainly, the development of knowledge, skill, expertise and creativity of individuals in the rural settings.

This study is also useful for the institutions, corporates, human resource managers, academicians, and nongovernmental organizations who are involved in the process of developing effective and efficient human resources for the social and economic progress.

1.10 Significance of the Research Area

Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh has been considered as one of the least developed district in India and it has all the characteristics of Indian rural population. It is also one of the thickly populated districts of India. The researcher is of the view that it could be considered as the model districts for future development and researches.

1.11 The Organisation of the Research Report

The Study is organised into five chapters. The first Chapter is the introductory chapter which primarily deals with the initial observation about the research. The introductory chapter explains the increasing importance of NGO sector in the present context and the roles the NGOs assume in the context of development of the rural population who are deprived of quality life due to various reasons. The central part of the chapter is set apart to explain the context, importance, objectives, hypothesis of the study. It also justifies the topic selected for the study.

This chapter also deals with four important areas of the study such as the meaning of the concept of NGO and its development over the years, the area of the study and its characteristics, three main NGOs selected for the study and the research methodology adopted. It begins with how researchers from different field and international agencies understand and define the NGO sector and briefly discuss about the development of the NGO sector over the years. The researcher explains the importance of NGOs in the context of development of rural population, the key role played in development, their contribution to human development and human resource development. It gives brief and compact information about the research area of Sitapur district. In the third part of the study the researcher gives a brief account of the three NGOs whose intervention in the research area is being studied.

The second chapter deals with the researches done in the area of NGOs activities. The chapter explains in details the researches done in this area of study and its importance to the present study.

The third chapter gives a detailed discussion of the research methodology used in the research.

The fourth chapter is set apart for the discussion of results and output of the research. It explains in detail the results of the testing of the null hypothesis on overall factors of the research and each dimension under study on different parameters. The results indicate that the objectives of the study have been reasonably accomplished.

The final chapter deals with the summary and findings of the study, delimitations of the study and suggestions for further research in this field of study.

The bibliography gives a comprehensive list of literature scanned for this study.

In the end of the research report few appendices is added. It includes the Tools used for the data collection and secondary data on the NGOs under study.

യ്പയ

Nauro, F. Campos, Feisal, U. Khan, & Jennifer, E. Tessendorf; (2004). "From Substitution to Complementarity: Some Econometric Evidence on the Evolving NGO-State Relationship in Pakistan." *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 37, No. 2., College of Business: Tennessee State University, pp. 49-72.

¹ Frederick, Harbison, & Charles, A. Mayer; (1964). Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies for Human Resource Development. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company. P. 13.

² Brian, K. Murphy; (2000)."International NGOs and the Challenge of Modernity".Development in Practice, Vol. 10, No. 3/4.p.334.

Joan, Mencher; (1999). "NGOs: Are They a Force to Change?" *Economic and Political Weekly*. Vol. 34. No. 30 (July 24-30). P. 2081. (2081-2086).

Shelley, Feldman; (1997). "NGOs and Civil Society: (Un) Stated Contradictions". Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 554, November 1997. P. 50. (46-65).

Mahbub, Ul, Haq; (1995).Reflections on Human Development. New York: Oxford University Press, 1995. P. 2.

Martha, C. Nussbaum; (2011). Creating Capabilities: The Human Development Approach. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. P. 18.

Ibid. P. ix.

⁹ Brian, K. Murphy; (2000)."International NGOs and the Challenge of Modernity".Development in Practice, Vol. 10, No. 3/4.p.332.

P. M. Mathew; (2010). Enterprise Development Agenda and the Non-State Actors: Structure, Linkages and Opportunities. Cochin: ISED.

Riddell, Roger, C & Robinson, Mark; (1995). Non Governmental Organizations and Poverty Alleviations.p. 14.

Garain, Swapan; (1994). "Government-NGO interface in India: An overview". Indian Journal of Social Work, July, pp. 338-345.

Brijesh, Nalinakumari, & Richard, MacLean, (2005). "NGOs: A Primer on the Evolution of the Organizations That Are Setting the Next Generation of

- "Regulations". *Environmental Quality Management*. Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Published online in Wiley Inter Science (www.interscience.wiley.com).
- Joan, Mencher, (1999). "NGOs: Are They a Force for Change?". Economic and Political Weekly, Vol. 34, No. 30 (July 24-30, 1999). PP. 2081 2086.
- John, Garrison, (2000). From Confrontation to Collaboration Civil Society—Government–World Bank Relations in Brazil. Washington DC: The World Bank. P.13.
- Muttalib, M.A., (1987). "Voluntarism and Development- Theoretical Perspectives".Indian Journal of Public Administration, V-33(3), July-Sep. p.400.
- Surymoorthy, R., &Gangrade, K. D., (2001). NGOs in India: A Cross Sectional Study. London Greenwood Press.p. 23.
- Vindhya, U. &Kalpana, V. (1989). "Voluntary Organizations and Women's Struggle for Change: Experience with BCT". The Indian Journal of Social work, Vol. L. No.2, pp. 183-197
- http://www.gdrc.org/ngo/wb-define.html
- Workshop Notes: "NGO Workshop Organized at the Asian Institute of Technology, Bangkok". October 17–21, 1988. www.gdrc.org/ngo/wb-define.html.
- http://www.unrol.org/article.aspx?article_id=23
- O'Neille, M., (1989). The Third America: the emergence of the nonprofit sector in the United States, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass publishers, in Ahmad, MokbulMorshed (1997), "The Third Sector: its nature and characteristics". The Journal of Social Studies, Pp 37-55
- Oommen T.K., (1966). "State, Civil Society and Market in India: the context of Mobilisation", Mobilisation, Vol.1 No.2, Pp 191-202.
- Sundaram, I. S., (1996). "Voluntary agencies and rural development". Delhi: B R Publishing, in B.T., Lawani., NGOs in Development. Jaipur: Rawat Publications.
- Mukherjee, K. K, (1994). "Emerging societal changes and voluntary organizations: Challenges and Responses", Gandhi Marg, V-15(4), pp. 389-414.
- Potter, David, 1996, "Non Governmental Organizations and environmental policies", in Andrew Blowers and Peter Wesbergen (Ed) Environmental Policy in an International context: prospects for environmental change, Arnond John Willey and Sons, Inc., pp. 25-49.
- Princen, Thomas and Finger, Matthias. (1994). 'Introduction', in Thomas Princen and Matthias Finger (eds) Environmental NGOs in world politics linking the local and the global, Routledge, London, pp. 29-47.
- Mohanty, Manoranjan. (1996). "Introduction" in ManoranjanMohanty (ed.) Foreign Aid and NGOs, VANI, New Delhi, pp. 1-5.
- Weber, Max. (1961). "Types of social organization" in Talcott Parsons et al. (eds) theories of Society: foundations of Modern Sociological Theory, V-1, the free press, Glence, pp. 218-229.
- Bakshi, Rajni. (1996). "On Foreign funding", Lokayan Bulletin, V-13 (1), PP 77-83.

Vakil, Anna, C. (1997). "Confronting Classification Problem-Toward a Taxonomy of NGOs." *World Development*. Vol. 25. No. 12.pp 2057-2070. Great Britain: Elsevier Science Ltd.

- Vakil, Anna C (1997). "Confronting Classification Problem-Toward a Taxonomy of NGOs." *World Development*. Vol. 25. No. 12. p. 2060
- Dhanagare, D N, (1988), "Action Groups and Social transformation in India", Lokayan, V-6, No.5, pp. 37-59.
- Clark, John. (1991). Anil Bhatt, Non Governmental Organizations, in John M Killey. Stakeholders in rural development, Critical collaboration in State-NGO partnership. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Garain, Swapan, (1994). "Government-NGO interface in India: An overview", Indian Journal of Social Work, July, pp. 338-345.
- Brijesh, Nalinakumari and Richard, MacLean. (2005). "NGOs: A Primer on the Evolution of the Organizations That Are Setting the Next Generation of Regulations". *Environmental Quality Management*.p. 2.
- Korten, David C. (1992). Getting to the 21st Century: Voluntary Action and the Global Agenda. New Delhi: Oxford and & IBH. p. 115.
- Gangrade, K.D. (1987). "Development of Voluntary Action". In *Encylopaedia of Social Work in India*. Vol. 1. New Delhi: Ministery of Social Work, Government of India. p. 221.
- Mukhopadhyay K.K. Voluntarism and volunteers in welfare and development, the Indian Journal of social work, V-56, No.(1).
- ⁴⁰ AlkaSrivastav, (1999), Non-governmental organizations and rural development, Social Action V-49, Jan-Mar 1999, p.29.
- Srivastava, S.P., Nature of voluntary action in India today: Critique, Social Action V-49, Jan Mar 1999, p.2.
- Swalvey, C.H., (1952), 'The history of Lutheran Mission in India, ed, the federation of Evangelical Lutheran Church in India, p. 50 cited in Vidyarthi L.P., (ed.), Applied Anthropology in India, principles, problems, and case studies, KitabMahakl, Allahabad, 1968, P125. Quoted in Panigrahi D.K., Voluntary agencies in Tribal development, Social change: Vol. 23, 2 & 3, Jun-Sep. 1993, p. 92.
- Roy SC, 'the effects on the aborigines of chotanagpur and their contacts with western civilizations, Journal of Bihar & Orissa Research Society, V-17, Part-IV, 1931, in LM Prasad, "Voluntary Agencies for Development of SCs and STs: their role and function", Indian Journal of Public Administration, V-33(3), 1987, p. 588.
- ⁴⁴ Sundaram, I.S., (1996), Voluntary agencies and rural development, New Delhi, BR Publishing Corporation quoted in Rajasekhar D, 2000, NGOs in India: Opportunities and challenges, Journal of Rural Development, Vol.19(2), p.254.
- ⁴⁵ Mukhopadhyay K.K., (1995), "Volunteerism and volunteers in welfare and development: Some observations", *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, Vol. LVI, No.1, January, p.7.

Jhunjhunwala, Bharat. (1986). "Voluntary work as countervailing power", Economic and Political Weekly, p. 21, cited in Rohini, Patel. Voluntary organizations in India: Motivation and Roles, in ML Dantwala et al (eds), Social change through voluntary action, New Delhi:Sage Publications.

- Gangrade, K. D. and Sooryamoorthy, R. (1998). Voluntary action in India: A synoptic view in M L Dantwala et al. (eds), Social change through Voluntary action, New Delhi: Sage Publications. pp. 162-173.
- Lawani, B.T., (1999). Voluntary action in India, NGOs in development, Delhi: Rawat Publications. pp. 40-43.
- Bidyut, Chakraborty. (2004). "Voluntary Associations & Development: The Indian Experience", Indian Journal of Public administration, Vol. L(1), pp. 362-378.
- Murthy, R.K., and Nitya, Rao. (1997). Indian NGOs in Poverty Alleviation and Their Capacity Enhancement in the 1990s: An institutional and social relations perspective, New Delhi, FES, cited in Rajasekhar D, 2000, NGOs in India: Opportunities and challenges, Journal of Rural Development, Vol. 19(2), PP. 249-275.
- Bhat, M. K. Sustainability and Local Governance, cited in Rajesekhar D, (ed), Decentralised government and NGOs: Issues, strategies and ways forward, Delhi, Concept quoted in Rajasekhar D, (2000). "NGOs in India: Opportunities and challenges". Journal of Rural Development, Vol. 19(2), p. 254.
- Choudhury, Paul, D., (1985). Voluntary effort in rural development, Profile of social Welfare/Development in India, New Delhi: MN Publications.
- Chaturvedi, H.R. (1987). "Role of Voluntary organizations in rural development", The Indian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. XXXIII, Jul-Sep, No.3, pp. 533-545.
- Vimala, Ramachandran. (1998). Voluntary Organization: Professional agency or sub-contractor in M L Dantwala et al (eds), Social change through Voluntary action, New Delhi: Sage publications. pp. 162-173.
- Mishra, S. N., and Chaitiali, Pal. (1997). Non Governmental Organization in Rural Development. Cited in NoorjahanBawa, NGOs in Development: Theory and Practice. New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers, p.155.
- Robinson, A. Clayton. (ed.) Governance, Democracy and Conditionality: What role for NGOs? Oxford: INTRAC. Cited in Rajasekhar D, (2000), NGOs in India: Opportunities and challenges. Journal of Rural Development, Vol.19(2), p.254.
- Roger, C. Riddell and Mark, Robinson. (1995). Non Governmental Organizations and Rural Poverty Alleviation. Oxford: Clarendon Press. p. 140.
- Mishra, S.N. and Chaitali Pal, (1997). NGOs in Rural Development in NoorjahanBawa, NGOs in Development: Theory and Practice, Kanishka Publishers & Distributors, New Delhi, p.155.
- Brian K. Murphy (August 2000). "International NGOs and the Challenge of Modernity". Development in Practice, Vol. 10, No. 3/4.pp.330-347.

MahbubUl, Haq. (1995). Reflections on Human Development. New York: Oxford University Press, 1995. P. 4.

- The American President in his inaugural address gave a solemn promise to make scientific advances and industrial progress for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped.
- Michael, Edwards. & Gita, Sen. (2000). "NGOs, social Change and the Transformation of Human Relationships: a 21st Century Civic Agenda". Third World Quarterly, Vol. 21. No 4. p. 605 (605-616).
- Hans Holmén and Magnus Jirström, (2009). "Look Who's Talking!: Second Thoughts about NGOs as Representing Civil Society". *Journal of Asian and African Studies* 2009; Vol.44. New Delhi: Sage Publication. P.429
- ⁶⁴ Siddhartha Sen. (1991). Indian NGOs: a Historical Survey of Roles in Development and Housing. Urbana-Champaign: University of Illiniois. p 112
- MeenaRazvi, Gene L. Roth . (2004). Women's Socio-economic Development in India: The Role of Non-governmental Organizations. Northern Illinois University.P. 85.
- Jere R. Behrman. (1990). Human Resource Led Development. ILO: Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotions (ARTEP).
- Frederick, Harbison and Charles A. Mayer. (1964). Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies for Human Resource Development. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company. p. 175.
- Martha, C., Nussbaum. (2011). Creating Capabilities: The Human Development Approach. P. 18.
- ⁶⁹ Frederick, Harbison and Charles A. Mayer. (1964). Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies for Human Resource Development. P. 202.
- http://www.iitk.ac.in/designbank/Sitapur/History.html
 http://www.britishindiaassociation.com/Sitapur.php
 http://www.brandbharat.com/english/up/districts/Sitapur/Sitapur.html
- ⁷¹ Ibid. P. 38.

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Akshay and Yashi (2014).

In this research Paper titled "Role of NGOs in Developing a Sustainable Environment for the Society: In the Indian Context", the author discusses about the growing significance of the NGO sector in India and their growing strength in taking care of the unnoticed and deprived sections of the society for a sustainable development. The researcher successfully exposes the efforts of Non Governmental Organizations to bridge the gulf between people's needs and services being offered. He argues that these organizations with their myopic vision not only cure the present but also pave a way for better future, thus aligning themselves to the principles of sustainable development and how the NGOs, help in developing community capacities such as ability, skill and knowledge of mobilizing resources, planning and evaluating community initiation and solving problems to improve the quality of their life; further they aim at making them economically sound which in the long run would contribute to sustainable development.

The specific objectives of this research were (a) To study how NGOs help in Sustainable Development (b) To explain the proposed models for NGOs functioning to create sustainable environment for the society (c) To study the contribution of some selected NGOs in developing sustainable environment. The outcome of this study provides insight and information about the role of NGOs in developing the sustainable environment for society in India. This study is based on secondary data. The required data have been collected from various sources i.e. through books, magazines, articles, previous studies.

The author finds that the NGOs attain their goals by playing the roles implementer, catalyst and partner. As Implementer they help in mobilizing the resources to provide goods and services in the best possible way. Through their activities and programmes like health care initiatives, advocating environmental

issues, carrying out various drives, etc., they work for the society. They carry out their operations and implement well all their projects. As a catalyst the NGOs inspire and improve the skills, capabilities, lifestyle and social condition of the people giving a thrust to development. This results in the empowerment, capacity building and shaping a sustainable social environment for the society. The available data from the government records and public domain show that the NGOs have close tie up with the corporate sector in the areas of social concern. In this way as implementer, catalyst and partner the NGOs help in attaining sustainable Development by empowering social, environmental and other related issues. The specific functions are related to inclusive and balanced growth of society, capacity building and building self-reliant society. The researcher finds that ultimately, sustainable development will only be achieved particularly when society is empowered. Hence the researcher argues that when the NGOs fulfill their role of inclusive and balanced growth of the society, capacity building for self reliant society, it leads to empowerment of the society and sustainable development.

The researcher's findings regarding the efforts of NGOs in capacity building for sustainable development at different levels of individual, institutional and society is of much significance to this study. Capacity-building on an individual level involves the development of conditions that allow individual participants to develop existing knowledge and skills. This leads direct development of human resources in the areas of their operations. Capacity building on an institutional level essentially involves serving current institutions in developing countries. The researcher states that creating new institutions should not be involved, rather renovating existing institutions and supporting them in making comprehensive policies, organizational structures, and effective methods of management and revenue control. Any renovation or strengthening of the existing institutions and its improving of the quality of functioning is helpful in human capital building. Society capacity building at the societal level supports the establishment of a more interactive public administration that learns equally from its actions and from feedback it receives from the population at large, hence it is facilitated to develop public administrators that are responsive and accountable; hence the relevance of the research for the current study.

Chimiak (2014).

The analysis² presented testifies to the contention that global civil society, as exemplified by the activity of international and national NGOs, is a field of forces characterized by conflict as well as cooperation. In spite of the contradictions inherent to that field, those NGOs often represent innovative approaches to new and old development problems. Reportedly, the climate of uncertainty has encouraged organizations to become conservative regarding funding and political advocacy, relying on more established, thus safer, activities as well as created inefficiencies and wasted resources by making INGOs spend more resources on accounting, reporting, legal fees, and bureaucratic checks for compliance. Hence, the conflation of development and security affected adversely INGOs, and in the long run this impact lead to the internalization of restrictions on behalf of INGOs. The researcher finds that an overview of the recent history of (I)NGOs role in national and international affairs alike testifies to these organizations' potential to bring about palpable change, even in adverse circumstances. Currently all actors on the international arena are aware that a new model of cooperation is needed where stakeholders, including but not limited to (I)NGOs, could interact in a way that caters to the needs of both powerful and vulnerable nations and groups. Importantly, it is not only states and international institutions that should work out more inclusive framework to allow citizens to contribute to decision-making processes. INGOs themselves should also adapt to changing circumstances and develop new modes of cooperation both with their beneficiaries and with policy-makers. Unexplored partnerships could help (I)NGOs as well as beneficiaries, constituencies and donor agencies in putting into practice the promise inherent in theories of civil society, democratization and development.

Dyke et, al (2014).

Addressing inequities is a key role for international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) working in health and development. This study³ examines the influences on one INGO's implementation of equity principles in its HIV/AIDS programs.

The research employed a case study with nested components (an INGO operating in Kenya, with offices in North America). Researcher used multiple data collection methods, including document reviews, interviews (with staff, partners and clients of the INGO in Kenya), and participant observation (with Kenyan INGO staff).

Participant observation was conducted with 10 people over three months. Forty-one interviews were completed, and 127 documents analyzed. Data analysis followed Auerbach and Silverstein's analytic process (2003), with qualitative coding conducted in multiple stages, using descriptive matrices, visual displays and networks (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

It was found that there was a gap between the INGO's intent to implement equity principles and actual practice due to multiple influences from various players, including donors and country governments. Major influences included donor agendas and funding, donor country policies, and Southern country government priorities and legislation. The INGO preferred particular vulnerable populations (based on its reputation, its history, and the priorities of the Kenyan government and the donors). To balance its equity commitment with the influences from other players, the INGO aligned with the system as well as pushed back incrementally on the donors and the Kenyan government to influence these organizations' equity agendas. By moving its equity agenda forward incrementally and using its reputational advantage, the INGO avoided potential negative repercussions that might result from pushing too fast or working outside the system. The INGO aligned the implementation of equity principles in its HIV/AIDS initiatives by working within a system characterized by asymmetrical interdependence. Influences from the donors and Kenyan government contributed to an implementation gap between what the INGO intended to accomplish in implementing equity principles in HIV/AIDS work and actual practice.

Maria (2014).

In this study⁴ the researcher find thatNon-governmental organizations play a vital role in the economy of every country. They are not only providers of special type of services that public sector is not capable of providing in full quality and quantity, and private sector is not interested in, but they are also watch dogs of the society and builders of active citizenship. The researcher feels that the NGOs have become an object of many research studies. The divergence in their goals, sizes, roles, types of services provided, and ways of funding make NGOs an interesting subject. As an objective for this research the researcher chose a comparison of the development and state of the Slovak and Austrian non-profit sector in the view of historical development of both countries. Consequently, the study evaluates the funding of

NGOs in Slovakia and Austria. The study maps the development of non-profit sector in Slovakia and Austria in the context of a common historical development and assesses the current state and the potential of economic strength of NGOs in both countries. The output is comparison of funding of NGOs in Slovakia and Austria based on statistical data evaluation. Subsequently, the study proposes recommendation for suitable diversification of the funding sources.

Vatamanescu et, al (2014).

The study⁵ approaches the common identity and common bond theories in analyzing the group patterns of interaction, their causes, processes and outcomes from a managerial perspective. The distinction between identity and bond refers to people's different reasons for being in a group, stressing out whether they like the group as a whole — identity based attachment, or they like individuals in the group-bond based attachment. While members of the common identity groups report feeling more attached to their group as a whole than to their fellow group members and tend to perceive others in the group as interchangeable, in bond-based attachment people feel connected to each other and less to the group as a whole, loyalty or attraction to the group stemming from their attraction primarily to certain members in the group. At this level, the main question concerns with the particularities of common identitybased or common bond based groups regarding social interaction, the participatory architecture of the group, the levels of personal and work engagement in acting like a cohesive group. In order to address pertinently this issue, the work focuses on a qualitative research which comprised in depth (semi-structured) interviews with several project coordinators from Non Governmental Organizations. To make the investigation more complex and clear, the research relies on social network analysis which is indicative of the group dynamics and configuration, highlighting the differences between common identity based and common bond based groups.

Yagub (2014).

This study⁶ was conducted to examine the existing collaboration between government and NGOs in curative health service delivery in North Darfur State, and to identify the challenges that affect their collaboration. Documentary data were collected from government offices and medical organizations. Primary data were obtained through interviews with government and NGOs representatives. The interviews were

conducted with expatriates working for international NGOs (N=15) and health professionals and administrators working in the health sector (N= 45). The NGOs collaborate by providing human and financial resources, material and equipment, and communication facilities. The NGOs supply 70% of curative health services, and contribute 52.9% of the health budget in North Darfur State. The NGOs have employed 1 390 health personnel, established 44 health centres and manage and support 83 health facilities across the State. The NGOs have played a positive role in collaborating with the government in North Darfur State in delivering curative health services, while government's role has been negative. The problem that faces the government in future is how health facilities will be run should a peaceful settlement be reached and NGOs leave the region.

Hassan & Forhad (2013).

Non-governmental organizations are claimed to have impacts on the sustainable development in rural areas of the developing countries and the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) is identified as an example. This study⁷ has considered BRAC as the case and has been aimed to critically outline the roles of this selected non-governmental organization (BRAC) in sustainable development process. Also, with this particular aim, this study has explored the trends of current poverty situations in Bangladesh. Also, the impacts those BRAC are having through their sustainable development initiatives. This study has selected two villages of the Chandpur district of Bangladesh, where BRAC has been operating intense programmes. This study has used both the qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Results suggest that programmes undertaken by NGOs are capable of having positive contributions in the sustainable development process to a certain level. The fact is that the programme implementation, where efficiency of the NGO employees is an indicator of success factor. The research is empirical and is expectedly fill the gap of literature.

Sitek (2013).

This study⁸ concentrates upon civil society in rural areas of Poland through the prism of NGOs. Therefore the aim of this paper is to describe the process of shaping the civil society in Poland 's rural areas. The researcher finds that the Polish rural society is characterized by significant departures from the basic patterns of civil society due

to the challenges from the forces of change driven by the globalization. This changing situation causes greater stress upon the growing significant role of non-governmental organizations, because they are expected to play a key role in terms of development. Furthermore domestic crisis of the European Union (affected by world economic crisis) has a huge impact on civil society. This is reflected, inter alia, into the needs of finding a new model of development in rural areas, which can be based on NGOs actions since the current one creates exclusion.

The study finds that the pursuit of development can take place not only in public institutions but also can be delivered by non-governmental organizations. This study reflects mostly on the results of research which was oriented on civil society in rural areas in Poland. The research was conducted by the Rural Polish Forum and Nicolaus Copernicus University within the project: "Good Start - support and information centre for non-governmental organization in rural areas" and was based on quantitative methods (surveys) which were performed providing depth to the information gleaned from a large representative sample of survey respondents (together, using CATI, 376 non-governmental organizations took part). The sample is representative of the non-governmental organizations in rural areas of Poland and so allows for generalization. The main objectives of the project/research were to develop a methodology for supporting the activity on the rural areas and developing mechanisms to support non-governmental organizations. Also, it has to be mentioned that this research was a response to a real problem for the development of civil society in rural areas in Poland, which results from the weakening of the capacity of rural residents in the area of identifying and shaping their own individual lifestyle, needs and develop their own value systems and to influence decisions concerning their local environment by acting in nongovernmental organizations. The research examined civil society variously as a multidimensional phenomenon, an objective and subjective measure. This research provided an integrated and interdisciplinary knowledge. It allowed analysis of environmental problems of a human nature and understanding the role of social factors in the community developing process.

The research has resulted in increased understanding of the importance of local development caused by non-governmental organizations because it is common knowledge that NGOs play one of the leading roles primarily and allow for more efficient building of integrated community. And finally, in the long-term goals non-

governmental organizations can better adapt their activities to the needs of local communities. NGOs become a tool of social change and is helpful and a facilitating factor in the development of civil society

Farhad & Akram (2012)

This paper titled "Strategic management: the case of NGOs in Palestine" by Farhad Analoui and Akram Samour (2012) is based on the results of a recent empirical study of the NGOs in Gaza Strip, which aims to explore the perception of the NGO manager in Gaza Strip as to whether or not they think and use strategy in their daily operations and if so what would be the implication of this for their performance. This study is concerned with NGOs' managers located in the Gaza Strip in Palestine. Survey questionnaire was the main data collection instrument. A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, triangulation, is employed for data analysis. This first-time study contributes to the current stock of knowledge and our present understanding of strategic management, as perceived by NGO managers, by contextualising its use in Palestine.

This research is an explanatory research and therefore the researchers have employed descriptive, analytical, comparative and statistical methods involving both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The data had to be collected from a population of 657 NGOs all over Gaza Strip. Therefore, based on the nature of the data, which was required, the type of the research (explanatory) and the large research population, the delivery and collection questionnaire is the main data collection technique in this study.

In the present study the data analysis shows that more than half of the surveyed NGOs (n 1/4 70, 56.0 percent) have established a strategic management system in their NGOs. Therefore, important proportions of NGOs view strategic management as significant. Moreover, the result shows that 71.3 percent from the NGOs have a "written strategic plan", 83.1 percent of the NGOs have a "written business plan", and 78.6 percent of the NGOs have a "written mission statement". All the previous results emphasize the high level of formality in strategic planning and indicate the importance of strategic management in the studied NGOs. Hence it is generally and broadly agreed that thinking strategically and practicing strategic management have positive effects on the organizations' performance. The data

analysis shows that the impact of a strategic management approach on the overall performance of the NGO in Gaza Strip is significantly important (t 1/4 14.45, p, 0.000). Surprisingly and interestingly data analysis showed that the impact of a strategic management approach on the quality of service is significantly important (t 1/4 15.18, p, 0.000).

This study represents an important contribution both theoretically and practically. From a theoretical aspect, it is a first time study about strategic management in NGOs. Also it develops contextualizing strategic management in NGOs in Palestine and fills a gap in the strategic management in NGOs' literature. Practically it provides policy implications for NGOs and their effectiveness and presents Human Resource development implications for designing and implementing training for managers of NGOs. Furthermore, it provides guidelines for senior managers to improve their strategic management skills, and guidelines for consultants who work in the field of strategic management in general, and strategic management in NGOs in particular. Finally, it presents guidelines for the universities who are involved in teaching strategic management.

The achievements of a non-profit social services organization (NPSO) often depend on formulating strategies suitable for the competitive and environmental realities that the organization confronts. These realities are gradually more significant given the increased demands for services, in the company of decreased funding caused by government cutbacks and societal changes. NGOs are concerned about using management and information systems, which are at least as good as those, used by private companies.

As a result of this study it was discovered that most NGOs used strategic management systems and perceived strategic management as an important tool for increasing the quality of service delivery, achieving goals and increasing overall organizational performance. Moreover, the principles of the "dynamic model" developed for SMEs are applicable to the NGOs. The authors argue that NGOs in Palestine and elsewhere must become more strategic in their planning and operations in order to increase their performance, productivity and efficiency in providing quality service. The authors citing Salbi (1997), asserts that achieving goals, surviving and flourishingrequire responding and adjusting to social, economic and political environments andthe changes therein and adds, that strategic planning is essential in

every type oforganization, be it NGO, a government, community, political or business institution.

This study contributes to the present research in the sense that it explains the growth and formalization of grass-root organizations and their effectiveness in the contribution of human resource development in the rural areas. The above reviewed study also contribute specifically to the filed of organizational study and especially in this case the organization deals with the human development at the grass-root level. The implementation of strategic management principles definitely contribute to the achievements of organizational goals and organizational effectiveness. The grass-root organization which I have dealt with in this study clearly demontrate that they strictly adhere to the good organizational practices and strategic management principles and therefore their contribution in creating capability among the rural population is giving the desired results.

Ismail (2012).

The study¹⁰ was designed to investigate role of non - governmental organizations' contribution in teaching primary education in Pakistan. The data for the study is gathered through questionnaires and interviews. The focus was also on collecting information through efficient and reliable resources. The population of the study consists of all the NGO's and Government institutions, who are working in Karachi. Sample of the study was adopted randomly from the population. The total size of the sample will be 300. 250 social workers from twenty five NGO'S filled questionnaire and were interviewed out of all the active NGO's, working in Karachi. 50 government employees of grade 18-21 filled the questionnaire and were interviewed from Ministry of Social Welfare, Government of Sindh. The collected data were statistically analyzed and association among the three groups was calculated. The study found that the NGOs play a vital role in the field of primary education and improves the education scenario of the rural population substantially.

Rezaul and Morgan (2012).

This article¹¹ considers the role of NGOs in term of their capacity as agents of community empowerment in Bangladesh. The article investigates the application of community empowerment using the domains. The article is based on qualitative

research focusing on two NGOs in Bangladesh: Proshika and Practical Action Bangladesh (PAB) and their work in two communities, one urban and the other rural. The data are obtained from two indigenous occupants: blacksmiths and goldsmiths. The article argues that NGOs in Bangladesh are potential agents of community empowerment, but there are obstacles that limit this. NGOs showed potential as agents for community empowerment in Bangladesh, their actual contribution in developing local leadership, creating empowering organizational structures and increasing people's control over management was weak. It was seen that both NGOs followed the so-called participatory plan (PP) and tried to consider the community feelings through their active participation, and then integrated these in community planning. But, practically, they faced contradiction as they could not include many marginal and ultra poor within their PP. The PP could not achieve 'real' or 'genuine' participation, as a substantial number of bureaucratic and top down methods existed. The NGOs used a number of scientific tools, such as the community survey, participatory market chain analysis, market assessment, rapid market survey, PRA, training, technology fair and monitoring and supervision as part of their assessment. But many of the local producers and NGO staff members claimed that they could not persist with such interventions, as they could not own them effectively.

The research found that the participation between NGOs and other associated groups, such as local producers, community leaders, civil society, GOs and local institutions was not authentic. The research also found that the poor and marginalised individuals and communities, such as blacksmiths and goldsmiths, were not able to achieve the full potential of their capability because of constraints imposed by the social/institutional structures of customs, control, and power. The paper proposes a more 'dynamic vision' that incorporated social networks and recognised dispersed and contingent power relations. This kind of participation could secure the development ownership for the local community, civil society, and institutions (NGOs and donor agencies). NGOs' role as a 'social mobilisation' paradigm of development would be more helpful for empowerment, collective action, and engagement with the broader political system.

Duru (2011).

This research project¹² is an exploratory study guided by theories of social dominance and African feminism. It examines men's interference in the empowerment of women in Nigeria. The purpose of the study is first, to understand how men interfere in women's empowerment and second, to lay a ground work for future studies. The study uses critical and interpretive methods of inquiry, particularly interview techniques to elicit the views of men and women in Nigeria regarding their understanding of women's empowerment, factors influencing their views, participation in the empowerment of women, and men's control of women's empowerment. Additionally, the study compares men's and women's views using thematic analysis to reduce and present data.

Participants consisted of 12 men and 12 women residing in Nigeria who are from Igbo, Yoruba, Hausa and four other minority tribes in Nigeria. Findings from the study reveal that men have dominant control over the empowerment of women in Nigeria, and that men's control of the social, political and economic system hurts the empowerment of women. Based on the findings, the study formulates a definition of empowerment in the Nigerian context. The findings suggest several recommendations for future research, including replicating the study using a different population in Nigeria, investigating the extent to which women have power, and formulating a women's empowerment strategy that is applicable to the Nigerian context.

Godwin, Deryl and Stewart (2011)

The research paper titled "Social capital and accountability in grass-roots NGOs: The Case of the Ugandan community-ledHIV/AIDS initiative" by Godwin Awio, Deryl Northcott and Stewart Lawrence examines a single community-led public welfare initiative (the Ugandan Community led HIV/AIDS Initiative - CHAI), with a particular focus on one illustrative grass-roots NGO within that programme. Nevertheless, it offers insights into how accountability mechanisms can be reconceptualised to suit the context of developing countries where smaller NGOs increasingly operate. The research aims to examine how small, grass-roots non-governmental organisations account for their actions and expenditures and how this accountability is discharged to, and benefits, the citizens they serve. This research

addresses the lack of empirical studies of smaller, grass-roots NGOs in the accounting literature. It also contributes to the under-researched area of how NGOs can appropriately discharge their accountability obligations to beneficiaries. The use of social capital theory to inform the study is also a novel contribution of this paper. AIDS has killed around one million Ugandans and a further 940,000 are currently living with HIV. This pandemic has significantly reduced life expectancy, depleted Uganda's labour force, reduced agricultural output and food security, weakened educational and health services, and left behind 1.2 million Ugandan orphans.

As far as the methodology was concerned, an interpretive perspective was adopted to understand the participants' views and meanings on various aspects of the matter under study. This methodological lens allowed the researchers to examine the "meaning which an action had for the actor" within the "comprehensive and given social reality that confronts the individual". For this study, this meant developing interpretations from the direct experiences and perceptions of participants involved at all levels of the CHAI operating hierarchy.

The design of the case study, the associated interviews and the interpretation of the findings were informed by Social Capital theory. Social capital theory suggests that when a member of a social group voluntarily performs a role, a reciprocal expectation is created. The group-wise operation of this voluntarism should engender cooperative action as a clear manifestation of Social Capital accumulation. This had two main consequences. First, interviewees were asked about the networks, relationships and expectations within their communities to explore relevant Social Capital concepts such as trust, norms, reciprocity and embeddedness. Second, care was taken to ensure that no prior constructs, meanings or practices of the underlying research theme - accountability - were suggested during the interview discussion. It was important to access their perceptions of what accountability means to them. The intention was to gain interviewee's views on the operating and reporting practices expected and enacted by CHAI groups, and not to impose any preconception of what accountabilities "ought to be" in place according to the researcher's understanding of this concept. Interviewees were encouraged to relate their experiences of how CHAI groups function and report what they do.

The analysis of the interview evidence aimed to identify, from the perspective of CHAI participants, key themes related to how Social Capital and accountability manifest in the CHAI groups and how they impact CHAI group operations. A process of thematic analysis was used to interpret the interview evidence. First, the transcripts and field notes were closely read and annotated according to preliminary evident themes. These themes were then reviewed across all the interviews and distilled down to overarching themes centred on the dual concepts of Social Capital and accountability practices. The transcripts were then re-read and articulated with these key themes using an intuitive coding scheme until it was felt that no new insights were emerging from further reading and thematic analysis of the interview evidence.

The findings suggest that CHAI groups render accountability to each other, to beneficiaries, and to their wider communities in multiple ways. First, service delivery is witnessed by the community to, which the beneficiaries belong. Second, community members "experience" accountability via their active participation in implementing project activities. Third, local forums like local council meetings and church functions are used to render oral accountability. The findings of this study reveal a link between trust and cooperation, reflecting the SC notions that people who trust each other work together more easily also the findings suggest that a spirit of voluntarism operates within and around these NGOs. The study also reveals that CHAI groups rely on community participation in budgeting, program implementation, reporting, oversight, and audit practices.

In the case of the Ugandan CHAI a simple, Social Capital-driven accountability model has supported the effective and efficient delivery of social services at the grass-roots level.

There is encouraging evidence that the CHAI has improved service delivery to HIV/AIDS stricken communities, and the findings presented here reveal that effective accountability is a key driver of this success. These grass-roots NGOs operate within a "bottom-up" accountability framework characterized by strong community involvement in public services provision and management (e.g. budgeting, program implementation, reporting, project oversight, audit activities).

Accordingly, effective grass-roots accountability must be reconceptualised as accounts of actions and transactions, rather than the numerical abstractions of

accounting. The CHAI example has revealed the potential of such an accountability framework to facilitate community engagement and support the state-civil society complementarity needed to address social and economic issues in developing countries – a sort of "social vaccine" that could bring similar benefits in other countries.

The above research suggests that accountability and social capital approach brings quality to the service of NGOs and gives better training to the community the grass-roots NGOs are serving. A community engagement and participatory approach of the grass-roots NGOs brings better community development, human development and human capital development.

Armando et, al (2010)

The authors in this research¹⁴ paper discusses the role of Nongovernmental organizations, particularly those related to development work (local developmentoriented nongovernmental organizations; LDNGO), and their agents have been in the field of adult education in Portugal. In this research the author strongly argue with regard to the relationship that exists between adult education and local development. The basic approach of the researcher in this research is to emphasise the theme "adult education in the context of local development". The LDNGOs develop with the State, at the national level, and with supranational institutions and programs with different types of relationships and arrangements, as a result of the activity in such educational arena. The objective of this article is to question, on the basis of an ethnographic study of an adult education team of an LDNGO and using the pedagogical discourse model of Bernstein (production, recontextualization and reproduction), the relationship that these agents establish with the official knowledge (pedagogical discourse) emerging from State-dependent intervention bodies. The results of the study show that, even in strongly prescriptive working contexts, it is possible to develop an active relationship with the official knowledge and make recontextualizing uses of it.

As for the methodology of this research is concerned this research is undertaken on the basis of an ethnographic study of the adult education team in a Centre for Education and Training (CET) of an LDNGO in the north of Portugal to analyse the relationship between official discourse on adult education and training and

how official knowledge is used. In researcher's view an ethnographic approach provided a more effective means of observing these "uses of official pedagogical discourse" in practice. The choice of the LDNGO and one of its technical teams was the result of a long process that was divided into three distinct phases: a survey of the LDNGOs active in the north of Portugal; the assessment of the extent of each organization's involvement in adult education; and the selection of a case that could be deemed appropriate for further in-depth study. The first phase consisted entirely of documental analysis, whereas the second and third involved a combination of document analysis and the conducting of interviews with a purposive sample of organizations. Taken together, these phases allowed defining the profile of adult education in all the organizations. The selected LDNGO operates in an area with both rural and industrial characteristics

The authors look at the role of LDNGOs and their agents in an explicitly local development context. They go on to explain by citing different scholars how the adult education undertaken by civil society institutions, local development organizations in particular, has experienced substantial growth in recent years in Portugal and how it is the part of the mainstream. Even the most cursory survey of the activities of such organizations reveals the significant level that adult education initiatives have achieved. They claim that these activities have not only changed the lives of beneficiaries but also the organizations delivering these services: Some have "professionalized" themselves and recruited types of agents (technical staff) who, until recently, had a low status in the country, such as specialists in social education and professional training, as well as those responsible for the planning, implementation, and evaluation of adult education and training.

Influenced by LDNGOs efforts in adult education the adult education in Portugal has taken on much greater political prominence with the governmental initiatives such as the 1999 legislation creating the National Agency for Adult Education and Training (ANEFA) and the presentation of the government's "National Opportunities Initiative" program in 2007. Hence the authors think the time was ripe to look the relationship that has been established between LDNGOs and the state.

The author defines "local development' as a process in which the communities actively participate to assess needs and define courses of action in order to improve their quality of life. It is, above all, an alternative way of promoting development,

centered on people and local territories, with a strong educational dimension.

In this research the author argues that the relationship between adult education and local development has been structured from the theoretical viewpoint in two complementary ways: Adult education as an important element of local development and the process of local development as one of the privileged areas in adult education. Adult education is a means of developing local communities; in effect, for a number of years, adult education has been seen as a key factor in local development, particularly in rural areas.

Local development itself can be understood as a learning process for adults when it proceeds from the objective situation found in the locality or when it is based on an appreciation of and a response to the problems of the population, their resources, and the structure of development opportunities. This being the case, to define the contours of the situation and problematize it, it is needed to draw on the accumulated experience and "indigenous knowledge" of the local population, their perceptions of the resources available for development, their priorities and aspirations. In other words, local development can provide an opportunity for "conscientization," that is, establish a turning point in which a critical vision of the current reality can be constructed.

However, for leaning and conscientization to occur, it is essential to have a close interaction between the community and the outside local development agents. These agents can have an important role in the whole process by both providing essential information and enabling adults to search for it and use it and this is the empowerment of the local people. As a result they are also empowered to serve as facilitators of training and as community animators. There is an enormous capacity for transformation inherent in this process, because it enables people to better understand the situation in which they find themselves, to learn to look at their circumstances in a different light, and to intervene locally with greater capacity for and likelihood of change.

The results research shows that the LDNGOs has successfully localized adult education programmes keeping in view the context, requirements and needs of the population they are serving. Such institutions have the capacity to both influence responses *and* facilitate alternatives ways of education.

The above said research contribute to the present study as it present a model for the NGOs in providing adult education as well as for the state to formulate policies so as to benefit the needs and requirements of the time and context at the same not deviating from the general principles and purpose of education.

Nikkhah and Redzuan (2010)

The Role of NGOs in Promoting Empowerment for This paper on SustainableCommunity Development¹⁵ attempts to illustrate the contribution of NGOs towards sustainable community development. NGOs have many programs, functions and roles which assist community to become empowered, and eventually attain sustainable development. This paper reviews some of these roles, functions and programs of NGOs, such as microfinance, capacity building and self-reliance. Microfinance programs improve the economic well-being of communities by job creation and income generation. In the long run, this economic empowerment will contribute to sustainable community development. NGOs, through capacity building, develop community capacities such as ability, skill and knowledge of mobilizing resources, planning and evaluating community initiation and solving problems to gain the mastery over their lives. It also motivates the community to participate in the projects and help them to improve quality of their lives. Participants are expected to coordinate meetings, plan community activities, and be practical in community initiatives. In this way, NGOs contribute towards sustainable community development. Furthermore, NGOs mobilize the communities to be self-reliant. It assists the communities to discover their own potentials and rely on their own resources. In short, this paper demonstrates that all these programs and functions of NGOs could contribute towards the realization of sustainable community development.

Chalhoub (2009).

The objective of this research paper¹⁶ is to provide a framework that relates NGOs internal management practice to corporate performance and to study the effect of senior management initiatives taken inside the organization on the overall performance of the entity. The internal initiatives addressed in this paper are (1) the time span of corporate strategy, (2) the NGO's internal management techniques and practice, (3) industrial, government relations and image, (4) ability to navigate

through the external environment with a market-driven philosophy, (5) human resource development, and (6) spirit and culture of volunteerism among staff and managers. NGO corporate performance is represented by outcomes developed in the paper, related to sustainability of the NGO, its volume of operations, the deliverability of its services, and the quality of its project products. The research then validated the suggested theoretical framework through an empirical analysis of NGOs based in Lebanon and operating in the Middle East. Data was collected by means of a questionnaire developed from preliminary interviews with managers from a subset of 12 NGOs, followed by data collected from 115 NGOs. Empirical results show that NGO corporate performance is significantly and positively correlated with the time span of the strategic plan, industry and government relations, and senior management ability to maneuver in the external environment with market-driven philosophy.

Bradaschia (2008).

Non-governmental organizations are involved in significant educational initiatives at a variety of levels around the globe. As is the case in many developing nations, NGOs in Nicaragua are assisting the state with social service provision in vital areas such as education. NGOs in Nicaragua have stepped in to purchase land, pay public school teachers' salaries, build public schools, and provide classroom supplies and teaching materials. This study¹⁷ attempts to construct a general picture of the role NGOs play in education, and to portray the balance of NGO-state relations in Nicaragua.

This research was guided by two principal questions: (1) How are NGOs involved in Nicaraguan public primary education and what potential do they have for increasing educational opportunities for Nicaraguan youth? and (2) Since NGOs are not elected by communities and/ or not contracted by the Ministry of Education for their services, and because they are sometimes foreign-initiated and run, how are they perceived and received by Nicaraguan teachers, community members, and Ministry of Education officials? To answer these questions, the researcher conducted interviews with community members, and interviews and observations at departmental and municipal ministries of education, NGOs, schools, and the Nicaraguan Ministry of Education headquarters. The fieldwork focused primarily on the departments of León and Matagalpa; though significant data was gathered in Granada, Jinotega, and other departments.

Conceptual contributions of this study include a look at the complexity of NGO-state relations, implications of NGO social service delivery, development aid and emergency assistance outcomes, and issues of poverty and access to education. Empirical findings provide a better understanding of the Nicaraguan context and issues in education, the types of activities NGOs engage in to improve access to education, and the views of Nicaraguan educators, community members, and Ministry of Education officials on NGOs working in their country. Non-governmental organizations over the past three decades have been involved in important educational change efforts in Nicaragua. It is my goal to increase scholarly understanding of their work in education so as to contribute to more enlightened policies serving the great majority of Nicaraguan youth.

Jessica (2008).

This research paper 18 contributes to the growing social science scholarship on organic agriculture in the global South. A "boundary" framework is used to understand how negotiation among socially and geographically disparate social worlds (e.g., nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), foreign donors, agricultural researchers, and small-scale farmers) has resulted in the diffusion of non-certified organic agriculture in Kenya. National and local NGOs dedicated to organic agriculture promotion, training, research, and outreach are conceptualized as "boundary organizations." Situated at the intersection of multiple social worlds, these NGOs engage in "strategic bridge building" and "strategic boundary-work." Strategic bridge building involves the creation and use of "boundary objects" and "hybrid forms" that serve as meeting grounds for otherwise disconnected social worlds. Strategic boundary-work involves efforts to "scientise," and thereby legitimize, organic agriculture in the eyes of foreign donors, potential research collaborators, the Kenyan state, and farmers. Examples of strategic bridge building and boundary work are presented in the paper. The Kenyan case illustrates that different social actors can unite around a shared objective – namely, the promotion and legitimization of organic agriculture as an alternative to the Green Revolution (GR) technological package.

Vijay (2007).

In the research study titled "The Human Organisation: Challenges in NGOs and Development Programmes¹⁹",the author shows how the NGOs and the wider context

of development are intrinsically different from other organisational settings within which Human Resource Development (HRD) is believed to play an important role. The author outlines the basic concepts underpinning human development within organisations, and organisational development, and sets out the arguments for greater investment in people. He goes on to argue that management and specifically HRD are not merely desk-bound activities that can be pursued through the application of protocols and sanctions, but require vision, leadership, and hands-on engagement. He goes on to explain that the common threads that binds both organizational context and NGOs context of development, especially human resource development is creating capabilities, capacity building, empowerment and enhancement of effectiveness of people. The author says that the significance of this observation must form the basis and the starting point for any course on HRD in the development field. We are not addressing HRD in order to achieve such things as operational efficiency, costeffectiveness, the delivery of projects, targets, key results, objectives, and so on, but we regard HRD as integral to sustainable development. Further, since most - if not all - programmes aim to achieve a sustainable development process through communitybased organisations (CBOs), then the task of HRD for NGOs extends from the NGO to the CBOs themselves.

Pearson et, al (2006).

In their research paper *Urban vs. Rural: Human Resource Management in SMEs*²⁰ published in *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal* the authors examine Human resource management (HRM) practices, support systems and personnel profiles in urban and rural enterprises. The investigation is an exploratory descriptive study employing a discussion of the results of a questionnaire. The authors' hypotheses are that urban and rural small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) would differ significantly in HRM practices, support systems, and personnel profiles. The research findings suggest the authors' hypotheses are generally incorrect. The results from the study may advance the concept that technology and information availability have developed equity in HRM activities and functions in both urban and rural enterprises. Moreover, rural firms are performing at a higher level of sophistication and experience in HRM practices, support systems and personnel profiles.

Jayati (2005).

In this research articles titled, "NGOs at World Trade Organisation: The 'Democratic' Dimension" the author examines the relevance and roles of NGOs in the context of the World Trade Organisation's (WTO) gaining importance and influence on the states in the matters of legislative and regulative functions which were in the domains of the nation states. As a result of its influence and policies which are made binding on the nation states, the decision making structures of the states are further removed from the people and their welfare. Hence the author views that there is a democratic deficit in the whole process of decision making and regulatory formations in the globalised world. Hence there is a need to involve the third sector or the global civil society in the decision making process. The author believes that NGOs in great parlance bridge the gap between the affected masses and the international decision making process carried out at WTO. Hence in this paper the author discusses the nature of NGOs relationship with WTO and the pattern of their participation in the ministerial conferences.

The United Nations and its various specialised agencies have engaged NGOs in their functioning although the nature of such engagements differs from agency to agency. For example, ILO, UNICEF and UNDP are working with NGOs at the local level to implement their programmes and disburse funds, while many UN agencies particularly the ECOSOC and UNFPA, have grantedconsultative status to NGOs.As far as an implementation role is concerned, NGOs have become indispensable in the activities of intergovernmental organisations. As per the author's view the rollback of the state from the welfare sectors provided overarching impetus for the increasing role of NGOs. The author goes on to argue that within this paradigm, the operational reasons for increasing the role of NGOs are manifold, the most important of them are: (i) NGOs have technical expertise in their respective field of operation; (ii) NGOs have the advantage of grassroots reach and they stimulate community participation; (iii) They are able to mobilise citizens for developmental efforts, which the state through its bureaucratic apparatus has not been able to do, and thereby serve as an efficient and flexible local delivery mechanism; (iv) NGOs strengthen civil society by contributing to a differentiation of structures and expansion in political participation: (v) They perform an effective advocacy and lobbying function and (vi) Serve an important purpose of representing the marginalised viewpoint.

The author gives some details with regard to the background on the role of NGOs in the WTO. The discussions at the Interim Commission for the Inter-national Trade Organisation (ICITO) set up to negotiate the establishment of ITO, discussed the guidelines for the nature of the involvement of NGOs in ITO. The executive committee of the ICITO made a reference to Article 87, paragraph 2 of the Havana Charter, which stipulated that the ITO "may make suitable arrangements for consultation and cooperation with non-governmental organisations concerned with matters within the scope of this charter". The note by the secretariat to the executive committee underlined that "it is clearly desirable that the ITO should be able to take full advantage of the knowledge and expertise of the non-governmental organisations in these fields".

WTO does not accord NGOs consultative status (as in the UN ECOSOC) nor con-siders them delivery mechanisms (as in UNDP and other UN agencies). Article V (2) of the Marrakesh Agreement stipulates that "the General Council may make appropriate arrangements for consultation and co-operation with NGOs concerned with matters related to those of the WTO". Within this legal framework and to improve transparency and develop communication with NGOs, the General Council of the WTO devised certain 'Guidelines for Arrangements on Relations with NGOs' in 1996. These guidelines recognised" the role NGOs can play to increase the awareness of the public in respect of WTO activities" and hence "contribute to the accuracy and richness of the public debate". The guidelines designated a central role to the WTO secretariat in its direct contacts with NGOs and also as a tool for exchange of ideas between member countries and the NGOs.

The importance of this research paper for this study is that it systematically and factually demonstrates the growing importance and role of the NGOs, especially grassroot NGOs in the international bodies in policy formulations and implementation. They have merited this role because of their knowledge and expertise which comes from their direct involvement in the lives of the under privileged and the marginalised especially in the context of economic liberalization and globalization.

Kelly (2005).

The chief objective of this research²² was to analyze the questions 'Do non-governmental organizations impact the Bretton Woods Institutions, and why or why

not? The hypotheses formulated were to explain change at the BWI which accord with NGO preferences such as response to member States, organizational defense, mission efficiency and institutional redefinition. Systems theories of organization suggest that organizations adapt to pernicious environmental impacts; that is termed as 'organizational defense.' Structural-functional organizational theories suggest organizations adapt for the rational purpose of more efficient mission completion. Finally, interpretive and sociological theories of organization suggest that organizations, like any social institution, may learn from environmental pressures and so redefine their self-understanding. The method is a structured, focused comparative study across this spectrum of indicators of NGO impact. Each institution is mapped against the scale of indicators, with evidence, or the lack, for each indicator presented individually. The means of data collection were (1) a survey, (2) interviews, (3) documentary analysis, and (4) participant observation. The researcher found that the Bank has moved further down the list of indicators of NGO impact than the Fund. The Bank engages NGOs because they improve mission performance and to a lesser degree 'represent' grassroots demands. The Fund, by contrast, is still negotiating the NGO challenge primarily as a public relations exercise

Sajnani (2005)

This paper was presented at the seminar on "Role Of NGOs & Civil Socitey"²³. The researcher studies about the "Disaster Reduction and the Role of NGOs". The study finds that the shift is from a relief centric approach to a multi dimensional endeavor by NGOs involving diverse scientific, engineering, financial and social processes to adopt a multi disciplinary and multi sectoral approach with stress on building up capabilities of community to enable them to work towards their own risk reduction. The role of NGOs in this context therefore assumes added significance. The author says that the role of NGOs include awareness generation, education,training, formation of village level Task Force, Disaster Management Committees and Teams, development of Disaster Management Plans, conduct of mock drills, vulnerability assessment and coordination with Government and non government agencies. The NGOs can play a key role in the immediate aftermath of disasters by extending assistance in rescue and first aid, sanitation and hygiene, damage assessment and assistance to external agencies bringing relief materials. During the post disaster phase, the NGOs can take a lead by providing technical and material support for safe

construction, revival of educational institutions and restoration of means of livelihood and assist the government in monitoring the pace of implementation for various reconstruction and recovery programmes.

Guay, Doh and Sinclair (2004).

This study²⁴ documents the growing influence of NGOs in the realm of socially responsible investing (SRI). Drawing from ethical and economic perspectives on stakeholder management and agency theory, the study develops a framework to understand how and when NGOs will be most influential in shaping the ethical and social responsibility orientations of business using the emergence of SRI as the primary influencing vehicle. The research finds that NGOs have opportunities to influence corporate conduct via direct, indirect, and interactive influences on the investment community, and that the overall influence of NGOs as major actors in socially responsible investment is growing, with attendant consequences for corporate strategy, governance, and social performance.

The main contribution of the research presented here is to model the ways in which NGOs use SRI to try to change the behavior of certain firms. It is clear that NGOs are increasingly influential actors on the political-economic landscape. Their emergence has added a new dimension to corporate governance and disrupted traditional relationships between investors, boards of directors, and corporate officers. As NGOs have grown and matured, both as individual organizations and on a collective level, they have come to occupy an important and influential position in corporate governance and in society.

It is important to emphasize that NGOs have other tools to influence corporate behavior. Some, such as working with firms to devise labor and environmental codes of conduct, are more cooperative in nature than is SRI. Others are more adversarial, and may include negative advertising or media campaigns and lobbying governments to enact regulations or legislation opposed by business. Another area of research is to obtain a better understanding of when NGOs utilize these and SRI related strategies, and their records of success or failure.

Nauro et, al (2004).

The research titled "From Substitution to Complementarity: Some Econometric Evidence on the Evolving NGO-State Relationship in Pakistan"²⁵ investigates the relationship between government policies and quasi-public institutions such as Non-GovernmentalOrganizations (NGOs). In particular, it attempts to identify under which conditions they can act as complements or substitutes. The case of Pakistan is used to motivate three sets of research questions: (a) Is therecredible evidence of government policy failure in Pakistan? (b) If so, have any NGOs emerged in response to this, to act as either complements to or substitutes for policies? (c) What are the key characteristics of any suchNGOs and how might they contribute to overall NGO success? Drawing uponthe experienceof the Aga Khan Rural Support Programin northern Pakistan, the paper uses both qualitative and conometric techniques to help answer these questions.

The authors argue that a Government may learn from the success of institutions and try to emulate their methods in formulating future policy. In doing so, they may well induce these institutions to move away from attempting to substitute for the government and towards a position of complementarity. Thus the nature of the relationship between policies and institutions is not static and, they argue, may well become dynamic. They believe Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) provide the most promising starting point for relationship building since these are quasi-public institutionsthat cannot, by definition, be confounded either with the institutional structure of a certain state or with its policies. Here the authors focus on the Aga Khan Rural Support Program (AKRSP), an NGO operating in the Northern Areas Federal Administrative Zone, a defacto province of Pakistan. The authors logically with ample evidence argue that the severity of the discrepancy, i.e., the large 'gap' between macroeconomic performance and social welfare improvement, creates an environment suitable for the emergence of 'substitution institutions' such as the AKRSP. The authors use AKRSP as an example to answer the above fact and show that the AKRSP has indeed succeeded in ameliorating the results of poor government policies.

Through the case study of the NGO they prove that effort and funds should be devoted to programs that further social capital deepening and thus create a stronger civil society. For those Least Developed Countries' governments that have

experienced policy failure in the past and now wish to 'reform,' the clear policy lesson to be drawn is that for successful institution building, social capital deepening must take place at the grass-roots level. The AKRSP model shows that not only is this possible but that it is achievable at a relatively low cost if the government is so inclined. When the government is incapable of acting, institutions such as the AKRSP can substitute for policy. When the government is willing to act, institutions such as the AKRSP make government intervention more effective by complementing it.

Sangeeta (2004).

This paper titled "The Privatization of Public Interest: Theorizing NGO Discourse in a Neoliberal Era"²⁶ examines recent policy discussions on non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and their central role in the democratization of civil society. The author argues that the policy debate on NGOs exemplifies the conflict between liberalism and socialism, or more specifically between private interest and public good. The contemporary context of neoliberal economic policies and structural adjustment represents a vindication of liberal norms, and the ascendancy of NGOs is theorized in this context. An analysis of recent policy positions on NGOs and their role in promoting governance and development is illustrative of the complex ways in which NGOs, at local and international levels, are being incorporated into the neoliberal model of civil society.

Michael Sarah, (2002).

In the research on *The Role of NGOs in Human Security*²⁷ the researcher finds that the Human security is fundamentally concerned with helping people to deal with unforeseeable threats and sudden downturns, whether international financial crises, environmental disasters or incapacitating illnesses. In this paper the researcher argues that NGOs, as one of the most visible sets of actors in the related fields of human development and human rights, can play a significant role in helping to achieve human security. NGOs are especially well suited to action for human security because of their size and reach, closeness to local populations, willingness to confront the *status quo*, and ability to address transnational threats through coalition-building. While NGOs face many obstacles in reorienting their activities explicitly towards human security, including the cyclical nature of the aid monies on which many of them depend and the high costs of networking, the author argues that the human

security framework will nonetheless attract many NGOs to its approach.

Brian (2000).

The author in his research titled "International NGOs and the challenge of modernity²⁸", analyses the role of national and international NGOs in the context saddening effect of globalization; the human debasement and the marginalised become more marginalised and poor. He considers a unique role for the NGOs in the process of the dialogue for truly free, humane, equitable, and just world.

The author argues that the NGO movement has come as a response to the dissent people have due to the after effects of globalization like violence, dislocation, poverty, economic and social discrimination and a struggle to recover a decent living condition. It is the Citizen's response to their living in an unjust world of inequality and marginalisation. Often the author uses the term "civil society" to mean an NGO, which denotes and connotes a wide range of meanings-refers to the sum of citizens organised into formal and informal associations to contribute to their collective lives and communities and to propose and contest social and economic policies with their fellow citizens, their governments, and the state.

The basic reason for the emergence this phenomenon is seen as the abandonment of government and retreat of the state from its role in social welfare and development which has led local communities to come together to analyse and create their own solutions to the crises they are experiencing. Citizen action, and greater involvement in governance right down to the municipal level, has reached unprecedented heights and is fast becoming one of the most important political realities around the world. As this grassroots organising consolidates, we are now seeing local associations reach out to others in their communities, and beyond to the national, regional, and international level in strategies of mutual support and collaboration on major issues such as ending violence and constructing peace; and corporateaccountability; enforcing government promoting governance, human rights, social equity and economic opportunity; protecting local food security and traditional primary producers; and conserving the natural and cultural environment, including biodiversity. The author says that the focus remains particular, specific, and local; and the strength of community and the impacts of strategies are also local and particular. This is the significance-and the power-of this new civil resurgence called the modern NGOs.

As a positive side of globalization the author sees the Links between citizens, and citizens' groups locally, nationally, regionally, and globally-are increasing. People are no longer satisfied to leave governance to the whim and will of politicians and bureaucrats and local party bosses. We are entering a new age of civil and political accountability. He says that this phenomenon is largely invisible and only beginning to be acknowledged and analysed. People are making huge strides in taking control over their own lives, although much of this activity is happening outside the mainstream consciousness and discourse. It is in this context that voluntary sector agencies have a dynamic contribution to make if we can move beyond our meek and compliant humanitarianism. In this paper the author argues that the role of the voluntary sector must be redefined from the present status of the roles being played 'to ameliorate the worst effects', to care for those who cannot adapt, who are left behind, who 'are not prepared' and in so doing, many in the voluntary sector have become deliverers of (charitable) services, partners of (downsized) government, and handmaidens to the (corporate) philanthropic sector which sponsors charitable activity, often as advertising. We need a renaissance of transformative NGOs. The role of the voluntary sector is to give breath and heart to innovative and alternative ideas for developing and conserving creative, vibrant, tolerant, caring, and dynamic societies. It is a role of nurturing mutual support and social solidarity, of promoting values of social responsibility and reciprocity, of supporting and mobilising citizenship in the interests of the entire community. The author goes on to conclude that the critical and primary role of the international NGO movement should be to initiate and support actions that promote the right of all persons to be fully human and achieve their full creative potential, and to live creatively and actively as citizens in their communities, their countries, and their world. Strengthening the capacity of marginalised people everywhere to influence the social, economic, and political structures that govern their lives should be the central focus of our movement in the early years of this new century.

Gibson (2000).

The purpose of this research²⁹ is to sensitize Political Science and Public Administration theory to the importance of administrative infrastructure — formal and informal rules, regulations, values and instruments — that shape relationships between the state and civil society. It is argued that Political Science and Public Administration has not paid sufficient attention to the influence of values, rules, instruments that organize these relationships. The most popular liberal Canadian Political Science and Public Administration approaches explain relations between the state and civil society in terms of the ability of civil society organizations to influence policy-making processes and institutions through elite accommodation, interest group bargaining, policy communities and networks and consultative mechanisms. Left approaches tend to focus on structural relationships between the state and capital. The researcher contends that within these approaches, the power of institutional values and organizational instruments to establish and maintain the relationship is not adequately addressed.

The study illustrates the importance of administrative infrastructure in organizing and managing relationships between the state and civil society by examining the organizational dynamics of the relationship between the Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) division of the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Canadian Non-Governmental Development Organizations (NGDOs), and NGDOs in the English-speaking Caribbean, who are their partners. Furthermore, the author argues that the influence of administrative infrastructure was so strong that it shaped the nature of the third party relationships Canadian NGDOs developed with NGDOs in the region. Evidence is presented to show how changes to the administrative infrastructure changed these relationships in the areas of decision-making authority, NGDO autonomy and project administration.

Mashinini (2000).

The study³⁰ examined in what ways and to what extent NGOs help students gain access to tertiary education to South Africa. NGOs have supported students financially and otherwise to study in higher or tertiary education. These students were selected in various ways by each organization. Each organization had its own method

and means of support. Of the numerous organizations that provide funding for African students in South Africa, only three were selected for the study. The selection of the three organizations was based on the length of time they have been serving and their size based on the number of students they support per year.

Employing qualitative research methods, this investigation provided an opportunity for deeper and better understanding of the functions and linkages among NGOs, tertiary education institutions, the community, and students. Students were interviewed about the organizations that provided funding for their education, tertiary educational institutions were interviewed about funded students and their organizations, and high school principals were interviewed about their knowledge of the functions of scholarship organizations.

One major implication for further research is the selection of students who receive the funding and their responsibility toward the organizations that funded them. This study provides information that can be used as a stepping stone toward the study of Non-Governmental Organizations by educational reformers, curriculum developers, and policy makers who sure advocating better ways of funding students in tertiary education

Renee (1998).

In this study³¹ the author finds that the local NGOs have become the target of increasing donor funding internationally. Local NGOs are seen as well-positioned to tap into grassroots energies, utilize local capacities and provide a venue to represent the needs and priorities of communities. The researcher suggests that capacity building within local organizations is needed to meet local development needs. This paper-seeks to provide a tool, based on current literature and field research, to provide guidance to donors to assess the institutional capacity of potential local partner organizations. The areas for local NGO development include human resources, organizational culture, the internal operations, accountability, evaluation and external coordination. Local NGOs work at varying capacities, in different sectors at the local level. As local bodies they are well- placed to meet the needs of their communities. They can mobilize people at the local level and reach the disenfranchised groups in the communities. The researcher also finds that there is a tendency to create a "new

development myth" of the unlimited potential of local NGOs. Local NGOs may be hampered by resource restraints, political entanglements, and their own hierarchical issues.

Shelly (1997)

In this article titled, "NGOs and Civil Society: (Un)stated Contradictions". *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 554³², the author argues that the relationship between economic liberalization and export lead growth, on the one hand, and the interests of the poor and petty bourgeoisie, on the other, provides a context for the rapid expansion of the private voluntarysector as well as for a right-wing conservative backlash against changing gender relations. The author shows how efforts by both the expanding NGO sector and the rapprochement between the state and the Jama'at-I-Islami can be traced to institutional decisions and economic changes that have shaped Bangladesh's economy in the context of its integration into processes of global restructuring.

Finally, the autorexplains that the popular view of NGOs as important institutions of economic, social, and political reform camouflages their contradictory relations with both the state and the people they claim to represent.

The states failure to meet these objectives created the conditions for organizing NGOs and other private sector organizations to provide access to credit, skills training, and literacy training that enhance the ability of women and the poor to compete in the market place.

Yianna (1997)

In this article titled "The Changing Role of NGOs in Rural Chile after Democracy". Published in the journal *Bulletin of Latin American Research*, Vol. 16, No. 1,³³ is presented as a case study by Yianna Lambrou of International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, examines how NGOs in rural Chile operated during the dictatorship and how their role changed after the return of democracy. The article states how the NGOs provided a possibility of economic survival for professionals whilst working on alternative proposals to address the socio-economic needs of the poor majority. This case study in Southern Chile illustrates how after the restoration of democracy the NGOs exchanged their altruism

for a more pragmatic, opportunistic and, in some cases, more efficient role as executors of government programmes.

The focus of this paper is part exploration, part explanation and part expose: (1) to explore what the NGOs were doing five years after restoration of democracy, (2) to explain what has happened to them, and what may or needs to happen and (3) to expose a small case study in the South Chile of environmental NGOs functioning in a new post-dictatorship context.

According to this case study, the policies of the military government which neglected and discouraged local development unintentionally encouraged the growth of a complex network of NGOs working in various projects, from human rights and legal services, to agricultural extension and rural or urban development. These institutions not only solved the problem of how to cope with the social needs of the poor who had seen the elimination of state services, but also provided a possibility of economic survival for a class of professionals who now had nowhere to go. The NGOs became a niche for progressive thinking, for informal anti-government networking and for the creative and analytical search for alternative solutions to the country's problems.

The author views that the role of the authoritarian government came under strict scrutiny of the research NGOs and saw that the state largely surrendered its role as the survice provider except some poverty alleviation programmes through job creation targeted at the extremely poor sections of the society. They were carried out without any long term job prospects and without any input from the population. Hence it failed to bring desired results to the targeted people. The people were not enabled to particiapate in the process of development and solve their problems. In short it did not help in creating capabilities in the people. On the other hand the author argues, the international agencies took up the task of investing in human capital rather than providing subsidies for basic needs which enhanced their capabilities.

The NGOs used their strong position assist other institutions such as peasant cooperatives, women's groups, and artesanal fishermen to put together their own development projects and to provide them with the needed technical assistance as well as to help them seek externalfunds. This contributed much in building human capital with enhanced capabilities.

The author explains how when democracy was restored, NGOs had not just survived and in many cases they had thrived and also carved a new role for themselves which they had to renegotiate with the newly-elected democratic government. The accomplishments of NGOs during the Pinochet regime could not be swept away. It became clear during the dictatorship that the state was not the only possible promoter of development. Without the squabbling political parties to deflect attention from the task at hand, NGOs could muster more easily the energy, passion and enthusiasm to dream and execute projects of local and regional development. As a result, NGOs gained experience and became a sustained representational and mobilising voice for democratic forces in the region. After the 1990 election, NGOs immediately began to play a prominent role in government and the author confirms the autonomy of NGOs, their commitment to and participation in development, and the legitimacy of private channels of international cooperation.

The dis-involvement of the state apparatus in the welfare of its citizens opened a newchapter in NGO-government relations. NGOs became more innovative, more creative, and certainly more involved than the government bureaucracy in analysing and interpreting local development needs. What began as a survival mechanism became with time, a rationed and permanent response to democratic development and local initiative.

The author concludes that from her research of the NGOs in the south, that in spite of the opportunism and shift to more pragmatic approaches of development, NGOs have a role to play as partners with local governments. Their experience is an asset, as is their commitment to the grassroots, their adaptability to changing conditions and their willingness to change so as to better serve the the success will depend on how this will actually evolve.

This research paper is relevant to the present study for following reasons. The author has been successful in proving that the NGOs in Chile became independent promoters of development and the state was not the only promoter of development. Secondly, the biggest contribution NGOs has been their commitment to the grassroots communities, the poor, and their capacity to interpret their needs to more distant agencies and governments. Thirdly, the research paper demonstrates that the NGOs have contributed to shaping local and national policy. In many cases, they have greatly influenced their international donors' understanding of local needs by urging

them to lobby international bodies and governments on their behalf. Thus, in many ways they have helped to shape the international aid policies of developed countries.

മ്മ

1

- Vatamanescu, Elena-Madalina; Pînzaru, Florina; Anghel, Lucian Claudiu.(2014). A Managerial Perspective on Common Identity-Based and Common Bond-Based Groups in Non-Governmental Organizations.Patterns of Interaction, Attachment and Social Network Configuration.Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy 2.2. pp. 265-282.
- Yagub, Abdallah I A. (2014). Collaboration between Government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Delivering Curative Health Services in North Darfur State, Sudan- a National ReportIranian Journal of Public Health 43.5 pp. 561-571.
- Hassan, Azizul; Forhad, Ahmed. (2013). Contributions of the Non Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh Are They Merely a Hegemony of Tagging 'Sustainability'?. Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review 2.9 pp. 14-26.
- Sitek, Anna. (2013). Economic and Social Development. Pp. 807-813. Varazdin: Development and Entrepreneurship Agency
- ⁹ Farhad Analoui, Akram, Samour; (2012). "Strategic management: the case of NGOs in Palestine". *Management Research Review*, Vol. 35 No. 6, 2012. pp. 473-489. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Srivastava, Akshay, and Paliwal, Yashi; (January 26, 2014) "Role of NGOs in Developing a Sustainable Environment for the Society: In the Indian Context". International Journal of Sustainable Development, Vol. 06, No. 08, pp. 11-20.

² Chimiak, Galia. (2014). The Rise and Stall of Non-Governmental Organizations in Development. Polish Sociological Review, 185 Warsaw: Polish Sociological Association. pp. 25-44.

Dyke, Elizabeth; Edwards, Nancy; McDowell, Ian; Muga, Richard; Brown, Stephen.(2014). Shaped by asymmetrical interdependence: a qualitative case study of the external influences on international non-governmental organizations' implementation of equity principles in HIV/AIDS work. International Journal for Equity in Health, 13:86.

⁴Maria Svidronova (2014). Comparison of Development of Non-governmental Organizations and the Current State of Their Funding inReview Of Economic Perspectives VOL. 14, ISSUE 3, 2014, pp. 267–286.

Ismail, Muhammad. (2012). Study on the Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Imparting Primary Education in Pakistan Dr. Hameed-Ur-Rehman. Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research In Business 4.1 (May 2012). Pp. 751-769

Islam, M Rezaul; Morgan, W John.(2012). Agents of Community Empowerment? The Possibilities and Limitations of Non-Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh. Journal of Community Positive Practices, 12.4 pp. 703-725.

- Duru, Annie N. (2011). Understanding Men's Interference in Women's Empowerment and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Nigeria: A Gender Comparison Howard University.
- Godwin, Awio, Deryl, Northcott & Stewart Lawrence; (2011). "Social capital and accountability in grass-roots NGOs: The case of the Ugandan community-ledHIV/AIDS initiative". *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal* Vol. 24 No. 1, 2011 pp. 63-92. EmeraldGroup Publishing Limited.
- Armando Paulo; Ferreira Loureiro; Artur Fernando; Arêde Correia Cristóvao' (2010). "The Official Knowledge and Adult education Agents: An Ethnographic Study of the Adult Education Team of a Local Development- Oriented Nongovernmental Organization in North of Portugal". Adult Education Quarterly 60(5)Pp. 419-437. Sage Publications.
- Nikkhah, Hedayat, Allah, & Redzuan, Ma'rof; (2010). The role of NGOs in promoting empowerment for sustainable community development. Journal of Human Ecology, 30 (2). pp. 85-92. ISSN 0970-9274
- Chalhoub, Michel Soto. (2009). The Effect of Management Practices on Corporate Performance: An Empirical Study of Non-Governmental Organizations in the Middle East. International Journal of Management, 26.1. Poole: United Kingdom. pp. 51-76.
- Bradaschia, Leila M. (2008). Non-Governmental Organizations and Public Primary Education in Nicaragua. Ann Arbor: United States.
- Jessica R. Goldberger. (2008). Non-governmental organizations, strategic bridge building, and the "scientization" of organic agriculture in Kenya. Agriculture and Human Values (2008) 25.Pp. 271–289. Springer 2007 (Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, USA)
- Vijay Padaki. (2007). "The Human Organisation: Challenges in NGOs and Development Programmes". Development in Practice, Vol. 17, No.1. pp. 65-77. Published by Taylor & Francis Ltd.
- Pearson, Terry R; Stringer, Donna Y; Mills, LaVelle H; &Summers, David F. (2006). "Urban vs. Rural: human resource management in SMES". Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal 12.2.PP.29-46.
- ²¹ Jayati Srivastava; (2005). "NGOs at World Trade Organisation: The 'Democratic' Dimension" *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 40, No. 19 (May 7-13, 2005). pp.1952-1957. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Kelly, Robert Edwin. (2005).' A lot more than the NGOs seem to think': The impact of Non-governmental organizations on the Bretton Woods Institutions. The Ohio State University.
- Sajnani, M. P. (2005); 'Disaster Reduction and the Role of NGOs,' Session 5 on Role of NGOs and Civil Society.

- Guay, Terrence; Doh, Jonathan P; Sinclair, Graham. (2004). Non-governmental Organizations, Shareholder Activism, and Socially Responsible Investments: Ethical, Strategic, and Governance Implications. Journal of Business Ethics 52.1. Dordrecht: Springer Science & Business Media. pp. 125-139.
- Nauro F. Campos, Feisal U. Khan, Jennifer E. Tessendorf; (2004) "From Substitution to Complementarity: Some Econometric Evidence on the Evolving NGO-State Relationship in Pakistan". *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 37, No. 2. 2004. pp. 49-72. Published by: College of Business, Tennessee State University
- Sangeeta Kamat. (2004). "The Privatization of Public Interest: Theorizing NGO Discourse in a Neoliberal Era". Review of International Political Economy, Vol. 11, No. 1 (Feb., 2004), pp. 155-176. Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Michael, Sarah; (2002). The Role of NGOs in Human Security Hauser Center for Nonprofit Organizations Working Paper No. 12.
- Brian K. Murphy; (2000). "International NGOs and the challenge of modernity". *Development in Practice*, Volume 10, Numbers 3/4, August 2000, GB: Taylor and Francis Ltd. pp. 330-347.
- Gibson, Patrick E. (2000). Non-governmental development organizations and the state, 1968—1993. Canada: Carleton University.
- Mashinini, Mkhize Timothy. (2000). The role of non-governmental organizations in helping African students gain access to tertiary education in South Africa. United States: Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company.
- Mittman, Juliane Renee. (1998). Building from the bottom up: A user's guide to the capacity building of local non-governmental organizations
- Shelly, Feldman; (1997). "NGOs and Civil Society: (Un)stated Contradictions". *Annals of theAmerican Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 554. pp. 46-65. Sage Publications.
- ³³ Yianna, Lambrou; (1997). "The Changing Role of NGOs in Rural Chile after Democracy". *Bulletin of Latin American Research*, Vol. 16, No. 1, (1997), pp. 107-116. Published by: Blackwell Publishing.

Chapter III

Research Methodology

3.1 Methods Adopted for the Study

This study aimed at assessing and identifying the effectiveness of the interventions of NGOs in the rural areas of Sitapur district. Mainly assessing how much their operations in the rural sector help in creating capabilities of the populations and contribute to the development of the human resource. An interview schedule was prepared for this purpose, which was administered with the help of the volunteers of NGOs in order to explain to the beneficiaries regarding its content and meaning.

In this chapter a methodological exposition of the study is presented and specific methods adopted to this study are discussed.

A thorough study was also conducted on the selected non-governmental organizations, its vision, mission, specific objectives and values. The operations, functioning and the activities of the NGOs also were subjected to analysis, evaluation and scrutiny so that the researcher obtains a more in-depth knowledge about them and the nature of their activities. This also helped the researcher to construct suitable tool for the collection of information which are more realistic and reliable.

3.2 Tools and Techniques Used for the Study

The researcher conducted the investigation using a tool so that hypothesis could be tested and objectives of the research accomplished. The researcher had the choice of constructing appropriate tool that could yield information of the kind and in the form that can be most effectively used. The main objective of the present study was to identify the impact and effectiveness of the interventions and training of the NGOs and how far their interventions contribute to the human capital development or the development of the human resources in the rural areas. The researcher edited and adopted the perception analysis tool on the pattern of Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (LEQ) of James Neill (2006) which is used to measure the effectiveness of different interventions in the lives of participants from the beginning 1990s to 2006; especially it was used to measure the outcome of the effectiveness of

the outdoor educational and training programmes in Australia. It was modified and edited keeping in mind the nature of the population and in accordance with relevance and objectives of the study, and tested for validity and reliability.

3.2.1 Description of the Tools and Techniques

The inquiry form that attempts to assess the perception or belief of an individual is known as an opinionnaire or perception analysis scale. A perception analysis scale consists of a number of items, which are selected on the basis of certain criteria. The items used in the perception analysis scale are called statements.

3.2.2 The Factors Selected for the Research Tool

As the researcher was conducting the research in a different environment the research tool was edited and few additional factors were included to gather comprehensive information about the quality of life being affected in the rural areas through the interventions of the NGOs. As a preparation for a multi-item scale first of all a preliminary study about the existing tools and methods were made. The researches conducted by Marco, Grasso & Luciano, Canova, (2007), Peishan Liao (2008) and Robert L Grant& Ann Bowling (2011) deals in details about the factors education, health, security, economic development etc. that contribute to the quality of life of the people. After the preliminary study a detailed discussion with the organizations, which are under study, was made. The researcher also made a detailed examination of the secondary data and published reports about the activities and interventions of the NGOs. The researcher then proceeded to consult the experts from the academic as well as social sector to elicit their views in constructing the multi-item scale. The discussions and preliminary studies were necessary for collecting relevant information for the preparation of the perception analysis scale.

After considering the nature, environment, the ability and education of the rural population to understand express their opinion and considering the preliminary analysis and studies, the researcher constructed a multi item scale with different kinds of statements and questions with the above-mentioned pattern of Life Effectiveness Questionnaire.

In the light of the above said discussions and studies following aspects and factors were included in the multi-item scale.

Table 3.1: The Factors (Dimensions) of Research

LEQ Dimensions	Descriptions
Achievement Motivation	The extent to which the individual is motivated to achieve excellence and put the required effort into action to attain it.
Active Initiative	The extent to which the individual likes to initiate action in new situations.
Emotional Control	The extent to which the individual perceives he/she maintains emotional control when he/she is faced with potentially stressful situations.
Intellectual Flexibility	The extent to which the individual perceives he/she can adapt his/her thinking and accommodate new information from changing conditions and different perspectives.
Self Confidence	The degree of confidence the individual has in his/her abilities and the success of their actions.
Social Competence	The degree of personal confidence and self-perceived ability in social interactions.
Education	The extent to which one has been able to gain knowledge and Skill and adapt them to life situations
Health	The extent to which one has been able to be more conscious about health and health related problems and the ability to take remedial measures to improve personal as well as health of the family
Economic Security/Development	The extent to which one has been able to gain total welfare by making use of one's skills and knowledge in accordance with the opportunities available
Livelihood	The extent to which households or individuals create and use diverse activities, assets, accesses and social support capabilities for survival to improve their standard of living
Task Leadership	The extent to which the individual perceives he/she can lead other people effectively when a task needs to be done and productivity is the primary requirement.
Time Management	The extent that an individual perceives that he/she makes optimum use of time.

Table 3.2: Summary Design of the Data Collection Tool

CI			Nu	mber of S	Statement	S
Sl. No	Factors	Description of Factors	Open Ended	Rating Scale	Multi Choice	Total
1	Demographic Profile	Name Age Gender Religion Caste Marital Status Education Employment Status			12	12
		Kinds of Employment NGOs Role in Employment Income Source of Income				
		Time Management		3		3
		Social competence		3		3
		Achievement Motivation		3		3
		Intellectual Flexibility		3		3
	Effectiveness	Task Leadership		3		3
	of	Emotional control		3		3
2	Interventions	Active Initiative		3		3
_	in Individual	Self Confidence		3		3
	Lives	Education & Skill Development		3		3
		Economic Development		3		3
		Improvement in Health		3		3
		Improvement in Livelihood and Welfare		3		3

A total of fifty-seven statements were constructed to elicit the information from the respondents. Among fifty-seven statements, twelve statements were set apart for the gathering of information regarding the demographic profile of the respondents. Fourty-five statements were allotted to gather information on the effectiveness of the NGOs intervention in the lives of the rural population and the changes in the perception and attitude of the rural population. The statements included multiple choice statements and statements in the pattern of Likert rating scale.

3.2.3 Standardization of the Multi-Item Scale

Various procedures were adopted to standardize the scale for information gathering. The procedures are given below:

Scrutiny by the Panel of Experts

All the statements were scrutinized by the panel of experts from the field of NGOs and academicians from the field of social sciences including human resource management.

Item Analysis

As the second part of the standardization of the scale an item analysis, which is a set of procedures, was conducted to know the indices for the truthfulness (validity) of items in the scale. This was done with a purpose eliminate, modify and select the most suitable items for the scale to in order that the researcher can obtain valid and reliable information in accordance with the objectives of the research. In brief it can be said that item analysis demonstrates how effectively a given test item functions within the total set. The item analysis indicates which items are difficult, easy moderately difficult or moderately easy. It also provides indices of the ability of the item to discriminate between inferior and superior (A K Singh, 1997).

After conducting the item analysis the weak items were dispensed with. After this 48 statements were selected which had gained value greater than or equal to 3.

After the standardization procedure, the multi-scale for gathering information included twelve multiple choice statements regarding the demographic profile of the respondents and thirty six statements in the pattern of Likert rating scale to gather information regarding the effectiveness of the interventions of the NGOs and the resulting changes in the perception of the respondents.

Reliability

An instrument for the data collection must be reliable in the sense that, it must have the ability to consistently yield the same results when repeated measurements are taken under the same conditions. In this research the reliability coefficient was tested using the Cronbach's Alpha in the SPSS. The test showed the following result for the reliability of the scale.

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.985	.985	36

Validity of Multi-Scale

Validity refers to the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretation of test scores entailed by the proposed uses of the tests. In other words it relates to the attributes of the test and the uses to which it is put. The scale scrutinized for the content validity. Content validity is the extent to which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. If the instrument contains a representative sample of the universe, the content validity is good. Its determination is primarily judgmental and intuitive. It can also be determined using a panel of persons who shall judge how well the measuring instrument meets the standards. This perception analysis scale has been constructed with the expertise of the eminent guides and based on the knowledge of the research books and research on the subjects.

3.3 The Sampling Procedure

In order to determine the sampling frame the researcher conducted a preliminary enquiry about the number of registered Non Governmental Organizations in the district of Sitapur. The data obtained from the office of the sub-registrar for societies and chit funds, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh revealed that there were around 132 registered NGOs in the district of Sitapur on paper. The close scrutiny of the list and the field enquiry showed that there were only very few NGOs who are active in the field. The active NGOs were of different nature, kind and with varying objectives with regard to their operations. The researcher concentrated on the developmental NGOs who were in the field for about 10 years in operation and service.

After a close analysis of the existing developmental NGOs the researcher selected three main developmental NGOs who have got proper office and administrative setup and personnel and who are very actively involved in developmental activities in specific areas. After narrowing down the NGOs and selecting three NGOs who are very active in the field for more than 10 years the researcher selected three NGOs for the purpose of the study. The researcher to finalize the sampling frame obtained the lists of beneficiaries from the NGOs. Hence the Sampling Frame consisted of the list of beneficiaries provided by the three NGOs selected for the study.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling technique was used to select the sample from the given list of beneficiaries of the respective NGOs. The researcher selected a total of 600 respondents from the beneficiaries of the three NGOs chosen for the study.

The beneficiaries are the population who have the part of the three NGOs interventions and who whole heartedly cooperate with their developmental activities in the field of education, health, skill training, livelihood programmes and social skills programmes.

3.5 Collection of Data

Since the respondents were of the rural population it was difficult for the researcher to leave the data collection tool unexplained to the respondents. Hence the researcher prepared the statements in the form of an interview schedule so that the information could be collected personally by explaining each statement to the respondents with the help of the volunteers of the respective NGOs. This was necessary for ensuring accuracy of the information collected.

3.6 Scoring Pattern

3.6.1 Demographic Profile

The demographic profile consisted of twelve simple multiple choice statements regarding the age, gender, education and employment status etc. The respondents were asked to put a mark on each of the options given as per their individual opinion and status of life.

3.6.2 Perception Analysis

The Perception Analysis Tool uses an 8-point Likert rating scale. Each respondents were asked to rate the score as per their individual evaluation. Each statement of the perception analysis tool was divided into two parts on an equal scoring pattern; the first part, was devoted to express the status of the respondents regarding their knowledge and attitude before they came into contact with the respective NGOs or before involving themselves with the activities of the NGOs. Consequently the second part of each statement was set apart to give their opinion regarding the changes they experience in their lives and attitudes after the interventions of the NGOs.

3.6.2.1 Methodology for the Calculation of the Range of Impact

For the ease of calculation of the eight-point scale the researcher constructed the index of values expressing the true level of achievement. It is a summery measure of impact analysis and it measures the average value level in the achievement. The range of impact due to the interventions of the NGOs is expressed as a value between 0 and 1 by calculation of the obtained value of the respondents using the formula:

$$Achievement = \frac{(Score - Minimum Score)}{(Maximum Score - Minimum Score)}$$

The calculated value of each respondent for all the dimensions of the research was classified into different (five) scale (achievement level). The table below shows the classification of the impact (effectiveness) level on the respondents due to the interventions of the NGOs.

3.7 The Organization and Analysis of the Data

The study has used the beneficiary household of the respondents to analyze the impact of the programme participation (NGO intervention).

The use of any statistical method for analyzing the data is based on the objectives of the study, the hypothesis to be tested and the type of available statistical data to be analyzed to answer the research questions. When data is not normally distributed, the cause for non-normality should be determined and appropriate remedial actions should be taken.

In the case of present study a careful analysis of the obtained data was conducted and it was found that the obtained data was not normally distributed, as there were too many instances of extreme values. Too many extreme values in a data set will result in a skewed distribution. In some cases normality of data can be achieved by cleaning the data. The data was also not normally distributed for the reason that the process has many values close to zero which causes the data distribution to skew to the left. Hence an appropriate method had to be adopted for the not normally distributed data to test the hypothesis.

3.7.1 Normality of Data

Before analyzing the data, the study tried to see the nature of the data, i.e., whether it is parametric or non-parametric in nature. This is an important consideration as the tests to be applied changes with the nature of the data. The meaning of the parametric data and nonparametric data has been discussed below.

In the development of modern statistical' methods, the first techniques of inference which appeared were those that made a good many assumptions about the nature of the populations from which the observations or data were drawn. These statistical techniques are called parametric and such data as parametric data (Siegel and Castellan, Jr., 1988, p.2). One can also come across data for which the assumption regarding population does not hold well. Such data are known as nonparametric data and tests, which use such data, nonparametric tests, or distribution-free/assumption-free tests. If one applies parametric tests on nonparametric data, the results are prone to error.

Most parametric tests based on the normal distribution have four basic assumptions that must be met for test to be accurate. For data to be parametric, they need to fulfill following four assumptions (Field, 2005, p. 64).

(i) Normally Distributed Data

It is assumed that the data are from one or more normally distributed populations. The parametric tests are based on the mathematical equations that originate from a normal distribution.

(ii) Homogeneity of Variance

This assumption means that the variances should be same throughout the data. In research designs where one tests several groups of participants this assumption means that each of these samples comes from populations with same variance.

(iii) Interval Data

This assumption requires that the data should be measured at least at the interval scale. An interval scale implies that the distance between points on the scale should be equal at all parts along the scale. In other words, the distance between 2 and 5 is three and that between 6 and 9 would also be three. All the points on the scale are equidistant.

(iv) Independence

This assumption is that data from different participants are independent, which means that the behaviour of one participant does not influence the behaviour of another. In repeated-measures design, one expects the scores in experimental condition to be non-independent or a given participant, but behaviour between different participants should be the same.

3.7.2 Verifying the Nature of the Test Data

First of all, an attempt was made to test the assumption of normally distributed data. For this, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test was used. The one-sample K-S test compares the empirical distribution function with the cumulative distribution function specified by the null hypothesis. The main applications are testing goodness of fit with the normal and uniform distributions. For normality testing, minor improvements made by Lilliefors lead to the Lilliefors test. In general the Shapiro-Wilk test or Anderson-Darling test are more powerful alternatives to the Lilliefors test for testing normality.

The K-S test compares the scores in a sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and the standard deviation. If the test is non-significant (p>0.05), it means that the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e., it is probably normal). If, however, the test is significant (<0.05), then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (i.e., it is non-normal) (Field, 2005, p. 93).

Following are the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test in the table below:

Table 3.3: Tests for Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov*		Shap	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
	Before	0.092	600	0.000	0.950	600	0.000
Overall Factor	After	0.092	600	0.000	0.961	600	0.000
	Change	0.087	600	0.000	0.970	600	0.000
	Before	0.130	600	0.000	0.947	600	0.000
Time Management	After	0.103	600	0.000	0.973	600	0.000
	Change	0.097	600	0.000	0.984	600	0.000
	Before	0.125	600	0.000	0.961	600	0.000
Social Competence	After	0.114	600	0.000	0.964	600	0.000
	Change	0.080	600	0.000	0.982	600	0.000
	Before	0.127	600	0.000	0.943	600	0.000
Achievement Motivation	After	0.095	600	0.000	0.968	600	0.000
	Change	0.100	600	0.000	0.979	600	0.000
	Before	0.117	600	0.000	0.956	600	0.000
Intellectual Flexibility	After	0.110	600	0.000	0.963	600	0.000
	Change	0.082	600	0.000	0.988	600	0.000
	Before	0.115	600	0.000	0.952	600	0.000
Task Leadership	After	0.098	600	0.000	0.971	600	0.000
	Change	0.089	600	0.000	0.983	600	0.000

Contd...

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov*			Shap	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.	
	Before	0.139	600	0.000	0.951	600	0.000	
Emotional Control	After	0.100	600	0.000	0.968	600	0.000	
	Change	0.089	600	0.000	0.985	600	0.000	
	Before	0.101	600	0.000	0.956	600	0.000	
Active Initiative	After	0.110	600	0.000	0.964	600	0.000	
	Change	0.079	600	0.000	0.989	600	0.000	
	Before	0.120	600	0.000	0.958	600	0.000	
Self Confidence	After	0.119	600	0.000	0.959	600	0.000	
	Change	0.076	600	0.000	0.986	600	0.000	
	Before	0.124	600	0.000	0.958	600	0.000	
Education	After	0.107	600	0.000	0.969	600	0.000	
	Change	0.104	600	0.000	0.975	600	0.000	
	Before	0.106	600	0.000	0.955	600	0.000	
Health	After	0.112	600	0.000	0.964	600	0.000	
	Change	0.080	600	0.000	0.977	600	0.000	
	Before	0.113	600	0.000	0.951	600	0.000	
Economic Development	After	0.105	600	0.000	0.968	600	0.000	
	Change	0.100	600	0.000	0.983	600	0.000	
	Before	0.111	600	0.000	0.947	600	0.000	
Livelihood Security	After	0.115	600	0.000	0.956	600	0.000	
	Change	0.092	600	0.000	0.977	600	0.000	

Note: Change = Before–After; * Lilliefors Significance Correction

As it is evident from the above table, all the relevant data in the study (for doing the test of significance of change) were non-normal since both the tests (i.e., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test) came out to be significant at 0.05 level of significance.

The Study further proceeded to test for the homogeneity of Variance (i.e., the variances should be the same throughout the data). The Levene's test was used for the purpose.

Levene's test is an inferential statistic used to assess the equality of variance in different samples. Levene's test tests the assumption that the variances in the groupsare equal (i.e., the difference between the variances is zero). It tests the null hypothesis that the population variances are equal. Therefore, if Levene's test is significant at $p \le 0.05$ then one can conclude that the null hypothesis was incorrect and that the variances are significantly different. If, however, Levene's test is non-significant (i.e., $p \ge 0.05$) then one must accept the null hypothesis that the difference

between the variances is zero. The results from Levene's test for the studydata as below:

Table 3.4: Test of the Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene	df1	df2	Sig.
		Statistic			_
Overall Factor	Based on Mean	6.635	1	598	0.010
(Before the	Based on Median	5.008	1	598	0.026
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5.008	1	592.207	0.026
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	6.536	1	598	0.011
Overell Feeter (After	Based on Mean	1.218	1	598	0.270
Overall Factor (After the intervention of	Based on Median	2.331	1	598	0.127
NGOs)	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.331	1	573.636	0.127
NGOS)	Based on trimmed mean	1.902	1	598	0.168
Time Management	Based on Mean	6.113	1	598	0.014
(Before the	Based on Median	5.984	1	598	0.015
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5.984	1	588.445	0.015
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	6.240	1	598	0.013
Time Management	Based on Mean	0.029	1	598	0.865
(After the	Based on Median	0.543	1	598	0.461
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	0.543	1	545.851	0.461
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	0.118	1	598	0.731
Social Competence	Based on Mean	5.851	1	598	0.016
(Before the	Based on Median	6.626	1	598	0.010
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	6.626	1	597.903	0.010
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	5.900	1	598	0.015
Social Competence	Based on Mean	5.740	1	598	0.017
(After the	Based on Median	8.145	1	598	0.004
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	8.145	1	566.883	0.004
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	7.856	1	598	0.005
Achievement	Based on Mean	5.909	1	598	0.015
Motivation (Before	Based on Median	6.701	1	598	0.010
the intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	6.701	1	597.377	0.010
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	5.974	1	598	0.015
Achievement	Based on Mean	0.014	1	598	0.906
Motivation (After the	Based on Median	0.283	1	598	0.595
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	0.283	1	568.73	0.595
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	0.159	1	598	0.690
Intellectual	Based on Mean	5.280	1	598	0.022
Flexibility (Before	Based on Median	6.866	1	598	0.009
the intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	6.866	1	597.314	0.009
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	5.630	1	598	0.018
Intellectual	Based on Mean	0.000	1	598	0.990
Flexibility (After the	Based on Median	0.155	1	598	0.694
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	0.155	1	559.68	0.694
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	0.109	1	598	0.741

Contd...

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Task Leadership	Based on Mean	7.144	1	598	0.008
(Before the	Based on Median	7.276	1	598	0.007
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	7.276	1	596.155	0.007
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	7.642	1	598	0.006
Task Leadership	Based on Mean	0.017	1	598	0.895
(After the	Based on Median	0.492	1	598	0.483
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	0.492	1	574.36	0.483
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	0.107	1	598	0.744
Emotional Control	Based on Mean	3.118	1	598	0.078
(Before the	Based on Median	3.272	1	598	0.071
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.272	1	596.194	0.071
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	3.196	1	598	0.074
Emotional Control	Based on Mean	2.364	1	598	0.125
(After the	Based on Median	3.901	1	598	0.049
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.901	1	588.568	0.049
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	3.344	1	598	0.068
Active Initiative	Based on Mean	2.984	1	598	0.085
(Before the	Based on Median	2.978	1	598	0.085
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	2.978	1	591.119	0.085
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	3.331	1	598	0.068
Active Initiative	Based on Mean	3.423	1	598	0.065
(After the	Based on Median	6.216	1	598	0.013
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	6.216	1	574.97	0.013
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	4.984	1	598	0.026
Self Confidence	Based on Mean	3.637	1	598	0.057
(Before the	Based on Median	3.051	1	598	0.081
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.051	1	597.994	0.081
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	3.945	1	598	0.047
Self Confidence	Based on Mean	0.608	1	598	0.436
(After the	Based on Median	1.864	1	598	0.173
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1.864	1	576.552	0.173
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	1.534	1	598	0.216
E1 (D. f.	Based on Mean	11.362	1	598	0.001
Education (Before	Based on Median	10.983	1	598	0.001
the intervention of NGOs)	Based on Median and with adjusted df	10.983	1	590.911	0.001
NGOS)	Based on trimmed mean	11.454	1	598	0.001
E1 (AC	Based on Mean	3.793	1	598	0.052
Education (After the	Based on Median	5.213	1	598	0.023
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5.213	1	595.306	0.023
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	5.042	1	598	0.025
II 14 /D C 4	Based on Mean	14.295	1	598	0.000
Health (Before the	Based on Median	16.506	1	598	0.000
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	16.506	1	597.95	0.000
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	15.371	1	598	0.000
TT 1/1 / A.C. /1	Based on Mean	2.142	1	598	0.144
Health (After the	Based on Median	3.115	1	598	0.078
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3.115	1	596.782	0.078
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	2.878	1	598	0.090

Contd...

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Economic	Based on Mean	22.289	1	598	0.000
Development (Before	Based on Median	19.858	1	598	0.000
the intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	19.858	1	586.966	0.000
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	22.777	1	598	0.000
Economic	Based on Mean	0.139	1	598	0.709
Development (After	Based on Median	0.554	1	598	0.457
the intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	0.554	1	596.28	0.457
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	0.334	1	598	0.564
Livelihood Security	Based on Mean	30.871	1	598	0.000
(Before the	Based on Median	24.875	1	598	0.000
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	24.875	1	594.744	0.000
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	30.623	1	598	0.000
Livelihood Security	Based on Mean	11.723	1	598	0.001
(After the	Based on Median	4.426	1	598	0.036
intervention of	Based on Median and with adjusted df	4.426	1	514.241	0.036
NGOs)	Based on trimmed mean	9.133	1	598	0.003

Thus, it was found that the variances in data for the variables 'before' and 'after' were significantly different from homogeneity. The variance for the variable 'change' was zero (as the Levene's test was non-significant for it).

Our above exercise including the tests for Normality of data and test for the Homogeneity of variance led us to conclude that the studydata are non-parametric. So the study used Non-Parametric tests for further analysis. The Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test'is used.

3.7.3 Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test is used in situations in which there are two sets of scores to compare but these scores come from the same participants (Field, 2005, p.534). It is non-parametric equivalent of the dependent (or repeated measures) t-test. In it, the same participants are measured twice: once in a control condition and once in an experimental condition. Thus, the same group acts as its control group and experimental group. The process of calculating Wilcoxon signed-ranks test is as following:

Step 1: Calculation and Ranking of Differences in Two Conditions

The differences in scores for the two conditions for each participant are calculated. Now, these differences are ranked ignoring the sign.

Step 2: Finding Sum of Ranks

Now the positive and negative scores are separated. First, we collect together the ranks that come from positive differences and add them up to get the sum of positive scores. This sum is labeled as T: Similarly, the ranks coming from negative differences are also summed up to yield T. The test statistic, T, is the smaller of the two values.

Step 3: Finding the P-value

To do this one need to know the value for T and the sample size. For the test result to be statistically significant, the value of T must be below the critical value given in the table for the probability of Rank test.

The entire process and analysis of data was conducted in the SPSS software.

മെയ

Chapter IV

Results and Discussions

The chief objective of the research was to see how the NGOs working in the district of Sitapur, one of the least developed districts of India are contributing to the enhancement of human capabilities by way of their effective interventions. The study positively shows that the interventions and investment by the NGOs in the field of health, livelihood, education, skill development and interpersonal skills in the rural areas contribute to human development and building up of human capabilities or development of human capital/resources. This chapter analyses in detail the nature and constitution of the population selected for the study and the results of the research conducted.

Section I: Demographic Characteristics

4.1 NGO, Religion, Caste, Age, Gender and Marital Status-wise Distribution of Selected Beneficiaries

The Population selected for the research is the beneficiaries of the three main NGOs; Jeevan Jyoti Community Centre, World Vision India and Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan. As shown in the table, two hundred beneficiaries each NGOs under study was selected from the beneficiaries list provided by the NGOs.

Table 4.1: NGO-wise Distribution of Selected Beneficiary

	Particulars	Number	Percent
	Jeevan Jyoti Community Centre	200	33.3
Name of NGO	World Vision India	200	33.3
	Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan	200	33.3
Total		600	100.0

The beneficiaries belonged to different religion and caste. 88.7 percent of the respondents were Hindus, 11 percent Muslims and 2 percent belonged to Sikh religion. Among them 24.5 percent respondents belonged to general category, 26. 5 percent to Other Backward Castes (OBC), 35.8 percent Scheduled Caste (SC) and 13.2 percent belonged to Scheduled Tribe (ST).

Table 4.2: Religion and Caste-wise Distribution of Beneficiary

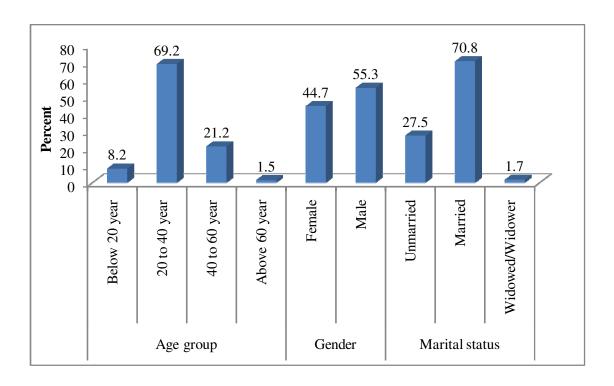
	Particulars	Number	Percent
	Hindu	532	88.7
Religion	Muslim	66	11.0
	Sikh	2	0.3
	General	147	24.5
Castes	OBC	159	26.5
Castes	SC	215	35.8
	ST	79	13.2
Total		600	100.0

Majority of the respondents belonged to the age category between 20 and 40 years. 415 (69.2 percent) respondents belonged to this category. 8.2 percent of the respondents were below twenty years of age and 21.2 percent belonged to the category of age between 40 and 60 years. Only nine respondents (1.5 percent) belonged to the category of age above 60 years.

The female respondents were 44.7 percent (268 respondents) and male 332 respondents (55.3 percent). Among the respondents 70.8 percent were married (425 persons), 27.5 percent unmarried (165 persons) and 1.7 percent were widowed (10 persons).

Table 4.3: Age, Gender and Marital-wise Distribution of Beneficiary

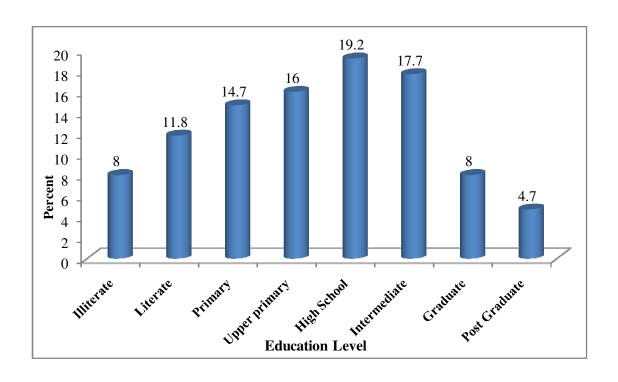
Category	Particulars	Number	Percent
	Below 20 year	49	8.2
Age group	20 to 40 year	415	69.2
	40 to 60 year	127	21.2
	Above 60 year	9	1.5
Gender	Female	268	44.7
Gender	Male	332	55.3
	Unmarried	165	27.5
Marital status	Married	425	70.8
	Widowed/Widower	10	1.7
Total		600	100.0

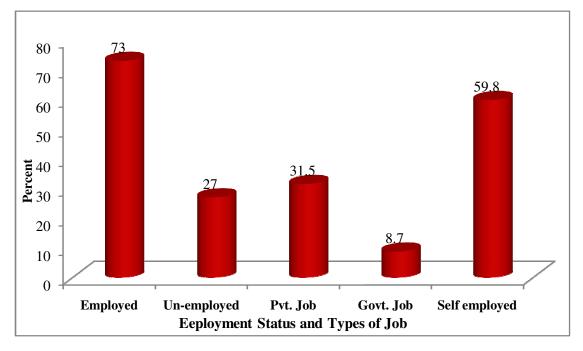


4.2 Educational and Employment Status of the Population under Study

The educational level of the respondents fairly indicates the backwardness of the rural population of a backward district of India, especially of Uttar Pradesh. Only 4.7 percent (28 persons) holds a postgraduate degree. 8 percent (48 persons) of respondents are graduates, 17.7 percent (106 persons) have appeared or passed intermediate examinations, 19. 2 percent (115 persons) appeared or passed the matriculation, 16 percent (96 persons) of the respondents have education up to upper primary and 14.7 percent (88 persons) have education up to primary level. 11. 8 percent (71 persons) of the respondents are just literate, which means they can read and write and 8 percent (48 persons) of the respondents are illiterate.

The employment of status of the rural population primarily reveals the characteristics of rural labour force and the sectors which constitute the rural labour force. Though all of them are fascinated about getting job in public sectors, most of them have to be reconciled with being self employed. As per the data analyzed 73 percent of the respondents were found to be employed and 27 percent unemployed. Among the employed 59.8 percent were self employed (262 persons), 31.5 percent (138 persons) were employed in private jobs and 8.7 percent (38 persons) were employed in public sector.

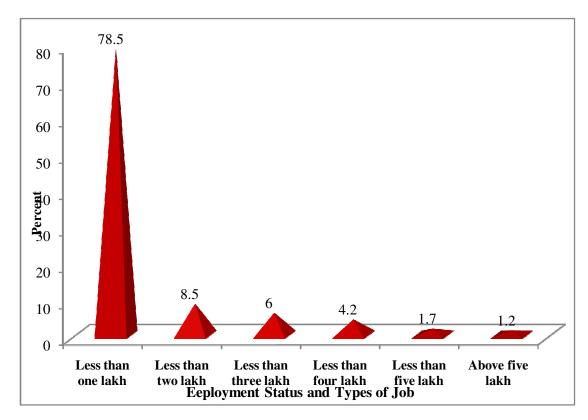




4.3 Economic Status and Source of Income of the Population under Study

The economic security is one of the most important factors for human development. The calculated data shows that in general the income of the rural population is considerably low owing to which much of the development and rural human capital development suffers. 78.5 percent (471 respondents) of the respondents have below one lakh income. Only 1.2 percent (7 respondents) of the total respondents opined that they have an annual income of above five lakh and 1.7 percent (10 respondents) has

an annual income of less than five lakh. Apart from this, 8.5 percent (51 respondents) have income less than two lakh, 6 percent (36 respondents) have income less than three lakh and 4.2 percent (25 respondents) have income less than four lakh.



Agriculture is the main source of income for the rural population. 33.2 percent (199 respondents) state that the main source of their income is agriculture. Another important source of income is from self employment like, poultry, animal husbandry, tailoring and such other income generating activities. 30.2percent (181 respondents) have opined that their source of income is self employment. For 23.7 percent (143 respondents) the source of income is their jobs in the private firms. 6.3 percent (38 respondents) have their source of income the public sector jobs, 2.2 percent (13 respondents) have their source of income small scale business and 4.5 percent (27 respondents) some other livelihood projects as their source of income.

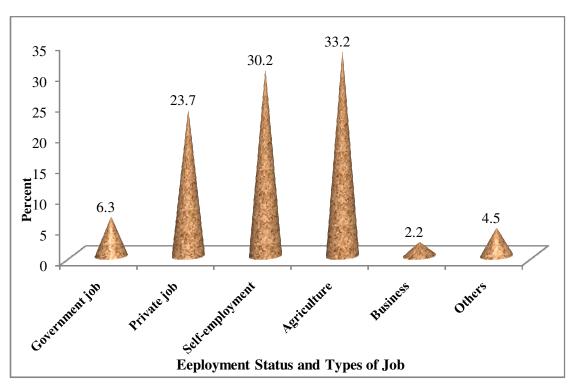


Table 4.4: Education and Occupational Structure of Beneficiary

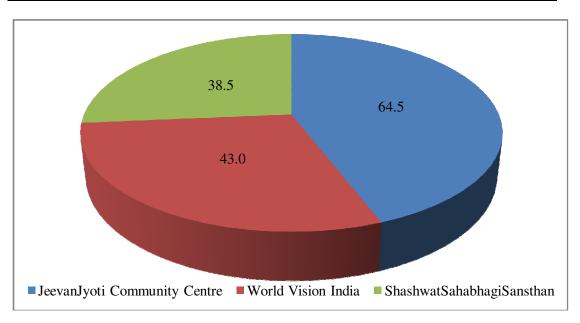
Category	Particulars	Number	Percent
	Illiterate	48	8.0
	Literate	71	11.8
	Primary	88	14.7
Education level	Upper primary	96	16.0
Education level	High School	115	19.2
	Intermediate	106	17.7
	Graduate	48	8.0
	Post Graduate	28	4.7
Employment status	Employed	438	73.0
Employment status	Un-employed	162	27.0
	Pvt. Job	138	31.5
True of int	Govt. Job	38	8.7
Type of job	Self employed	262	59.8
	Total	438	100.0
	Less than one lakh	471	78.5
II	Less than two lakh	51	8.5
Households Annual	Less than three lakh	36	6.0
Income bracket (in Rs.)	Less than four lakh	25	4.2
KS.)	Less than five lakh	10	1.7
	Above five lakh	7	1.2
	Government job	38	6.3
	Private job	142	23.7
Carrage of in a carra	Self-employment	181	30.2
Source of income	Agriculture	199	33.2
	Business	13	2.2
	Others	27	4.5
Total		600	100.0

4.4 NGOs Role in Getting Employment for the Beneficiaries

From the below given table we see that majority of the respondents (51.3 percent) are negative about receiving help from the NGOs in getting employed. Only 48.7 percent (292 respondents) positively respond that they have received help in getting employed. This is because the NGOs are not providing any direct assistance in getting employment for its beneficiaries. The interventions of the NGOs are aimed at specific sectors like livelihood, health, education, empowerment, knowledge and skill development, interpersonal skills etc. The primary goals of such interventions are human development and capability building of the rural population. In other words the interventions of the NGOs show that making people employable is the most important objective than providing them with employment or seeking employment for the beneficiaries. While comparing the main three NGOs under study we see that Jeevan Jyoti Community Centre is placed better. 64.5 percent of the respondents are very positive about receiving assistance in getting employed.

Table 4.5: Pattern of Responses Showing NGOs Role in getting the Employment/Job for the Beneficiaries

	NGO	role/he	lp in gett	ing the e	mploym	ent/job
Name of NGO	Ye	es	N	0	Т	otal
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Jeevan Jyoti Community Centre	129	64.5	71	35.5	200	100.0
World Vision India	86	43.0	114	57.0	200	100.0
Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan	77	38.5	123	61.5	200	100.0
Total	292	48.7	308	51.3	600	100.0



4.5 Descriptive Statistics of the Factors of Research

The table below explains in details the overall responses of the respondents regarding effectiveness of the interventions of the NGOs in various aspects of life of the rural population.

4.5.1 Analysis Based on Total Population (Selected Beneficiaries) of Individual Factors

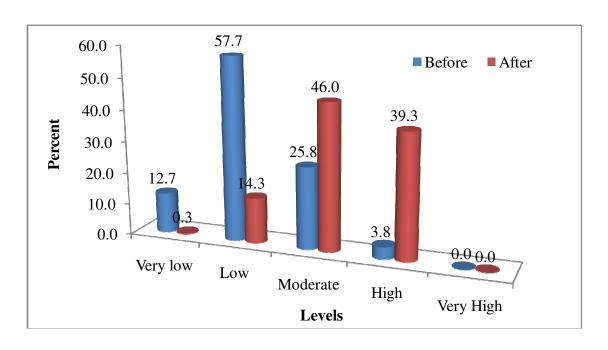
(A) Overall Factors

The below given table describes the responses of the respondents on all the twelve factors of the research before the interventions of the NGOs and after the intervention of the NGOs. The responses clearly demonstrate the significant positive changes in the lives of the rural population after the effective intervention of the NGOs.

12.7 percent (76 respondents) opines that their status was very low on the overall factors. The table shows that after the intervention of the NGOs it has come down to just 0.3 percent (3 respondents). We see an over all decline of 12.4 percent. This is highly significant for the research. 57.7 percent (346 respondents) said that their status was low on the overall factors before the intervention of the NGOs. The percent of the respondents having a low status before the intervention of the NGOs has come down to 14.3 percent (86 respondents). There is a decline of 43.4 percent and hence we can say that it is a highly considerable decline in the percentage of people having low status on overall factors. Similarly we see an increase in the status of respondents having a moderate status. Before the intervention of the NGOs 25.8 percent (155 respondents) said that their status was moderate but after the intervention of the NGOs the percentage has gone up to 46 percent (276 percent). The same trend is seen in the percentage of respondents having high status. Before the intervention of the NGOs only 3.8 percent (23 respondents) had high status. But after the intervention of the NGOs it has increased to 39.3 percent (almost 236 respondents). Here we can see an increase of 35.5 percent. Hence we can reasonably say that the intervention of the NGOs is positive and effective.

Table 4.6: Overall Factors

					7	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overell Feeter	Before	76	12.7	346	57.7	155	25.8	23	3.8	0	0.0
Overall Factor	After	2	0.3	86	14.3	276	46.0	236	39.3	0	0.0



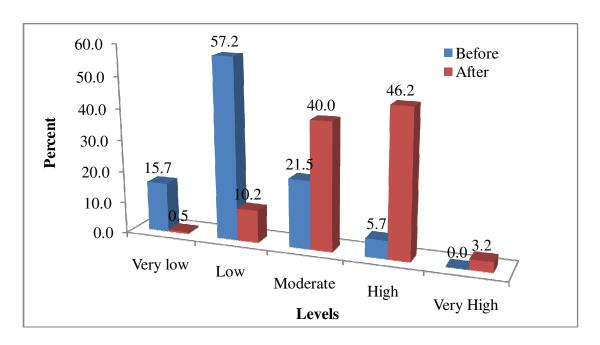
i) Achievement Motivation

The analysis shows that the achievement motivation of the rural population was comparatively low before the intervention of the NGOs. The below given table shows that the opinion of 57.2 percent (343 respondents) of the rural population is that their motivation for achievement was low and for 15.7 percent (94 respondents) it was very low. Achievement motivation is moderate for 21.5 percent (129 respondents) and high for 5.7 percent (34 respondents).

But after the intervention of the NGOs we see a clear difference in achievement motivation. 46.2 percent (277 respondents) of the respondents accept that they have positively improved their achievement motivation and gained high achievement motivation. 40 percent (240 respondents) feels that they have improved and their achievement motivation is moderate. 3.2 percent (19 respondents) feels that they have achieved very high achievement motivation. 10.2 percent (61 respondents) opines that their achievement motivation is low and 0.5 percent (3 respondents) says that their achievement motivation is very low.

Table 4.7: Achievement Motivation

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Achievement	Before	94	15.7	343	57.2	129	21.5	34	5.7	0	0.0
Motivation	After	3	0.5	61	10.2	240	40.0	277	46.2	19	3.2



(ii) Active Initiative

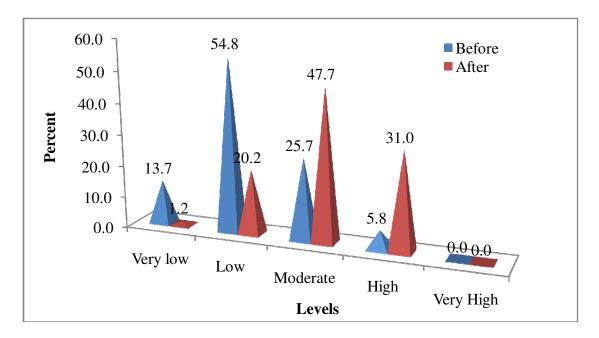
The attitude of active initiative explains the extent to which the individual likes to initiate action in new situations. The research examines whether the interventions of the NGOs have helped in creating and improving the attitudes of the rural population to be open to new initiatives and changes. The analysis shows that there are positive changes in the attitudes of the rural population in this regard.

Before the intervention of the NGOs 54.8 percent of the respondents (329 respondents) says that their attitude towards active initiative was low. 13.7 percent (82 respondents) opined that they had a very low attitude towards active initiative, 25.7 percent (154 respondents) had moderate attitude and only 5.8 percent (35 respondents) had a reasonably high attitude.

After the intervention of the NGOs we see 31 percent of the of the respondents (186 respondents) feel that their openness and interest to initiate actions in new situations have improved. 47.7 percent of the respondents (286 respondents) agree that they have improved their ability and aptitude to initiate actions in new situations at a moderate level. Low active initiative has come down from 54. 4 percent to 20.2 percent (321 respondents to 121 respondents respectively) after the effective interventions of the NGOs and very low active initiative has come down from 13.7 percent (82 respondents) to 1.2 percent (7 respondents).

Table 4.8: Active Initiative

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Active Initiative	Before	82	13.7	329	54.8	154	25.7	35	5.8	0	0.0
Active illitiative	After	7	1.2	121	20.2	286	47.7	186	31.0	0	0.0



(iii) Emotional Control

The factor of emotional control describes the extent to which the individual perceives he/she maintains emotional control when he/she is faced with potentially stressful situations. As it is evident from the table given below the status of the respondents significantly differs in managing and maintaining the skill of emotional stability before and after the intervention of the NGOs.

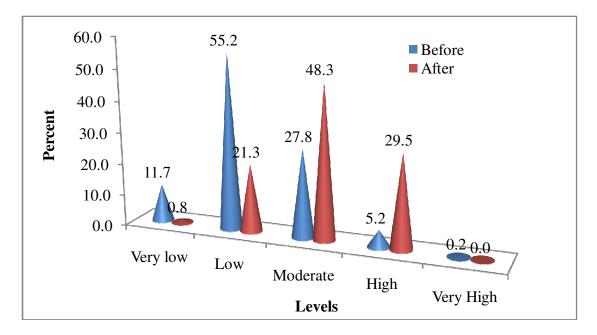
55.2 percent of the respondents (331 respondents) consider that their ability for maintaining the emotional balance was comparatively low before the intervention of the NGOs. 11.7 percent (70 respondents) felt that their ability of emotional control was very low, 27.8 percent (167 respondents) were of the view that their ability was moderate and 5.2 percent felt that they had good command of maintaining emotional balance.

After the NGOs started intervening in various fields and aspects of the life of rural population the situation seems to have changed positively. The findings show that 29.5 percent (177 respondents) felt that their ability to manage their emotional balance in adverse circumstances is high, 48.3 percent (290 respondents) agrees that

there is a significant improvement in managing their emotional control and they have gained a moderate emotional balance, 20.2 percent still believes that their ability to maintain emotional balance is low and 0.8 percent (5 respondents) feels it is very low.

Table 4.9: Emotional Control

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Emotional Control	Before	70	11.7	331	55.2	167	27.8	31	5.2	1	0.2
Emotional Control	After	5	0.8	128	21.3	290	48.3	177	29.5	0	0.0



(iv) Intellectual Flexibility

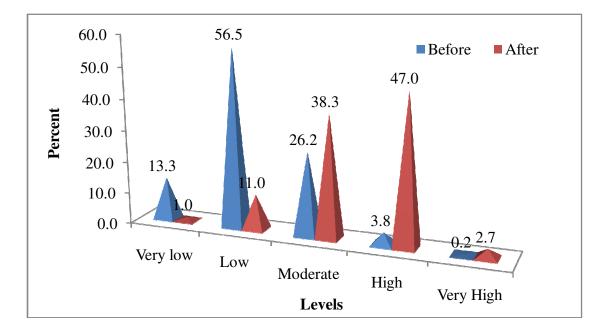
The concept of intellectual flexibility explains the willingness and ability of the respondents to adapt to changes and learn new technologies and practices in accordance with the need of the times, environment and circumstances.

Before the intervention of the NGOs we see that the willingness and ability of the respondents to adapt, change and learn new things was considerably low. 56.5 percent (339 respondents) say that their intellectual flexibility was low before the intervention of the NGOs. For 23.5 percent (157 respondents) it was moderate and 13.3 percent (80 respondents) it was very low. Only 0.2 percent (1 respondent) opined that the intellectual flexibility was high and 3.8 percent (23 respondents) say that it was reasonably high.

After the intervention of the NGOs positively great improvement is noted in the quality of intellectual flexibility. 47 percent of the total respondents (282 respondents) feel that they have gained high intellectual flexibility while 38.3 percent confidently say that their intellectual flexibility has improved and gained moderate intellectual flexibility. The response of 2.7 percent (16 respondents) shows that they have gained very high intellectual flexibility. Only 11 percent (66 respondents) say that their intellectual flexibility is low and 1 percent (6 respondents) opines that their intellectual flexibility is very low.

Table 4.10: Intellectual Flexibility

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	OW	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Intellectual Flowibility	Before	80	13.3	339	56.5	157	26.2	23	3.8	1	0.2
Intellectual Flexibility	After	6	1.0	66	11.0	230	38.3	282	47.0	16	2.7



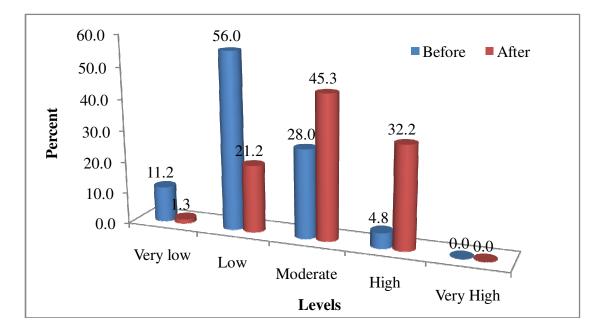
(v) Self Confidence

As a factor of research the concept 'self confidence' in this research explains the degree of confidence the individual has in his/her abilities and the success of their actions. The research finds that before the intervention of the NGOs the attitude of self confidence was very low for 11. 2 percent (67 respondents) and after the intervention the percentage of respondents remaining at very low self esteem has come down to 1.3 percent (8 respondents), for 56 percent of respondents (336 respondents) the attitude of self confidence was low and after the interventions it has

come down to 21.2 percent (127 respondents). Similarly the research finds that after the interventions of the NGOs the percentage of respondents having moderate self confidence have increased from 28 percent (168 respondents) to 45.3 percent (272 respondents) and high self confidence from 4.8 percent (29 respondents) to 32.2 percent (193 respondents).

Table 4.11: Self Confidence

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very low		L	ow	Moderate		High		Very High	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Self Confidence	Before	67	11.2	336	56.0	168	28.0	29	4.8	0	0.0
Self Confidence	After	8	1.3	127	21.2	272	45.3	193	32.2	0	0.0



(vi) Social Competence

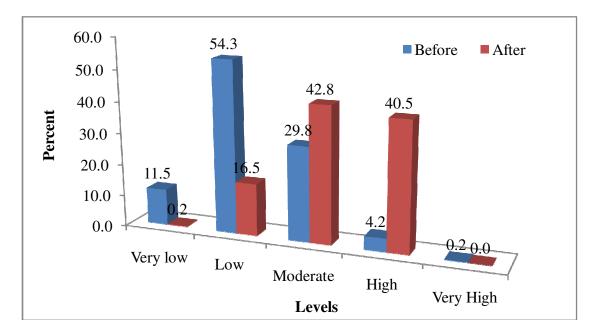
In analyzing the factor of social competence we find that before the intervention of the NGOs the skill of social competence was very low for 11. 5 percent (69 respondents) of the respondents, low for 54.3 percent (326 respondents) of respondents, moderate for 29.8 percent (179 respondents) of respondents, high for 4.2 percent (25 respondents) and very high 0.2 percent (1 respondent).

The skill of social competence shows positively high improvement after the intervention of the NGOs. 40.5 percent of the respondents (243 respondents) felt that they have highly improved their skill of social competence. 42.8 percent (257 respondents) felt that they have moderately improved, 16.5 percent (99 respondents) opined that their skill of social competence is low and only 0.2 percent (1 respondent)

felt that the skill of social competence is very low. Hence we can reasonably conclude that the interventions of the NGOs are effective.

Table 4.12: Effectiveness of Social Competence

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Social Compatance	Before	69	11.5	326	54.3	179	29.8	25	4.2	1	0.2
Social Competence	After	1	0.2	99	16.5	257	42.8	243	40.5	0	0.0



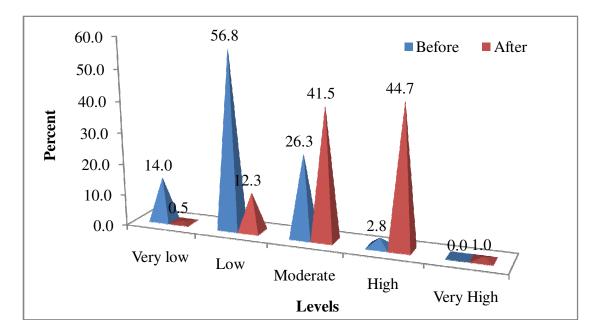
(vii) Education

The education factor describes the extent to which she/he has been able to gain knowledge, new methods and skill and adapt them to life situations. The concept of education is applied here in a wider sense than in a sense of formal education within the four walls of the classrooms. Before the intervention of the NGOs the educational skills were very low for 14 percent (84 respondents) of respondents whereas after the interventions of the NGOs it has come down to 0.5 percent (just 3 respondents). 56.8 percent (341 respondents) of respondents said that their educational skills were low before the intervention of the NGOs and after the effective interventions of the NGOs population having lack of educational skills have come down drastically to 12.3 percent (74 respondents). Similarly we see that before the intervention of the NGOs the status of 26.3 percent (158 respondents) were moderate, 2.8 percent (17 respondents) was high and none of the respondents had a very high status of educational skills. After the intervention of the NGOs respondents having moderate educational skills had risen to 41.5 percent (249 respondents) and respondents having

high educational skills had risen to 44.7 percent (268 respondents). There is one percent (6 respondents) increase of respondents having high education skills after the interventions of the NGOs.

Table 4.13: Education

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very low		Low		Moderate		High		Very High	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Education	Before	84	14.0	341	56.8	158	26.3	17	2.8	0	0.0
Education	After	3	0.5	74	12.3	249	41.5	268	44.7	6	1.0



(viii) Health

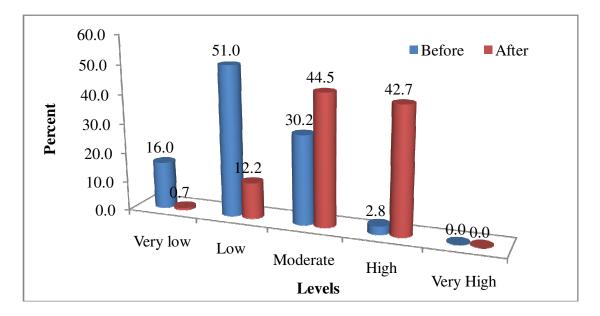
The concept of health is included as one of the factors of research to explains the extent to which one has been able to be more aware and conscious about health and health related problems and the ability to take remedial measures to improve personal as well as health of the family. The research finds that there are significant changes in becoming health conscious and in the ability to take care of health and health related problems.

The opinion of the respondents shows that before the NGOs started intervening the lives of the rural population 16 percent of the respondents (96 respondents) had a very low awareness and skill in matters of health, 51 percent (306 respondents) had low awareness and skill, 30.2 percent (181 respondents) had moderate awareness and skill and 2.8 percent (17 respondents) had high awareness and skill in matters of health. After the intervention of the NGOs the responses of the

respondents show considerable improvements. 42.7 percent of the respondents (256 respondents) agree that they have a gained a high awareness and skill and 44.5 percent (267 respondents) has moderately gained awareness and skill in matters of health and well being. Only 12.2 percent (73 respondents) and 0.7 percent (4 respondents) respectively remained low and very low in awareness and skill in the matters of health and well being.

Table 4.14: Health

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Uaalth	Before	96	16.0	306	51.0	181	30.2	17	2.8	0	0.0
Health	After	4	0.7	73	12.2	267	44.5	256	42.7	0	0.0



(ix) Economic Development

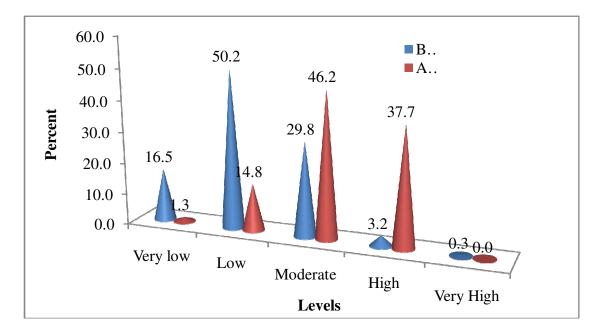
The factor of economic development indicates the extent to which one has been able to gain total welfare by making use of one's skills and knowledge in accordance with the opportunities available. As per the responses of the respondents, before the intervention of the NGOs 50.2 percent (301 respondents) was low in economic security and economic well being and 16.5 percent (99 respondents) respondents were very low. 29. 8 percent (179 respondents) was of moderately well off in economic security and well being. Only 3.2 percent (19 respondents) were high and 0.3 percent very high state of economic development.

After the intervention of the NGOs we see a substantial decline in the number of respondents in the state of being very low and low economic development. 1. 3

percent (8 respondents) said that their economic state is very low and 14.8 percent (89 respondents) said their state of economic development low. But the number of respondents having a moderate and high state of economic development has significantly increased. 37.7 percent (226 respondents) acknowledges that they have moved to a high state of economic development and 46.2 percent (277 respondents) moved to a moderate state of economic development.

Table 4.15: Economic Development

						Fotal (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Economic	Before	99	16.5	301	50.2	179	29.8	19	3.2	2	0.3
Development	After	8	1.3	89	14.8	277	46.2	226	37.7	0	0.0



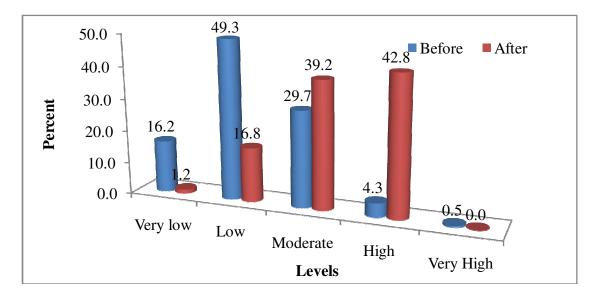
(x) Livelihood Security

The concept of livelihood in the research describes the extent to which households or individuals create and use diverse activities, assets, accesses and social support capabilities for survival to improve their standard of living. The below given table indicates the improvements rural population have made in attaining livelihood security by the effective intervention of the NGOs in the rural sector. 49.3 percent (296 respondents) acknowledges that their livelihood status was low before the intervention of the NGOs. The situation of the respondents was different after the intervention of the NGOs. The number of respondents at low livelihood security declined to 16.8 percent (101 respondents) after the effective intervention of the

NGOs. In the similar way respondents who had a very low livelihood security before the intervention of the NGOs were 16.2 percent (97 respondents). After the intervention of the NGOs the percentage declined to 1.2 (7 respondents). The respondents who opined that their livelihood security was moderate were 29.7 (178 respondents) and their percentage increased to 39.2 (235 respondents) after the intervention of the NGOs. More significant result is shown in the higher state of livelihood. Before the intervention of the NGOs only 4.3 percent (26 respondents) said that they had high livelihood security and their percentage increased to 42.8 percent (257 respondents) after the intervention of the NGOs.

Table 4.16: Livelihood Security

					7	Total (N=600	Total (N=600)											
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	wo	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High								
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%								
Livelihand Courity	Before	97	16.2	296	49.3	178	29.7	26	4.3	3	0.5								
Livelihood Security	After	7	1.2	101	16.8	235	39.2	257	42.8	0	0.0								



(xi) Task Leadership

The Task Leadership describes the extent to which the individual perceives he/she can lead and help other people effectively when a task needs to be done and emphasis is placed on effectiveness and productivity.

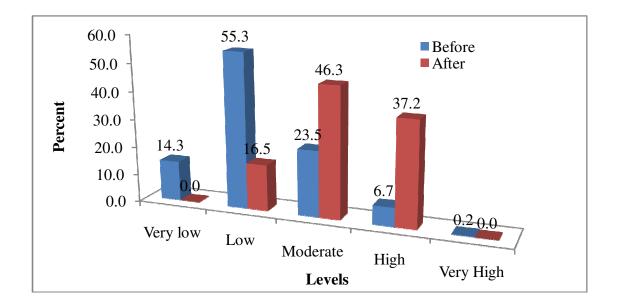
The table below explains that there is a great difference in the attitude and skill of task leadership before the intervention of the NGOs and after the intervention of the NGOs. Before the intervention of NGOs 55.3 percent of the respondent (332 respondents) felt that the attitude and skill of task leadership was low, 13.3 percent

(80 respondents) say that it was very low, 23.5 percent (141 respondents) opines that it was moderate and 6.7 percent (40 respondents) view that it was high. 0.2 percent (one respondent) says that the attitude and skill of task leadership was very high before the intervention of the NGOs.

It is to be noted that none of the respondents felt that their attitude and skill of task leadership was very low after the intervention of the NGOs. 37.2 percent (223 respondents) felt that they have a high task leadership and 46.3 percent (278 respondents) feels that they have improved their attitude and skill of talk leadership and now they stand at moderate level. Only 16.5 percent (99 respondents) felt that their attitude and skill of task leadership is low.

Table 4.17: Task Leadership

					7	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Took Landarship	Before	86	14.3	332	55.3	141	23.5	40	6.7	1	0.2
Task Leadership	After	0	0.0	99	16.5	278	46.3	223	37.2	0	0.0



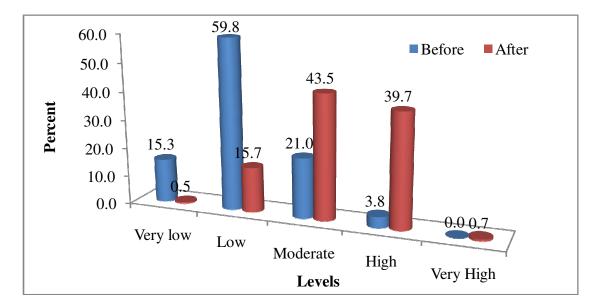
(xii) Time Management

The below given table shows that before the interventions of the NGOs 15.3 percent (92 respondents) of the respondents' ability for time management was very low, 59.8 percent (359 respondents) low, 21 percent (126 respondents) moderate and 3.8 percent (23 respondents) high.

We can notice a perceptible difference in the attitude of the respondents after the intervention of the NGOs with regard to the factor of time management. Out of 600 respondents 39.7 percent (238 respondents) felt that they have highly improved their ability of time management and 43.5 percent (261 respondents) moderately improved. 15.7 percent (94 respondents) still remains low and 0.5 percent (3 respondents) very low. 0.7 percent (4 respondents) opined that they their ability for time management has increased very substantially.

Table 4.18: Pattern of Responses on Time Management

]	Total (N=600))			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	w	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Tima Managamant	Before	92	15.3	359	59.8	126	21.0	23	3.8	0	0.0
Time Management	After	3	0.5	94	15.7	261	43.5	238	39.7	4	0.7



4.5.2 Analysis Based on Gender

(A) Male Respondents

The number of male representation in the analysis was 332. It constitutes 55.33 percent of the total samples selected for the study. As the table below shows there are significant differences seen on all factors before the intervention of the NGOs and after the intervention of the NGOs.

The analysis of the overall factors shows that 8.1 percent (27 respondents) of the male respondents were very low on skill and attitude, 58.7 percent (197 respondents) male respondents were low, 29.2 percent (97 respondents) had moderate skill and attitude and only 3.9 percent (13 respondents) male respondents was high in

skill and attitude. The data in the below table show that there was significant difference after the intervention of the NGOs. No male respondents were seen in the category of very low skill and attitude. 18.4 percent (61 respondents) still remained in the low category. But 53.9 percent (179 respondents) of the male respondents moved up to the moderate category and 27.7 percent (92 respondents) male respondents moved up to the high skill and attitude category. While looking at the responses of the male respondents on individual factors of research we see that majority of the responses lie between low and moderate categories. As the table shows most of the male respondents felt that their social skill and attitude were in low category. After the intervention of the NGOs the respondents' attitude and skill shows upward movement and they are either moved to the high category, moderate category or few into very high category. It can also be noted from the below table that after the intervention of the NGOs there are no respondents in the very low category in many of the factors and if there are they are very insignificant.

Table 4.19: Factor-wise Distribution of Male Respondent

						Male (N=332)			
Factors	Period	Very	low	Lo	OW	Mod	erate	Hi	gh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overall Factor	Before	27	8.1	195	58.7	97	29.2	13	3.9	0	0.0
Overall Factor	After	0	0.0	61	18.4	179	53.9	92	27.7	0	0.0
Achievement Motivation	Before	41	12.3	199	59.9	72	21.7	20	6.0	0	0.0
Achievement Motivation	After	0	0.0	45	13.6	161	48.5	119	35.8	7	2.1
Active Initiative	Before	38	11.4	179	53.9	99	29.8	16	4.8	0	0.0
Active illitative	After	4	1.2	88	26.5	166	50.0	74	22.3	0	0.0
Emotional Control	Before	27	8.1	180	54.2	108	32.5	16	4.8	1	0.3
Elliotional Control	After	3	0.9	90	27.1	170	51.2	69	20.8	0	0.0
Intellectual Flexibility	Before	31	9.3	188	56.6	100	30.1	13	3.9	0	0.0
interiectual Flexibility	After	2	0.6	49	14.8	144	43.4	132	39.8	5	1.5
Self Confidence	Before	25	7.5	182	54.8	110	33.1	15	4.5	0	0.0
Self Confidence	After	3	0.9	89	26.8	165	49.7	75	22.6	0	0.0
Social Competence	Before	28	8.4	175	52.7	114	34.3	15	4.5	0	0.0
	After	0	0.0	71	21.4	156	47.0	105	31.6	0	0.0
Education	Before	31	9.3	194	58.4	98	29.5	9	2.7	0	0.0
Education	After	1	0.3	55	16.6	168	50.6	106	31.9	2	0.6
Health	Before	36	10.8	174	52.4	115	34.6	7	2.1	0	0.0
Healui	After	2	0.6	54	16.3	181	54.5	95	28.6	0	0.0
Economic Development	Before	32	9.6	171	51.5	117	35.2	11	3.3	1	0.3
Economic Development	After	4	1.2	61	18.4	173	52.1	94	28.3	0	0.0
Livelihood Security	Before	26	7.8	175	52.7	116	34.9	13	3.9	2	0.6
Livelinood Security	After	2	0.6	56	16.9	160	48.2	114	34.3	0	0.0
Task Leadership	Before	32	9.6	187	56.3	91	27.4	22	6.6	0	0.0
rask Leautiship	After	0	0.0	65	19.6	176	53.0	91	27.4	0	0.0
Time Management	Before	38	11.4	209	63.0	71	21.4	14	4.2	0	0.0
I fine management	After	0	0.0	63	19.0	170	51.2	98	29.5	1	0.3

(B) Female Respondents

There were a total of 268 female respondents belonging to different age categories and they constitute 44.67 percent of the total respondents or samples selected for the study. In comparison to the male respondents the intervention of the NGOs have been more effective among female respondents. This is evident from the larger percentages of female respondents in the very low category and low category before the intervention of the NGOs. As the table below shows the upward movement from the very low and low category to high and moderate category is very obvious. Hence we can reasonably assume that in comparison to the male respondents the interventions of the NGOs is more effective for the female respondents.

While analyzing the impact on over all factors for the female respondents we see that before the intervention of the NGOs 56.3 percent (151out of 268 respondents) in the low category and 18.3 percent (49 respondents) in the very low category. 21.6 percent (58 respondents) in the moderate category and only 3.7 percent (10 respondents) in the high category. As the table below shows the interventions of the NGOs have been very significantly effective for the female population in the rural areas. Because we see the difference between before the intervention and after the intervention of NGOs is more evident with regard to the female population in comparison other categories of respondents in the research. After the intervention of the NGOs 53.7 percent (144 respondents) of the female respondents have moved up to the high category and 36.2 percent (97 respondents) to the moderate category. It is significant that only 0.7 percent (2 respondents) remain in the very low category.

The most significant changes have occurred in education. High educational achievement of the percent of female respondents before the intervention of the NGOs was just at 3 percent (8 respondents). We see a very highly significant change in education of female population after the intervention of the NGOs. 60.4 percent (144 respondents) say that their educational status have highly increased after the intervention of the NGOs. This is highly significant for the human resource development of the rural population. We see an equally substantial improvement with regard to the health sector. As the obtained data shows the health conditions prevailing in the segment of the female population was very grim before the intervention of the NGOs. Only a nominal of the 3.7 percent (10 respondents) accepted that they had reasonably good health before the intervention of the NGOs.

But the percentage has considerably gone up after the intervention of the NGOs. 60.1 percent (161 respondents) say that they have considerably improved their health conditions. Another significant change that is seen is in the achievement motivation. 59.9 percent of the female respondents say that their achievement motivation highly strengthened after the intervention of the NGOs. All these changes are clear indicators that the interventions of the NGOs have significantly contributed to the human development as well as human resource development.

Table 4.20: Factor-wise Distribution of Female Respondent

					F	emale	(N=26	(8)			
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overall Factor	Before	49	18.3	151	56.3	58	21.6	10	3.7	0	0.0
Overall Factor	After	2	0.7	25	9.3	97	36.2	144	53.7	0	0.0
Achievement	Before	53	19.8	144	53.7	57	21.3	14	5.2	0	0.0
Motivation	After	3	1.1	16	6.0	79	29.5	158	59.0	12	4.5
Active Initiative	Before	44	16.4	150	56.0	55	20.5	19	7.1	0	0.0
Active initiative	After	3	1.1	33	12.3	120	44.8	112	41.8	0	0.0
Emotional Control	Before	43	16.0	151	56.3	59	22.0	15	5.6	0	0.0
Emotional Control	After	2	0.7	38	14.2	120	44.8	108	40.3	0	0.0
Intellectual Flowibility	Before	49	18.3	151	56.3	57	21.3	10	3.7	1	0.4
Intellectual Flexibility	After	4	1.5	17	6.3	86	32.1	150	56.0	11	4.1
Self Confidence	Before	42	15.7	154	57.5	58	21.6	14	5.2	0	0.0
Self Confidence	After	5	1.9	38	14.2	107	39.9	118	44.0	0	0.0
Casial Commetance	Before	41	15.3	151	56.3	65	24.3	10	3.7	1	0.4
Social Competence	After	1	0.4	28	10.4	101	37.7	138	51.5	0	0.0
Education	Before	53	19.8	147	54.9	60	22.4	8	3.0	0	0.0
Education	After	2	0.7	19	7.1	81	30.2	162	60.4	4	1.5
Health	Before	60	22.4	132	49.3	66	24.6	10	3.7	0	0.0
Пеаш	After	2	0.7	19	7.1	86	32.1	161	60.1	0	0.0
Economic	Before	67	25.0	130	48.5	62	23.1	8	3.0	1	0.4
Development	After	4	1.5	28	10.4	104	38.8	132	49.3	0	0.0
Livelihaad Cassmity	Before	71	26.5	121	45.1	62	23.1	13	4.9	1	0.4
Livelihood Security	After	5	1.9	45	16.8	75	28.0	143	53.4	0	0.0
To alv I and analoin	Before	54	20.1	145	54.1	50	18.7	18	6.7	1	0.4
Task Leadership	After	0	0.0	34	12.7	102	38.1	132	49.3	0	0.0
Time Management	Before	54	20.1	150	56.0	55	20.5	9	3.4	0	0.0
Time Management	After	3	1.1	31	11.6	91	34.0	140	52.2	3	1.1

4.5.3 Age-wise Analysis

(A) Age Below 20 years

There were 49 respondents who were below 20 years of age. This constituted 8.17 percent of the total population. The analysis of the over all scores of the respondents showed that there are significant improvements in the development of the population aged below 20 years. This is because one of the prime concerns of the NGOs is children and their overall development besides education and health. As the table shows 30.6 percent (15 respondents) are seen in the very low category before the intervention of the NGOs. 63.3 percent (31 respondents) are in the low category, 4.1 percent (2 respondents) in the moderate category and 2 percent (one respondent) in the high category. After the intervention of the NGOs we notice that 57.1 percent (28 respondents) have moved to the high category, 30.6 percent (15 respondent) to moderate category and 12.2 percent (6 respondents) remains still in the low category. Significantly nobody was found in the very low category. The most significant change has observed in the sector of education. After the good works of the NGOs 67.3 percent (33 respondents) have moved to the high category from nil belonging to this category before the intervention of the NGOs. It is highly significant for the objectives of this study. Closely behind is the achievement motivation. 61.2 percent (30 respondents) of the respondents have realized that their achievement motivation has highly improved. Time management and social competence also shows substantial improvement for the respondents below the age group of 20. The table below given shows that 57.1 percent (28 respondents) of the respondents show high improvement in time management and social competence. In the health sector before the intervention of the NGOs 37.7 percent (17 respondents) was in very low category and after the interventions of the NGOs no respondents in this group remain in the very low category in health sector.

Table 4.21: Factor-wise Distribution of Age below 20 year Respondents

				Age Below 20 year (N=49)								
Factors	Period	Very	low		ow		erate		igh	Very	High	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Overall Factor	Before	15	30.6	31	63.3	2	4.1	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Overall Factor	After	0	0.0	6	12.2	15	30.6	28	57.1	0	0.0	
Achievement	Before	11	22.4	33	67.3	4	8.2	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Motivation	After	0	0.0	3	6.1	12	24.5	30	61.2	4	8.2	
Active Initiative	Before	13	26.5	29	59.2	5	10.2	2	4.1	0	0.0	
Active illitiative	After	0	0.0	9	18.4	14	28.6	26	53.1	0	0.0	
Emotional Control	Before	11	22.4	29	59.2	6	12.2	3	6.1	0	0.0	
Elliotional Control	After	0	0.0	11	22.4	14	28.6	24	49.0	0	0.0	
Intellectual Floribility	Before	10	20.4	34	69.4	4	8.2	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Intellectual Flexibility	After	0	0.0	4	8.2	13	26.5	27	55.1	5	10.2	
Self Confidence	Before	11	22.4	32	65.3	4	8.2	2	4.1	0	0.0	
Sen Confidence	After	0	0.0	8	16.3	15	30.6	26	53.1	0	0.0	
Social Compatance	Before	12	24.5	32	65.3	4	8.2	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Social Competence	After	0	0.0	3	6.1	18	36.7	28	57.1	0	0.0	
Education	Before	14	28.6	33	67.3	2	4.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Education	After	0	0.0	2	4.1	14	28.6	33	67.3	0	0.0	
Health	Before	17	34.7	28	57.1	4	8.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	
пеаш	After	0	0.0	3	6.1	21	42.9	25	51.0	0	0.0	
Economic Development	Before	14	28.6	30	61.2	4	8.2	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Economic Development	After	0	0.0	6	12.2	22	44.9	21	42.9	0	0.0	
Livelihood Security	Before	20	40.8	26	53.1	2	4.1	1	2.0	0	0.0	
Liveniiood Security	After	0	0.0	11	22.4	15	30.6	23	46.9	0	0.0	
Task Leadership	Before	15	30.6	26	53.1	6	12.2	2	4.1	0	0.0	
Lask Leadership	After	0	0.0	5	10.2	17	34.7	27	55.1	0	0.0	
Tima Managamant	Before	17	34.7	28	57.1	4	8.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	
Time Management	After	0	0.0	7	14.3	13	26.5	28	57.1	1	2.0	

(B) Age 20 to 40 Years

From the table given below it becomes quite evident that majority of the respondents belonged to the age group ranging between 20 to 40 years. This category comes around 69.17 percent of the total respondents. The table shows that before the intervention of the NGOs 53 percent (220 respondents) of the total respondents remained in the low category, 13.3 percent (55 respondents) in the very low category, 29.2 percent (121 respondents) in the moderate category and only 4.6 percent (19 respondents) in the high category. After the intervention of the NGOs an upward movement is clearly seen. It indicates that there are significant changes in the lives of the rural population. 43.4 percent (180 respondents) of the respondents has moved to the high category. There is also a very substantial increase in the moderate category. 44. 6 percent (185 respondents) moved to this category. 11.6 percent (48 respondents) and 0.5 percent (2 respondents) still remain in the low and very low category

respectively. In this segment the most significant improvement that we see is in their achievement motivation. After the intervention of the NGOs 50.8 percent (211 respondents) have moved to the high category in comparison to the 7 percent (29 respondents) before the intervention of the NGOs in this segment. It means that their achievement motivation have been significantly strengthened after the intervention of the NGOs. Similarly 48.9 percent (203 respondents) feel that they have positively improved their education in comparison to the 4.3 percent (14 respondents) before the intervention of the NGOs. 47.7 percent (198 respondents) also feel that their livelihood security has considerably increased. As per the data obtained only 5.3 percent (22 respondents) felt that they had reasonable livelihood security. The most significant changes have seen in livelihood security, economic development, education and achievement motivation, which are key factors of human development and human resource development of the rural population.

Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics-Age 20 to 40 Years

					Age 20) to 40	year (l	N=415	5)		
Factors	Period	Very	low	Lo			erate		gh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overall Factor	Before	55	13.3	220	53.0	121	29.2	19	4.6	0	0.0
Overall Factor	After	2	0.5	48	11.6	185	44.6	180	43.4	0	0.0
Achievement	Before	67	16.1	219	52.8	100	24.1	29	7.0	0	0.0
Motivation	After	2	0.5	37	8.9	155	37.3	211	50.8	10	2.4
Active Initiative	Before	55	13.3	217	52.3	113	27.2	30	7.2	0	0.0
Active initiative	After	4	1.0	72	17.3	203	48.9	136	32.8	0	0.0
Emotional Control	Before	54	13.0	206	49.6	129	31.1	25	6.0	1	0.2
Emononal Control	After	5	1.2	70	16.9	212	51.1	128	30.8	0	0.0
Intellectual Floribility	Before	58	14.0	218	52.5	119	28.7	19	4.6	1	0.2
Intellectual Flexibility	After	6	1.4	41	9.9	149	35.9	211	50.8	8	1.9
Self Confidence	Before	50	12.0	216	52.0	125	30.1	24	5.8	0	0.0
Sen Confidence	After	6	1.4	72	17.3	197	47.5	140	33.7	0	0.0
Social Composition	Before	48	11.6	210	50.6	135	32.5	21	5.1	1	0.2
Social Competence	After	1	0.2	57	13.7	174	41.9	183	44.1	0	0.0
Education	Before	60	14.5	219	52.8	122	29.4	14	3.4	0	0.0
Education	After	2	0.5	44	10.6	162	39.0	203	48.9	4	1.0
Haalth	Before	64	15.4	202	48.7	136	32.8	13	3.1	0	0.0
Health	After	4	1.0	46	11.1	171	41.2	194	46.7	0	0.0
Economia Davalanment	Before	71	17.1	190	45.8	137	33.0	15	3.6	2	0.5
Economic Development	After	7	1.7	51	12.3	184	44.3	173	41.7	0	0.0
Livelihaad Consuity	Before	70	16.9	190	45.8	131	31.6	22	5.3	2	0.5
Livelihood Security	After	7	1.7	61	14.7	149	35.9	198	47.7	0	0.0
Tools I and auchin	Before	58	14.0	222	53.5	103	24.8	32	7.7	0	0.0
Task Leadership	After	0	0.0	60	14.5	188	45.3	167	40.2	0	0.0
Tima Managamant	Before	63	15.2	231	55.7	102	24.6	19	4.6	0	0.0
Time Management	After	2	0.5	54	13.0	176	42.4	180	43.4	3	0.7

(C) Age Between 40 and 60 Years

The data analysis shows that the second largest group belongs to this category of age group. This group constitutes 21.17 percent (127 respondents) of the total respondents. After the intervention of the NGOs the most significant upward movements in this age group of respondents are seen in the moderate and high category and down ward movement is seen in the low and very low category respectively.

The analysis of the overall factors show that before the intervention of the NGOs 69.3 percent (88 respondents) belonged to the low category and 24.4 percent (31 respondents) belonged to moderate category. Only 1.6 percent (2 respondents) belonged to the high category. The scenario has changed positively after the intervention of the NGOs. The moderate category shows an upward movement to 55.1 percent (70 respondents) and high category shows an upward movement to 21.3 percent (27 respondents). Similarly the low category of respondents has come down to 23.6 percent (30 respondents) and very low to 0.00 percent.

After the intervention of the NGOs significant positive changes have been noticed in the factors of intellectual flexibility (1.6 percent to 33.9 percent), achievement motivation (2.4 percent to 27.6 percent), health (2.6 percent to 27.6 percent), livelihood security (1.6 percent to 27.6 percent), education (1.6 percent to 24.4 percent) and social competence (1.6 percent to 24.4 percent) in the high category. These changes can be understood as indicative of positive development in human development and human resource development.

Table 4.23: Descriptive Statistics-Age 40 to 60 Years

				A	ge 40	to 60	year (N=12	7)		
Factors	Period	Very	low	Lo)W	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overall Factor	Before	6	4.7	88	69.3	31	24.4	2	1.6	0	0.0
Overall Pactor	After	0	0.0	30	23.6	70	55.1	27	21.3	0	0.0
Achievement Motivation	Before	16	12.6	83	65.4	25	19.7	3	2.4	0	0.0
Achievement Motivation	After	1	0.8	19	15.0	68	53.5	35	27.6	4	3.1
Active Initiative	Before	12	9.4	80	63.0	33	26.0	2	1.6	0	0.0
Active illitiative	After	2	1.6	39	30.7	63	49.6	23	18.1	0	0.0
Emotional Control	Before	5	3.9	88	69.3	32	25.2	2	1.6	0	0.0
Elliotioliai Colitioi	After	0	0.0	45	35.4	58	45.7	24	18.9	0	0.0
Intellectual Flexibility	Before	12	9.4	82	64.6	31	24.4	2	1.6	0	0.0
Interfectual Flexibility	After	0	0.0	19	15.0	62	48.8	43	33.9	3	2.4
Self Confidence	Before	6	4.7	83	65.4	35	27.6	3	2.4	0	0.0
Sen Confidence	After	2	1.6	44	34.6	55	43.3	26	20.5	0	0.0
Social Compatance	Before	8	6.3	80	63.0	37	29.1	2	1.6	0	0.0
Social Competence	After	0	0.0	34	26.8	62	48.8	31	24.4	0	0.0
Education	Before	9	7.1	85	66.9	31	24.4	2	1.6	0	0.0
Education	After	0	0.0	27	21.3	68	53.5	31	24.4	1	0.8
Health	Before	14	11.0	70	55.1	40	31.5	3	2.4	0	0.0
1 Icaitii	After	0	0.0	22	17.3	70	55.1	35	27.6	0	0.0
Economic Development	Before	14	11.0	77	60.6	34	26.8	2	1.6	0	0.0
Economic Development	After	1	0.8	29	22.8	66	52.0	31	24.4	0	0.0
Livelihood Security	Before	7	5.5	76	59.8	41	32.3	2	1.6	1	0.8
Livelinood Security	After	0	0.0	27	21.3	65	51.2	35	27.6	0	0.0
Took Loodorship	Before	13	10.2	78	61.4	30	23.6	5	3.9	1	0.8
Task Leadership	After	0	0.0	31	24.4	68	53.5	28	22.0	0	0.0
Tima Managamant	Before	11	8.7	94	74.0	19	15.0	3	2.4	0	0.0
Time Management	After	1	0.8	31	24.4	67	52.8	28	22.0	0	0.0

(D) Age above 60 Years

This category of age group constituted only just 1.5 percent of the total population. As the table below shows there are no significant changes seen in this category of respondents. Positive upward movements are seen in the moderate category. On certain factors like social competence we see a negative impact.

Table 4.24: Descriptive Statistics-Age above 69 Years

				1	Age A	bove (60 year	· (N=	9)		
Factors	Period	Very	low	L	ow	Mod	erate	Hi	igh	Very	High
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Overall Factor	Before	0	0.0	7	77.8	1	11.1	1	11.1	0	0.0
Overall Pactor	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0.0
Achievement Motivation	Before	0	0.0	8	88.9	0	0.0	1	11.1	0	0.0
Achievement Wouvation	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	5	55.6	1	11.1	1	11.1
Active Initiative	Before	2	22.2	3	33.3	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0.0
Active illuative	After	1	11.1	1	11.1	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0.0
Emotional Control	Before	0	0.0	8	88.9	0	0.0	1	11.1	0	0.0
Elliotioliai Colitioi	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0.0
Intellectual Flexibility	Before	0	0.0	5	55.6	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0.0
intenectual Mexicinity	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0.0
Self Confidence	Before	0	0.0	5	55.6		44.4	0	0.0	0	0.0
Sen Confidence	After	0	0.0	3	33.3	5	55.6	1	11.1	0	0.0
Social Compatance	Before	1	11.1	4	44.4	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0.0
Social Competence	After	0	0.0	5	55.6	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0.0
Education	Before	1	11.1	4	44.4	3	33.3	1	11.1	0	0.0
Education	After	1	11.1	1	11.1	5	55.6	1	11.1	1	11.1
Health	Before	1	11.1	6	66.7	1	11.1	1	11.1	0	0.0
licaitii	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	5	55.6	2	22.2	0	0.0
Economic Development	Before	0	0.0	4	44.4	4	44.4	1	11.1	0	0.0
Economic Development	After	0	0.0	3	33.3	5	55.6	1	11.1	0	0.0
Livelihood Security	Before	0	0.0	4	44.4	4	44.4	1	11.1	0	0.0
Livennood Security	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	6	66.7	1	11.1	0	0.0
Task Leadership	Before	0	0.0	6	66.7	2	22.2	1	11.1	0	0.0
1 ask Leaucisiiip	After	0	0.0	3	33.3	5	55.6	1	11.1	0	0.0
Time Management	Before	1	11.1	6	66.7	1	11.1	1	11.1	0	0.0
Time Management	After	0	0.0	2	22.2	5	55.6	2	22.2	0	0.0

Section II: Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis: The median difference between the quality of life before the intervention of NGO and after the intervention of NGO is zero.

Thus, we can write the null hypothesis as:

Hypothesis 1: The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{OF} = Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} = 0$ $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^{OF} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary											
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision								
The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Related Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis								

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	177,091.000
Standardized Test Statistic	20.589
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result

The quality of life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 160.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 92.00), z = 20.589, p < .05, r = .84.

Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test Positive Differences (N=565) 100.0 Negative Differences (N=34) 80.0 (Number of Ties = 1) Frequency 60.0 40.0 20.0 0.0 -100.00 -50.00 .00 50.00 100.00 150.00 200.00 Overall Factor (After the intervention of NGOs) - Overall Factor (Before the intervention of NGO's)

Hypothesis 1.1: The median difference between Achievement Motivation of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and Achievement Motivation of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{AM} = Mdn_{Before}^{AM}$
 Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{AM} - Mdn_{Before}^{AM} = 0$
 $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^{AM} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{AM}$
 Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{AM} - Mdn_{Before}^{AM} \neq 0$

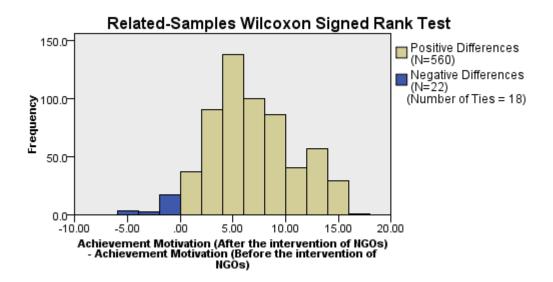
Hypothesis Test Summary											
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision								
The median difference between Achievement											
Motivation of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the								
intervention of NGOs and Achievement	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null								
Motivation of the rural population after the	Rank Test		hypothesis								
intervention of NGOs is zero.											

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	168,230.000
Standardized Test Statistic	20.571
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result

Achievement motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 7.50), z = 20.571, p < .05, r = .84.



Hypothesis 1.2: The median difference between Active Initiative of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and Active Initiative of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero

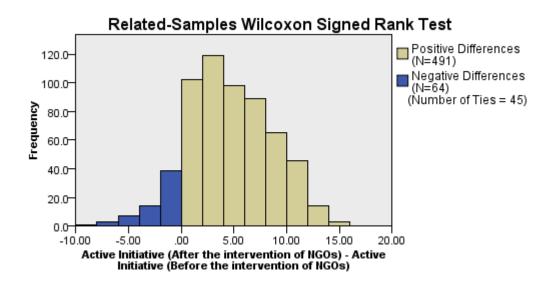
$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{AI} = Mdn_{Before}^{AI}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{AI} - Mdn_{Before}^{AI} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{AI} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{AI}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{AI} - Mdn_{Before}^{AI} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between Active			
Initiative of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and Active Initiative of	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
the rural population after the intervention of	_		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	144,285.000
Standardized Test Statistic	17.789
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result:

Active initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 17.789, p < .05, r = .73.



Hypothesis 1.3: The median difference between Emotional Control of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and Emotional Control of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero

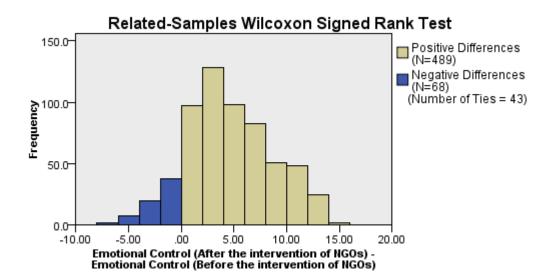
$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{EC} = Mdn_{Before}^{EC}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{EC} - Mdn_{Before}^{EC} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{EC} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{EC}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{EC} - Mdn_{Before}^{EC} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the emotional			
control of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the emotional control	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	144,873.000
Standardized Test Statistic	17.703
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result:

Emotional control is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 12.50) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 7.50), z = 17.703, p < .05, r = .72.



Hypothesis 1.4: The median difference between the Intellectual Flexibility of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Intellectual Flexibility of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{IF} = Mdn_{Before}^{IF}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{IF} - Mdn_{Before}^{IF} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{IF} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{IF}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{IF} - Mdn_{Before}^{IF} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the Intellectual			
Flexibility of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the Intellectual	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
Flexibility of the rural population after the	Rank Test		hypothesis
intervention of NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	166,171.000
Standardized Test Statistic	20.062
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result

Intellectual flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 20.062, p < .05, r = .82.

Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test Positive Differences (N=554) 120.0 Negative Differences 100.0 (N=28) (Number of Ties = 18) Frequency 80.0 60.0 40.0 20.0 0.0 5.00 15.00 20.00 -10.00 -5.00 .00 10.00 Intellectual Flexibility (After the intervention of NGOs) -Intellectual Flexibility (Before the intervention of NGOs)

Hypothesis 1.5: The median difference between the Self Confidence of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Self Confidence of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$\begin{split} H_0 \colon Mdn_{After}^{SC} &= Mdn_{Before}^{SC} \\ Or, H_0 \colon Mdn_{After}^{SC} - Mdn_{Before}^{SC} &= 0 \\ Thus, H_1 \colon Mdn_{After}^{SC} &\neq Mdn_{Before}^{SC} \\ Or, H_1 \colon Mdn_{After}^{SC} - Mdn_{Before}^{SC} &\neq 0 \end{split}$$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the self			
Confidence of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the Self Confidence	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	146,309.000
Standardized Test Statistic	17.716
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result:

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 17.716, p < .05, r = .72.

Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test Positive Differences (N=480) 120.0 Negative Differences 100.0 (N=80) (Number of Ties = 40) Frequency 80.0 60.0 40.0 20.0 0.0 -5.00 .00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 -10.00 Self Confidence (After the intervention of NGOs) - Self Confidence (Before the intervention of NGOs)

Hypothesis 1.6: The median difference between the Social Competence of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Social Competence of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{SC} = Mdn_{Before}^{SC}$
 Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{SC} - Mdn_{Before}^{SC} = 0$
 $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^{SC} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{SC}$
 Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{SC} - Mdn_{Before}^{SC} \neq 0$

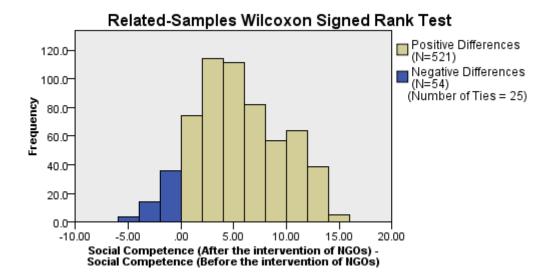
Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the social			
competence of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the social	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
competence of the rural population after the	Rank Test		hypothesis
intervention of NGOs is zero.			

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	159,941.000
Standardized Test Statistic	19.265
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result

Social competence is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 19.265, p < .05, r = .79.



Hypothesis 1.7: The median difference between the Growth in Education of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Growth in Education of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

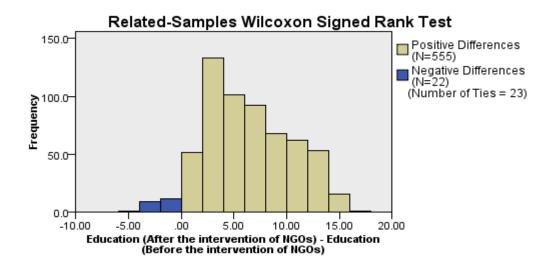
$$H_0$$
: $Mdn^E_{After} = Mdn^E_{Before}$ Or, H_0 : $Mdn^E_{After} - Mdn^E_{Before} = 0$ $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn^E_{After} \neq Mdn^E_{Before}$ Or, H_1 : $Mdn^E_{After} - Mdn^E_{Before} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the growth in			
education of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the growth in Education	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	164,556.000
Standardized Test Statistic	20.282
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result:

Education of the rural population is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 7.00), z = 20.282, p < .05, r = .83.



Hypothesis 1.8: The median difference between the Quality of Health of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Health of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^H = Mdn_{Before}^H$
 Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^H - Mdn_{Before}^H = 0$
 $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^H \neq Mdn_{Before}^H$
 Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^H - Mdn_{Before}^H \neq 0$

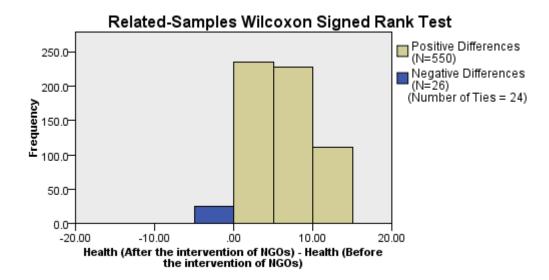
Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the quality of			
health of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the quality of health	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	163,688.500
Standardized Test Statistic	20.191
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Reporting the Result:

Quality of Health is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 20.191, p < .05, r = .82.



Hypothesis 1.9 The median difference between the Economic Development of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Economic Development of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

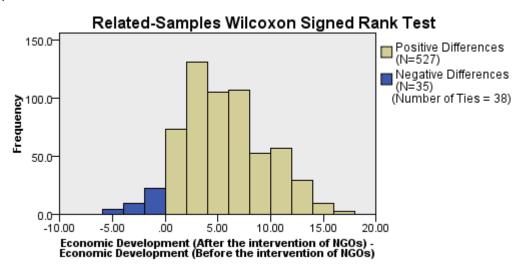
$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{ED} = Mdn_{Before}^{ED}$ Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{ED} - Mdn_{Before}^{ED} = 0$ $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^{ED} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{ED}$ Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{ED} - Mdn_{Before}^{ED} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the economic development of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the economic	_	.000	Reject the null
development of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Rank Test		hypothesis

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Total N	600
Test Statistic	154,593
Standardized Test Statistic	19.625
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Economic development is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 7.50), z = 19.625, p < .05, r = .84.



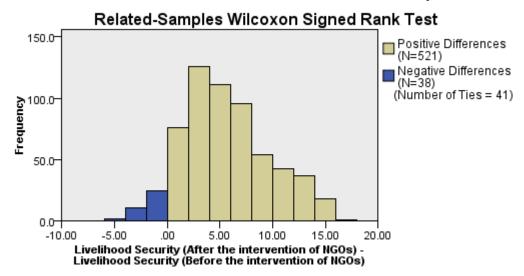
Hypothesis 1.10: The median difference between the Livelihood Security of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Livelihood Security of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{LS} = Mdn_{Before}^{LS}$
 Or, H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{LS} - Mdn_{Before}^{LS} = 0$
 $Thus, H_1$: $Mdn_{After}^{LS} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{LS}$
 Or, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{LS} - Mdn_{Before}^{LS} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the livelihood			
security of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the livelihood	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
security of the rural population after the	Rank Test		hypothesis
intervention of NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	152,890.50
Standardized Test Statistic	19.556
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Livelihood security is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 19.556, p < .05, r = .80.



Hypothesis 1.11: The median difference between the Task Management of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Task Management of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0: Mdn_{After}^{TL} = Mdn_{Before}^{TL}$$

$$Or, H_0: Mdn_{After}^{TL} - Mdn_{Before}^{TL} = 0$$

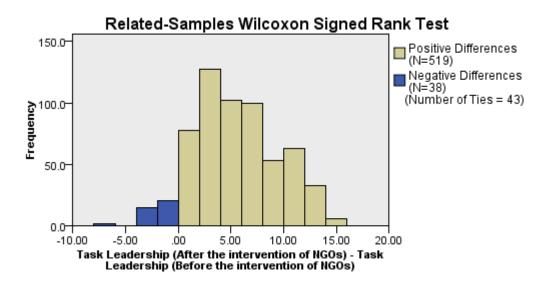
$$Thus, H_1: Mdn_{After}^{TL} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{TL}$$

$$Or, H_1: Mdn_{After}^{TL} - Mdn_{Before}^{TL} \neq 0$$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the task			
management of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the task management	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	150,945.000
Standardized Test Statistic	19.297
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Task leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 8.00), z = 19.297, p < .05, r = .79.



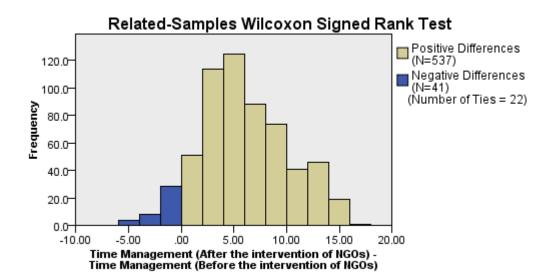
Hypothesis 1.12: The median difference between the Time Management of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and the Time Management of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{TM} = Mdn_{Before}^{TM}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{TM} - Mdn_{Before}^{TM} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{TM} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{TM}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{TM} - Mdn_{Before}^{TM} \neq 0$

Hypothesis Test Summary			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The median difference between the time			
management of the rural population before the	Related Samples		Reject the
intervention of NGOs and the time management	Wilcoxon Signed	.000	null
of the rural population after the intervention of	Rank Test		hypothesis
NGOs is zero.			

Total N	600
Test Statistic	163,538.000
Standardized Test Statistic	19.905
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 7.00), z = 19.905, p < .05, r = .81.



Hypothesis 2: The median difference between the Quality of Life of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	The Quality of Life of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	35596.500	54211.500
Standardized Test Statistic	13.837	15.347
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

Reporting the Result:

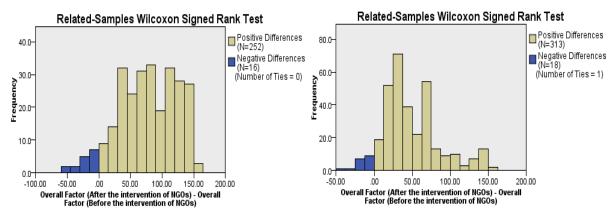
Female

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 177.50) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 78.50), z = 13.837, p < .05, r = .85.

Male

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 152.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 98.00), z = 15.347, p < .05, r = .84.





Hypothesis 2.1: The median difference between Achievement Motivation of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and Achievement Motivation of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	The achievement motivation of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the achievement motivation of	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	the female and male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	33718.000	51495.500
Standardized Test Statistic	13.813	15.273
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

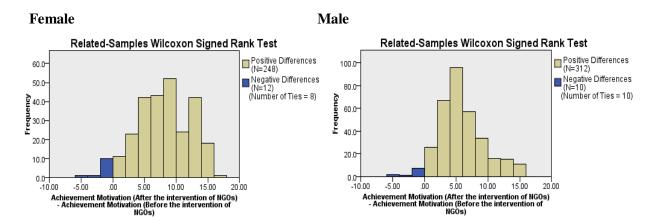
Reporting the Result:

Female

Achievement motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 16.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.813, p < .05, r = .84.

Male

Achievement motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 15.273, p < .05, r = .84.



Hypothesis 2.2: The median difference between Active Initiative of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and Active Initiative of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuei	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Active initiative of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and active initiative of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	31948.500	40287.500
Standardized Test Statistic	12.718	12.291
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

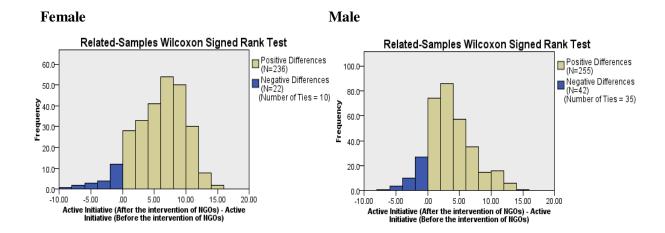
Reporting the Result:

Female

Active initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 12.718, p < .05, r = .78.

Male

Active initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 12.291, p < .05, r = .67.



Hypothesis 2.3: The median difference between Emotional Control of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and Emotional Control of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Su	mmary		
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Emotional control of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and emotional control of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.		.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	32260.000	39951.500
Standardized Test Statistic	12.977	11.746
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

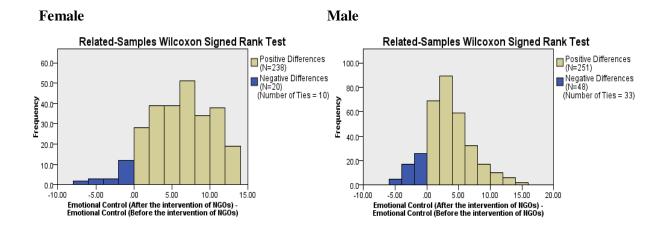
Reporting the Result:

Female

Emotional control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 12.977, p < .05, r = .79.

Male

Emotional control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.50) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 11.746, p < .05, r = .64.



Hypothesis 2.4: The median difference between Intellectual Flexibility of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and Intellectual Flexibility of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Intellectual flexibility of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and intellectual flexibility of the female and	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	34261.000	49897.500
Standardized Test Statistic	13.516	14.975
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

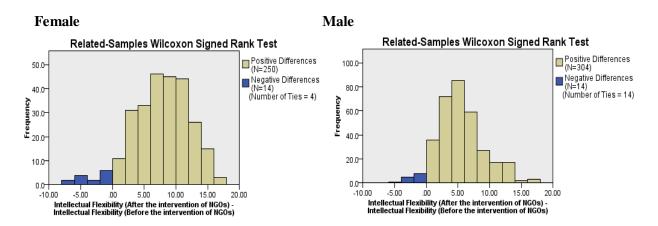
Reporting the Result:

Female

Intellectual flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 16.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.516, p < .05, r = .83.

Male

Intellectual flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 14.975, p < .05, r = .82.



Hypothesis 2.5: The median difference between the Self Confidence of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Self Confidence of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Self-confidence of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and self confidence of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	31595.500	41676.50
Standardized Test Statistic	12.786	12.091
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

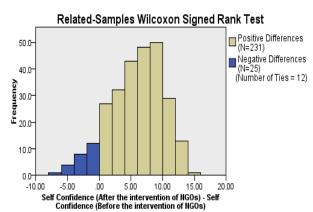
Reporting the Result:

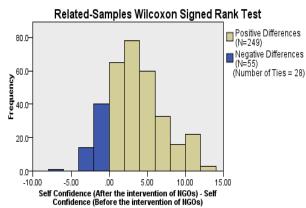
Female

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 12.786, p < .05, r = .78.

Male

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 12.091, p < .05, r = .66.





Hypothesis 2.6: The median difference between the Self Competence of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Self Competence of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Female	Self competence of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and self competence of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	34226.500	45491.000
Standardized Test Statistic	13.489	13.690
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

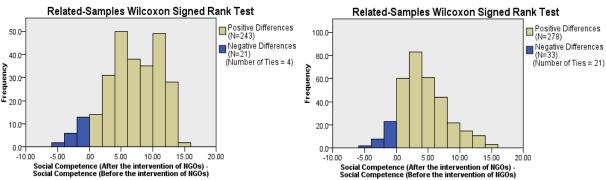
Reporting the Result:

Female

Social competence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.489, p < .05, r = .82.

Male

Social competence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 13.690, p < .05, r = .75.



Hypothesis 2.7: The median difference between Growth in Education of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and Growth in Education of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Growth in education of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and growth in education of the female and	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	34002.500	49363.000
Standardized Test Statistic	13.675	15.157
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

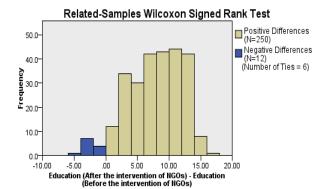
Reporting the Result:

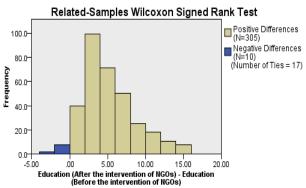
Female

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.675, p < .05, r = .84.

Male

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 15.157, p < .05, r = .83.





Hypothesis 2.8: The median difference between the Quality of Health of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Health of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Su			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Quality of health of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the quality of health of the female and	Samples	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	33644.500	49185.00
Standardized Test Statistic	13.568	15.047
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

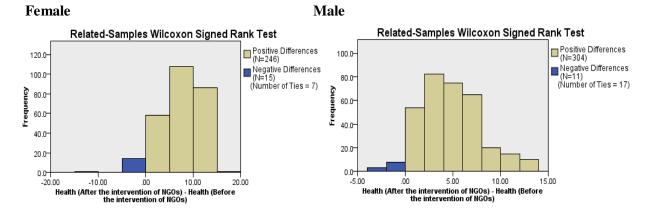
Reporting the Result:

Female

The Quality of Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.568, p < .05, r = .83.

Male

The Quality of Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 15.047, p < .05, r = .83.



Hypothesis 2.9: The median difference between the Economic Development of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Economic Development of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Female	Economic development of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the economic development of the	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Male	female and male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	32722.000	45124.000
Standardized Test Statistic	13.547	14.167
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

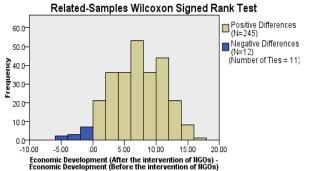
Reporting the Result:

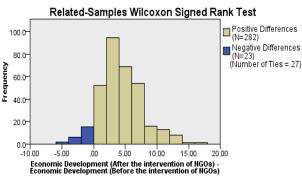
Female

Economic development is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 13.547, p < .05, r = .83.

Male

Economic development is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 14.167, p < .05, r = .78.





Hypothesis 2.10: The median difference between the Livelihood Security of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Livelihood Security of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Female	Livelihood security of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the livelihood security of the female and	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Male	male respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	33055.000	44043.500
Standardized Test Statistic	13.266	14.474
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

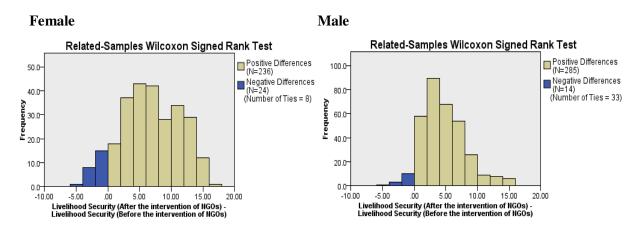
Reporting the Result:

Female

Livelihood security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 13.266, p < .05, r = .81.

Male

Livelihood security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 14.474, p < .05, r = .79.



Hypothesis 2.11: The median difference between the Task Leadership of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Task Leadership of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Female	Task leadership of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs and the task leadership of the female and male	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Male	respondents after the intervention of NGOs is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	31652.000	44547.000
Standardized Test Statistic	13.202	14.128
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

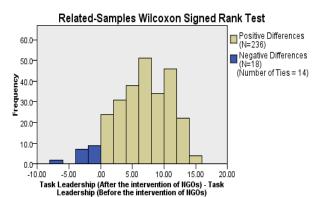
Reporting the Result:

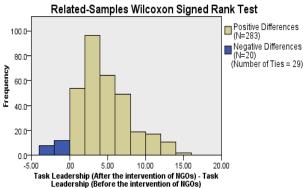
Female

Task leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 13.202, p < .05, r = .81.

Male

Task leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.50) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 14.128, p < .05, r = .76.





Hypothesis 2.12: The median difference between the Time Management of the female and male respondents in the rural areas before the intervention of NGOs and the Time Management of the female and male respondents in the rural areas after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Gender	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Genuel	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Female	Time management of the female and male respondents before the intervention of NGOs	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Male	male respondents after the intervention of	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Female	Male
Total N	268	332
Test Statistic	33098.000	49695.000
Standardized Test Statistic	13.488	14.690
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000

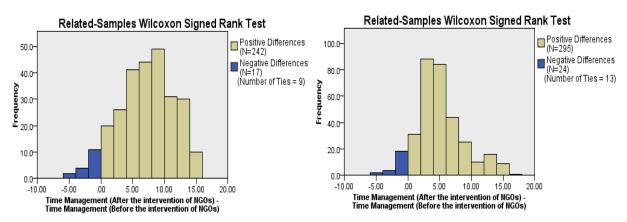
Reporting the Result:

Female

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 13.488, p < .05, r = .82.

Male

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 14.690, p < .05, r = .81.



Hypothesis 3: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years		Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.008	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups				
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60				
	years	years	years	years	
Total N	49	415	127	9	
Test Statistic	1218.000	84986.000	7884.000	45.000	
Standardized Test Statistic	6.023	17.108	9.456	2.666	
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.008	

Age Groups	Med	ian	
Age Groups	Before After		
Below 20 years	67.00	182.00	
20 to 40 years	93.00	166.00	
40 to 60 years	91.00	141.00	
Above 60 years	110.00	134.00	

Reporting the Result:

Age Group: Below 20 years

Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 177.50)(Mdn = 177.50) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 67.00), z = 6.023, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 166.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 93.00), z = 17.108, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 141.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 91.00), z = 9.456, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 134.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 110.00), z = 2.666, p < .05, r = .89.

Hypothesis 3.1: The median difference between the Achievement Motivation before the intervention of NGOs and the Achievement Motivation after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	intervention of NGOs and the Achievement	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years	the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.010	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups						
	Below 20	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years years			years			
Total N	49	415	127	9			
Test Statistic	1223.500	79791.000	7708.500	36.000			
Standardized Test Statistic	6.084	17.019	9.575	2.585			
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.010			

Ago Choung	Median		
Age Groups	Before	After	
Below 20 years	5.00	17.00	
20 to 40 years	8.00	15.00	
40 to 60 years	7.00	13.00	
Above 60 years	9.00	13.00	

Age Group: Below 20 years

Achievement Motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 17.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 5.00), z = 6.084, p < .05, r = .87.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Achievement Motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 17.019, p < .05, r = .83.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Achievement Motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 9.575, p < .05, r = .85.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Achievement Motivation is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.585, p < .05, r = .86.

Hypothesis 3.2: The median difference between the Active Initiative before the intervention of NGOs and the Active Initiative after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary					
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision		
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
20 to 40 years	Active Initiative before the intervention of NGOs and the Active Initiative after the	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
40 to 60 years	intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
Above 60 years			.067	Accept the null hypothesis		

	Age Groups					
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years years		years			
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1186.000	68213.500	6268.000	31.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	6.023	17.108	9.456	2.666		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.067		

Ago Cwoying	Median		
Age Groups	Before	After	
Below 20 years	6.00	15.00	
20 to 40 years	8.00	13.00	
40 to 60 years	8.00	11.00	
Above 60 years	9.00	11.00	

Age Group: Below 20 years

Active Initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 6.023, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Active Initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 17.108, p < .05, r = .84.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Active Initiative is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 9.456, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Active Initiative is remains more or less same after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) and before the intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.666, p < .05, r = .89.

Hypothesis 3.3: The median difference between the Emotional Control before the intervention of NGOs and the Emotional Control after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary					
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision		
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
20 to 40 years	Emotional Control before the intervention of NGOs and the Emotional Control after the	Related Samples	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
40 to 60 years	intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
Above 60 years			.032	Reject the null hypothesis		

	Age Groups						
	Below 20	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years years		years	years			
Total N	49	415	127	9			
Test Statistic	1093.000	68049.000	6514.500	40.500			
Standardized Test Statistic	5.605	14.889	7.323	2.146			
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.032			

Ago Choung	Median		
Age Groups	Before Afte		
Below 20 years	6.00	14.00	
20 to 40 years	8.00	13.00	
40 to 60 years	8.00	11.00	
Above 60 years	9.00	10.00	

Reporting the Result:

Age Group: Below 20 years

Emotional Control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 5.605, p < .05, r = .80.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Emotional Control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 14.889, p < .05, r = .73.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Emotional Control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 7.323, p < .05, r = .65.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Emotional Control is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 10.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.146, p < .05, r = .71.

Hypothesis 3.4: The median difference between the Intellectual Flexibility before the intervention of NGOs and the Intellectual Flexibility after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	Intellectual Flexibility before the intervention of NGOs and the Intellectual Flexibility after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years	of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.007	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups					
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years year		years	years		
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1215.000	78545.000	7568.000	45.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	5.998	16.482	9.496	2.684		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.007		

Ago Choung	Median		
Age Groups	Before	After	
Below 20 years	6.00	16.00	
20 to 40 years	8.00	15.00	
40 to 60 years	8.00	13.00	
Above 60 years	9.00	11.00	

Age Group: Below 20 years

Intellectual Flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 16.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 5.998, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Intellectual Flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.482, p < .05, r = .81.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Intellectual Flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 9.496, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Intellectual Flexibility is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.684, p < .05, r = .89.

Hypothesis 3.5: The median difference between the Self Confidence before the intervention of NGOs and the Self Confidence after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	Self Confidence before the intervention of NGOs and the Self Confidence after the	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years	intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.121	Accept the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups					
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	year	year				
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1114.000	71854.000	5848.500	23.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	5.831	14.873	7.288	1.549		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.121		

Aga Crauna	Median	
Age Groups	Before	After
Below 20 year	6.00	15.00
20 to 40 year	8.00	13.00
40 to 60 year	8.00	11.00
Above 60 year	9.00	11.00

Age Group: Below 20 years

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 5.831, p < .05, r = .83.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 14.873, p < .05, r = .73.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Self Confidence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 7.288, p < .05, r = .65.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Self Confidence more or less remains the same for the population after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) and before the intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 1.549, p > .05, r = .52.

Hypothesis 3.6: The median difference between the Social Competence before the intervention of NGOs and the Social Competence after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	NGOs and the Social Competence after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years		Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.481	Accept the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups					
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years years		years	years		
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1218.500	76240.500	7020.000	23.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	6.037	16.076	8.633	.705		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.481		

Aga Craying	Median	
Age Groups	Before	After
Below 20 years	6.00	15.00
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00
40 to 60 years	8.00	12.00
Above 60 years	8.00	9.00

Reporting the Result:

Age Group: Below 20 year

Social Competence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 6.037, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 year

Social Competence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.076, p < .05, r = .79.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 year

Social Competence is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 8.633, p < .05, r = .77.

Age Group: Above 60 year

Social Competence remains more or less same after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00) and before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = .705, p < .05, r = .23.

Hypothesis 3.7: The median difference between the Growth in Education before the intervention of NGOs and the Growth in Education after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	of NGOs and the Growth in Education after	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years	the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.011	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups					
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60					
	years years years		years	years		
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1176.000	78832.000	7340.500	36.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	6.042	16.756	9.459	2.536		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.011		

Ago Choung	Median		
Age Groups	Before	After	
Below 20 years	6.00	16.00	
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00	
40 to 60 years	7.00	12.00	
Above 60 years	8.00	11.00	

Age Group: Below 20 years

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 16.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 6.042, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.756, p < .05, r = .82.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 9.459, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Education is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 2.536, p < .05, r = .85.

Hypothesis 3.8: The median difference between the Quality of Health before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Health after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary				
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision	
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
20 to 40 years	Quality of Health before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Health after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
40 to 60 years		Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis	
Above 60 years			.011	Reject the null hypothesis	

	Age Groups				
	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above				
	years	years	years	years	
Total N	49	415	127	9	
Test Statistic	1176.000	77002.000	7709.500	36.000	
Standardized Test Statistic	6.040	16.558	9.578	2.536	
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.011	

Ago Choung	Median	
Age Groups	Before	After
Below 20 years	5.00	15.00
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00
40 to 60 years	8.00	12.00
Above 60 years	8.00	12.00

Age Group: Below 20 years

Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 5.00), z = 6.040, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.558, p < .05, r = .81.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 9.578, p < .05, r = .85.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Health is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 2.536, p < .05, r = .85.

Hypothesis 3.9: The median difference between the Economic Development before the intervention of NGOs and the Economic Development after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary			
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis
20 to 40 years	Economic Development before the intervention of NGOs and the Economic Development ofter the intervention of NGOs	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
40 to 60 years	Development after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis
Above 60 years			.058	Accept the null hypothesis

	Age Groups							
	Below 20	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Above 60						
	years	years	years	years				
Total N	49	415	127	9				
Test Statistic	1153.000	72260.000	7592.500	19.500				
Standardized Test Statistic	5.804	16.236	9.298	1.897				
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.058				

Ago Cwoying	Median			
Age Groups	Before	After		
Below 20 years	5.00	14.00		
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00		
40 to 60 years	8.00	12.00		
Above 60 years	10.00	10.00		

Age Group: Below 20 years

Economic Development is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 5.00), z = 5.804, p < .05, r = .83.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Economic Development is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.236, p < .05, r = .80.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Economic Development is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 9.298, p < .05, r = .82.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Economic Development remains same after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 10.00) and before the intervention of NGO (Mdn = 10.00), z = 1.897, p > .05, r = .63.

Hypothesis 3.10: The median difference between the Livelihood Security before the intervention of NGOs and the Livelihood Security after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary					
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision		
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
20 to 40 years	NGOs and the Livelihood Security after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
40 to 60 years		Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
Above 60 years			.010	Reject the null hypothesis		

	Age Groups						
	Below 20	20 to 40	40 to 60	Above 60			
	years	years	years	years			
Total N	49	415	127	9			
Test Statistic	1171.500	73171.500	6602.500	36.000			
Standardized Test Statistic	5.990	16.199	8.860	2.585			
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.010			

Ago Choung	Median Before After			
Age Groups				
Below 20 years	5.00	13.00		
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00		
40 to 60 years	8.00	13.00		
Above 60 years	10.00	11.00		

Reporting the Result:

Age Group: Below 20 years

Livelihood Security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 5.00), z = 5.990, p < .05, r = .85.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Livelihood Security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.199, p < .05, r = .80.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Livelihood Security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 13.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 8.860, p < .05, r = .79.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Livelihood Security is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 10.00), z = 2.585, p < .05, r = .86.

Hypothesis 3.11: The median difference between the Task Leadership before the intervention of NGOs and the Task Leadership after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary					
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision		
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
20 to 40 years	Task Leadership before the intervention of NGOs and the Task Leadership after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
40 to 60 years		Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis		
Above 60 years			.011	Reject the null hypothesis		

	Age Groups							
	Below 20	Below 20 20 to 40 40 to 60 Abov						
	years	years	years	years				
Total N	49	415	127	9				
Test Statistic	1112.500	72579.000	6538.500	36.000				
Standardized Test Statistic	5.814	16.081	8.683	2.558				
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.011				

Ago Choung	Median				
Age Groups	Before	After			
Below 20 years	6.00	15.00			
20 to 40 years	8.00	14.00			
40 to 60 years	7.00	12.00			
Above 60 years	9.00	11.00			

Age Group: Below 20 years

Task Leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 15.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 5.814, p < .05, r = .83.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

Task Leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 8.00), z = 16.081, p < .05, r = .79.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

Task Leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 8.683, p < .05, r = .77.

Age Group: Above 60 years

Task Leadership is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 11.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.558, p < .05, r = .85.

Hypothesis 3.12: The median difference between the Time Management before the intervention of NGOs and the Time Management after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.

Age	Hypothesis Test Summary						
Groups	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision			
Below 20 years			.000	Reject the null hypothesis			
20 to 40 years	Time Management before the intervention of NGOs and the Time Management after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different age groups in the rural areas is zero.	Related Samples Wilcoxon	.000	Reject the null hypothesis			
40 to 60 years		Signed Rank Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis			
Above 60 years			.011	Reject the null hypothesis			

	Age Groups					
	Below 20	20 to 40	40 to 60	Above 60		
	years	years	years	years		
Total N	49	415	127	9		
Test Statistic	1121.500	79437.000	7054.500	36.000		
Standardized Test Statistic	5.907	16.571	8.985	2.536		
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.000	.000	.000	.011		

Ago Choung	Median			
Age Groups	Before After			
Below 20 years	6.00	16.00		
20 to 40 years	7.00	14.00		
40 to 60 years	7.00	12.00		
Above 60 years	9.00	12.00		

Age Group: Below 20 year

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 16.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 6.00), z = 5.907, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: 20 to 40 year

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 14.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 16.571, p < .05, r = .81.)

Age Group: 40 to 60 year

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 7.00), z = 8.985, p < .05, r = .80.

Age Group: Above 60 year

Time management is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 12.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 9.00), z = 2.536, p < .05, r = .84.

Hypothesis 4: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different categories of population in the rural areas is zero.

rurai areas is zero.								
~ .		Media	n	Test	Standardized	Asymptotic		
Castes	Factors	Before	After	Statistic	Test Statistic	Sig. (2-sided test)	r	Decision
	Overall Factor	95.00	122.00	10818.00	10.402	0.000	0.86	
	Achievement Motivation	8.00	10.00	10062.50	10.164	0.000	0.84	
	Active Initiative	8.00	10.00	7938.00	8.817	0.000	0.73	
	Emotional Control	8.00	11.00	9036.00	9.031	0.000	0.74	
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	11.00	9910.00	10.105	0.000	0.83	
General	Self Confidence	8.00	11.00	8855.50	8.885	0.000	0.73	
(N=147)	Social Competence	8.00	11.00	9945.00	9.927	0.000	0.82	
(11-147)	Education	8.00	10.00	10183.50	10.157	0.000	0.84	
	Health	8.00	10.00	10229.00	10.253	0.000	0.85	
	Economic Development	8.00	10.00	9564.50	9.645	0.000	0.80	
	Livelihood Security	9.00	11.00	9601.00	9.972	0.000	0.82	
	Task Leadership	9.00	11.00	9096.00	9.653	0.000	0.80	
	Time Management	8.00	10.00	9443.00	9.635	0.000	0.79	
	Overall Factor	90.00	167.00	12543.50		0.000	0.84	
	Achievement Motivation	8.00	15.00	12171.50	10.713	0.000	0.85	
	Active Initiative	8.00	13.00	11141.00	9.578	0.000	0.76	
	Emotional Control	7.00	13.00	10619.50	9.549	0.000	0.76	
	Intellectual Flexibility	8.00	15.00	11721.00	10.150	0.000	0.80	
OBC	Self Confidence	8.00	13.00	10456.50	9.476	0.000	0.75	
(N=159)	Social Competence	8.00	14.00	11157.00	9.840	0.000	0.78	
	Education	7.00	14.00	11843.00	10.368	0.000	0.82	
	Health	7.00	14.00	12100.50	10.349	0.000	0.82	sis
	Economic Development	7.00	14.00	10831.00	10.191	0.000	0.81	he
	Livelihood Security	8.00	14.00	10863.00	10.007	0.000	0.79	pod.
	Task Leadership	8.00	14.00	10851.00	9.986	0.000	0.79	Reject the Null Hypothesis
	Time Management	7.00	14.00	11980.50	10.615	0.000	0.84	=
	Overall Factor	83.00	155.00	22796.00	12.45	0.00	0.06	Ź
	Achievement Motivation	7.00	14.00	21472.00	12.425	0.000	0.06	l fe
	Active Initiative	7.00	12.00	18764.50		0.000	0.05	ç
	Emotional Control	7.00	12.00	18420.50	10.429	0.000	0.05	eje
	Intellectual Flexibility	7.00	14.00	21963.00	12.358	0.000	0.06	~
SC	Self Confidence	7.00	12.00	19303.50	10.701	0.000	0.05	
(N=215)	Social Competence	7.00	13.00	20103.00	11.649	0.000	0.05	
(1, 210)	Education	7.00	13.00	20735.50	12.189	0.000	0.06	
	Health	7.00	13.00	20829.00	12.092	0.000	0.06	
	Economic Development	7.00	13.00	20644.50	12.085	0.000	0.06	
	Livelihood Security	7.00	13.00	19763.00	11.866	0.000	0.06	
	Task Leadership	7.00	13.00	19558.00		0.000	0.06	
	Time Management	6.00	13.00	21073.00	12.169	0.000	0.06	
	Overall Factor	106.00	169.00	2990.50		0.000	0.09	
	Achievement Motivation	9.00	15.00	2910.00		0.000	0.09	
	Active Initiative	9.00	13.00	2389.50		0.000	0.07	
	Emotional Control	8.00	12.00	2256.50		0.000	0.07	
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	15.00	2761.00		0.000	0.09	
ST	Self Confidence	9.00	13.00	2300.50		0.000	0.07	
(N=79)	Social Competence	9.00	14.00	2823.00		0.000	0.08	
<u> </u>	Education	8.00	14.00	2823.00		0.000	0.09	
	Health	8.00	14.00	2509.00	7.068	0.000	0.09	
	Economic Development	9.00	14.00	2350.00	6.494	0.000	0.08	
	Livelihood Security	10.00	15.00	2425.00		0.000	0.08	
	Task Leadership	8.00	14.00	2505.00		0.000	0.08	
	Time Management	9.00	14.00	2824.00	6.405	0.000	0.08	

General Category

Quality of Life for the general category is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 122.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 95), z = 10.402, p < .05, r = .86.

Other Backward Castes (OBC)

Quality of Life for the OBC is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 167.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 90.00), z = 10.634, p < .05, r = .84.

Scheduled Castes (SC)

Quality of Life the SC is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 155.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 83.00), z = 12.453, p < .05, r = .06.

Scheduled Tribe (ST)

Quality of Life the ST is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 169.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 106.00), z = 6.894, p < .05, r = .09.

Hypothesis 5: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different educational status in the rural areas is zero.

		Median		Test	Standardized	Asymptotic		
Castes	Factors	Before	After	Statistic	Test Statistic	Sig. (2- sided test)	r	Decision
	Overall Factor	64.50	100.00	1176.00	6.033	0.000	0.87	
	Achievement Motivation	5.00	9.00	1126.00	5.979	0.000	0.86	
	Active Initiative	5.00	8.00	976.50	5.663	0.000	0.82	
	Emotional Control	6.00	8.00	879.00	5.386	0.000	0.78	
	Intellectual Flexibility	5.50	10.00	1176.00	6.057	0.000	0.87	
Illiterate	Self Confidence	6.00	8.00	865.00	5.204	0.000	0.75	
(N=48)	Social Competence	6.00	8.00	1081.00	5.939	0.000	0.86	
(IN=46)	Education	6.00	8.50	1035.00	5.871	0.000	0.85	
	Health	6.00	9.00	1077.00	5.880	0.000	0.85	sis
	Economic Development	6.00	9.00	1077.50	5.904	0.000	0.85	hes
	Livelihood Security	6.00	9.00	1128.00	5.992	0.000	0.86	pot
	Task Leadership	6.00	9.00	1081.00	5.939	0.000	0.86	$\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathrm{J}}}$
	Time Management	6.00	9.00	990.00	5.795	0.000	0.84	
	Overall Factor	93.00	93.00	149679.00	19.697	0.000	0.84	Ž
	Achievement Motivation	8.00	8.00	142138.50	19.711	0.000	0.84	Reject the Null Hypothesis
	Active Initiative	8.00	8.00	122152.00	17.013	0.000	0.72	ct t
	Emotional Control	8.00	8.00	123852.50	17.016	0.000	0.72	eje
	Intellectual Flexibility	8.00	8.00	139792.00	19.182	0.000	0.82	R
Literate	Self Confidence	8.00	8.00	125312.50	17.069	0.000	0.73	
(N=552)	Social Competence	8.00	8.00	134912.00	18.448	0.000	0.79	
(11-332)	Education	8.00	8.00	139900.50	19.472	0.000	0.83	
	Health	8.00	8.00	138558.00	19.353	0.000	0.82	
	Economic Development	8.00	8.00	130261.00	18.779	0.000	0.80	
	Livelihood Security	8.00	8.00	128127.00		0.000	0.79	
	Task Leadership	8.00	8.00	126883.50	18.428	0.000	0.78	
	Time Management	7.00	7.00	139520.00	19.108	0.000	0.81	

Reporting the Result

Illiterate

Quality of Life for the category of the illiterate is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 100.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 64.50), z = 6.33, p < .05, r = .87.

Literate

Quality of Life for the category of literate is same after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 93.00) and before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 93.00), z = 19.697, p < .05, r = .84.

Hypothesis 6: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different employment status in the rural areas is zero.

		Median		Test	Standardized	Asymptotic		
Castes	Factors	Before	After	Statistic	Test Statistic	Sig. (2- sided test)	r	Decision
	Overall Factor	104.00	163.00	94008.00	17.473	0.000	0.83	
	Achievement Motivation	8.50	15.00	88422.50	17.486	0.000	0.84	
	Active Initiative	9.00	13.00	73537.00	14.614	0.000	0.70	
	Emotional Control	9.00	13.00	75345.00	14.688	0.000	0.70	
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	15.00	86096.50	16.846	0.000	0.80	
Employed	Self Confidence	9.00	13.00	76028.00	14.695	0.000	0.70	
Employed (N=438)	Social Competence	9.00	14.00	83406.00	16.052	0.000	0.77	
(N=436)	Education	8.00	14.00	87287.00	17.178	0.000	0.82	
	Health	8.50	14.00	86642.50	17.066	0.000	0.82	sis
	Economic Development	8.50	14.00	80501.50	16.731	0.000	0.80	hes
	Livelihood Security	9.00	14.00	79814.00	16.439	0.000	0.79	Reject the Null Hypothesis
	Task Leadership	9.00	13.00	77904.50	16.212	0.000	0.77	$\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathrm{J}}}$
	Time Management	8.00	14.00	87229.00	17.011	0.000	0.81	
	Overall Factor	68.50	158.00	13092.00	10.855	0.000	0.85	Ź
	Achievement Motivation	6.00	14.00	12792.50	10.834	0.000	0.85	he
	Active Initiative	6.00	12.00	11815.50	10.088	0.000	0.79	ct t
	Emotional Control	6.00	12.00	11314.50	9.893	0.000	0.78	eje
	Intellectual Flexibility	6.00	14.00	13096.00	10.873	0.000	0.85	R
Un-	Self Confidence	6.00	13.00	11430.00	9.868	0.000	0.78	
employed	Social Competence	6.00	13.00	12204.50	10.533	0.000	0.83	
(N=162)	Education	6.00	13.00	12221.00	10.801	0.000	0.85	
	Health	6.00	13.00	12201.00	10.766	0.000	0.85	
	Economic Development	6.00	13.00	12024.00	10.219	0.000	0.80	
	Livelihood Security	6.00	13.00	11819.50	10.571	0.000	0.83	
	Task Leadership	6.00	13.00	12016.50	10.440	0.000	0.82	
	Time Management	6.00	12.50	11964.50	10.346	0.000	0.81	

Reporting the Result:

Employed

Quality of Life for the employed is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 163.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 104.00), z = 17.473, p < .05, r = .83.

Unemployed

Quality of Life for the unemployed is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 158.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 68.50), z = 10.855, p < .05, r = .85.

Hypothesis 7: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents of different kinds of jobholders in the rural areas is zero.

Trumos of		Me	dian	TD 4	G4 1 11 1	Asymptotic		
Types of Job	Factors	Before After		Test Statistic	Standardized Test Statistic	Sig. (2- sided test)	r	Decision
	Overall Factor	105.50	187.50	9522.00	10.045	0.000	0.86	
	Achievement Motivation	9.00	17.00	8955.00	9.852	0.000	0.84	
	Active Initiative	9.00	15.00	7895.50	8.971	0.000	0.76	
	Emotional Control	9.00	14.00	8045.00	9.069	0.000	0.77	
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	16.00	8908.50	9.750	0.000	0.83	
Pvt.	Self Confidence	9.00	15.00	8494.50	9.335	0.000	0.79	
Job(N=138)	Social Competence	9.00	15.50	8907.50	9.493	0.000	0.81	
JOD(N=136)	Education	8.00	16.00	9218.50	9.914	0.000	0.84	
	Health	9.00	16.00	9108.50	9.933	0.000	0.85	
	Economic Development	8.00	15.00	8687.50	9.773	0.000	0.83	
	Livelihood Security	9.00	16.00	8436.00	9.459	0.000	0.81	
	Task Leadership	9.00	15.00	7860.00	9.406	0.000	0.80	
	Time Management	9.00	15.00	8853.50	9.628	0.000	0.82	
	Overall Factor	112.50	154.50	687.00	5.062	0.000	0.82	
	Achievement Motivation	9.00	14.00	695.50	5.200	0.000	0.84	70
	Active Initiative	9.00	12.00	571.00	4.207	0.000	0.68	esis
	Emotional Control	10.00	12.00	523.00	3.417	0.000	0.55	th
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	13.50	626.50	5.113	0.000	0.83	Reject the Null Hypothesis
Cont. Lab	Self Confidence	10.00	12.00	553.00	3.467	0.000	0.56	H
Govt. Job (N=38)	Social Competence	9.00	12.50	608.00	4.813	0.000	0.78	[m]
(N=36)	Education	9.00	14.00	584.00	4.913	0.000	0.80	Z e
	Health	10.00	13.50	561.00	5.025	0.000	0.82	th
	Economic Development	10.00	13.00	561.00	5.023	0.000	0.81	ect
	Livelihood Security	10.00	14.00	586.50	4.454	0.000	0.72	čej
	Task Leadership	9.00	13.00	564.50	4.578	0.000	0.74	I
	Time Management	9.00	12.50	638.50	4.813	0.000	0.78	
	Overall Factor	99.00	149.00	33621.00	13.354	0.000	0.83	
	Achievement Motivation	8.00	14.00	31366.00	13.524	0.000	0.84	
	Active Initiative	9.00	12.00	25224.50	10.725	0.000	0.66	
	Emotional Control	8.00	12.00	26270.50	10.989	0.000	0.68	
	Intellectual Flexibility	9.00	14.00	30506.00	12.775	0.000	0.79	
Self	Self Confidence	9.00	12.00	25486.00	10.614	0.000	0.66	
Employed	Social Competence	8.00	13.00	29012.00	12.020	0.000	0.74	
(N=262)	Education	8.00	13.00	30968.00	13.177	0.000	0.81	
	Health	8.00	13.00	30978.00	13.001	0.000	0.80	
	Economic Development	8.00	13.00	28057.00	12.645	0.000	0.78	
	Livelihood Security	9.00	13.00	27904.50	12.694	0.000	0.78	
	Task Leadership	8.00	13.00	27952.00	12.360	0.000	0.76	
	Time Management	8.00	13.00	31213.50	13.204	0.000	0.82	

Reporting the Result:

Private Job

Quality of Life for the private job holders is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 187.50) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 105.50), z = 10.045, p < .05, r = .84.

Government Job

Quality of Life for the government job holders is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 154.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 112.50), z = 5.062, p < .05, r = .82.

Self Employed

Quality of Life for the Self employed is significantly better after intervention of NGO (Mdn = 149.00) than it was before intervention of NGO (Mdn = 99.00), z = 13.354, p < .05, r = .83.

Hypothesis 8: The median difference between the Quality of Life before the intervention of NGOs and the Quality of Life after the intervention of NGOs of the respondents in the rural areas is zero.

		Median		Test	Standardized	Asymptotic		
NGO	Factors	Before	After	Statistic	Test Statistic	Sig. (2- sided test)	r	Decision
	Overall Factor	72.00	172.00	20022.00	12.168	0.000	0.86	
	Achievement Motivation	6.00	15.50	19086.50	12.092	0.000	0.86	
	Active Initiative	7.00	14.00	18661.50	11.772	0.000	0.83	
	Emotional Control	6.00	13.00	18351.50	11.801	0.000	0.83	
Jeevan	Intellectual Flexibility	6.00	15.00	19187.50	12.005	0.000	0.85	
Jyoti	Self Confidence	6.00	14.00	18174.00	11.788	0.000	0.83	
Community	Social Competence	6.00	14.00	19311.50	11.943	0.000	0.84	
Centre	Education	6.00	16.00	19357.50	12.002	0.000	0.85	
(N=200)	Health	6.00	15.00	19425.00	11.872	0.000	0.84	
	Economic Development	6.00	14.00	18569.00	11.862	0.000	0.84	
	Livelihood Security	6.00	13.00	17909.00	11.651	0.000	0.82	
	Task Leadership	6.00	14.00	18223.50	11.852	0.000	0.84	
	Time Management	6.00	15.00	19608.00	12.099	0.000	0.86	
	Overall Factor	88.00	142.50	20090.50	12.252	0.000	0.87	
	Achievement Motivation	7.00	13.00	19698.00	12.217	0.000	0.86	76
	Active Initiative	7.00	11.00	15923.50	10.913	0.000	0.77	esi
	Emotional Control	7.00	12.00	16117.50	10.534	0.000	0.74	ğ
3371.1	Intellectual Flexibility	7.00	14.00	19126.00	11.927	0.000	0.84	y DC
World Vision	Self Confidence	7.00	11.00	15493.00	10.090	0.000	0.71	Reject the Null Hypothesis
India	Social Competence	7.00	12.00	17104.50	11.021	0.000	0.78	3
(N=200)	Education	7.00	12.50	17955.00	11.936	0.000	0.84	e Z
(14-200)	Health	7.00	13.00	18487.50	11.977	0.000	0.85	#
	Economic Development	7.00	12.00	17044.00	11.590	0.000	0.82	ect
	Livelihood Security	8.00	13.00	16993.00	11.741	0.000	0.83	Rej
	Task Leadership	7.00	12.00	17511.50	11.568	0.000	0.82	_
	Time Management	6.00	13.00	19105.00	12.119	0.000	0.86	
	Overall Factor	125.50	164.50	18805.00	10.886	0.000	0.77	
	Achievement Motivation	11.00	15.00	17281.00	11.049	0.000	0.78	
	Active Initiative	11.00	13.00	13154.00	7.178	0.000	0.51	
	Emotional Control	11.00	13.00	13271.50	7.161	0.000	0.51	
Chaabaaa	Intellectual Flexibility	11.00	15.00	17032.00	10.509	0.000	0.74	
Shashwat Sahabhagi	Self Confidence	11.00	13.00	14379.00	7.569	0.000	0.54	
Sanathan	Social Competence	11.00	14.00	16690.50	10.065	0.000	0.71	
(N=200)	Education	10.00	14.00	17840.50	11.366	0.000	0.80	
(11-200)	Health	11.00	14.00	16872.00	11.155	0.000	0.79	
	Economic Development	11.00	14.00	15939.00	10.301	0.000	0.73	
	Livelihood Security	11.00	15.00	16072.50	10.266	0.000	0.73	
	Task Leadership	11.00	14.00	14471.00	9.477	0.000	0.67	
	Time Management	10.00	14.00	15549.50	9.550	0.000	0.68	

Reporting the Result:

Jeevan Jyoti

Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of Jeevan Jyoti is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 172.00) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 72.00), z = 12.168, p < .05, r = .86.

World Vision

Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of World Vision is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 142.50) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 88.50), z = 12.252, p < .05, r = .87.

Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan

Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 164.50) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 125.50), z = 10.886, p < .05, r = .77.

4.6 Conclusion

The Chapter gives a detailed analysis of the responses of the respondents and the results of the analysis. The results obtained clearly indicates that the interventions of the NGOs in the lives of the rural population have been significantly effective and the interventions of the NGOs contribute to human development and leads to human resource development. The results obtained from the data analysis shows that the null hypotheses have been rejected in all the instances and with a reasonable confidence we can accept the alternate hypothesis.

മ്പിയ

Chapter V

Summary and Conclusions

Effective human resource development policy must focus on creating conditions that make it possible for human resources to thrive and be effective. Human resource strategies need to be planned in both developed and developing countries so that systematic and effective human resources development system could be put in place, shortages can be addressed and consistent, reliable and equitable quality of human life and human progress can be ensured. What we see today is that the state for various reasons is not able to fulfill the task of development of persons and society effectively, especially the most disadvantaged areas of the country.

Despite the unmatched growth in world incomes and unparalleled improvements in global standards of living over the past few years, mankind has failed to rid the world off abject poverty and hunger. The majority of the population lives in rural areas. Indeed more than 70 per cent of India's poor are in the rural area. The major inequalities affecting the rural poor are their unequal access to quality education and health-which is so important for social and economic development and the absence of resources and opportunities for growth and development. The rural nature of these challenges is often overlooked. Poverty and illiteracy remain overwhelmingly rural phenomena. Poverty in rural areas is closely linked to illiteracy as well as to other forms of deprivation such as malnutrition, infant mortality, and poor access to water. Rural poverty and illiteracy are not just transition problems or a crisis of adjustment in a process of modernization: they are structural development challenges.

Promoting human development through domestic policies that recognize rural issues, including education policies, is highly necessary. However, such commitment and policy efforts will not produce their full impact unless the state clearly recognizes that the present inequalities of globalization fuel mass poverty. In the last five decades, the promise of development has had little impact on many developing

countries. Despite decades of experimentation and implementation of variety of rural development programs, rural areas remain underdeveloped in comparison to urban areas (Fisher et al., 2008; Redford et al., 2008). The top-down vs. bottom-up paradigm debate in rural development has generated new alternatives. The latest alternative paradigm is an NGO-led rural development, which sees NGOs as the 'silver bullet' to cure all the ills of previous development failures (Edwards and Hulme, 1995). The objective of this research was to determine if NGOs were having any positive impact in rural areas. To accomplish this, suitable research methods and tools were used. Analysis of interviews, survey responses, and secondary data implied that NGO activities in the district were having some positive impacts in the communities where they worked.

5.1 Summary of the Research

Developing the untapped human capital in the rural area is an imperative need of the hour and is crucial for over all development of the country. The present study is an attempt to probe into the various dimensions of human resource development initiatives of NGOs in rural context and investigated the contribution of NGOs in developing human capabilities and development and enhancement of human resources in the rural district of Sitapur. The researcher examined the contribution of three main and most active NGOs of Sitapur district and found that the interventions of the NGOs significantly contribute to the development of human capital.

5.1.1 Objectives of the Research

Following objectives were formed for the study.

- To study whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the quality of life in the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- To find out whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the social and personal skills of the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- To analyze whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in improving the education and health of the rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- To investigate whether the interventions of the NGOs are effective in creating livelihood security and economic development in the district of Sitapur, U.P.

- To asses the impact of training of NGOs on rural population in the district of Sitapur, U.P.
- To study the impact of NGOs interventions in enhancing Human Capability and Human Resource Enhancement.

5.1.2 Hypothesis of the Research

Based on the objective the hypotheses for the study was formed as:

Hypothesis 1 (H_0) : The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is zero.

Thus, we can write the null hypothesis as:

Hypothesis 2 (H_1) : The median difference between the quality of life of the rural population before the intervention of NGOs and quality of life of the rural population after the intervention of NGOs is not zero.

$$H_0$$
: $Mdn_{After}^{OF} = Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or , H_0 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} = 0$ $Thus$, H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} \neq Mdn_{Before}^{OF}$ Or , H_1 : $Mdn_{After}^{OF} - Mdn_{Before}^{OF} \neq 0$

The interview schedule and data collection tool named life effectiveness questionnaire was framed in such a way so as to gather comprehensive information and data both prior to the interventions of the NGOs as well as post interventions of the NGOs.

5.1.3 Dimensions of the Research

Following dimensions were included in the life effectiveness questionnaire for the interview schedule.

- Achievement motivation
- Active initiative
- Emotional control
- Intellectual flexibility
- Self confidence
- Social competence
- Education
- Health

- Economic security/development
- Livelihood
- Task leadership
- Time Management

The sampling frame consisted of the beneficiaries of the three NGOs selected for the study and two hundred samples each were selected from the beneficiaries list provided by each of the selected NGOs. The data was collected in accordance with the planned schedule of the interviews of the beneficiaries. The organization and analysis of data was done with the help of SPSS software. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test, which is a non-parametric statistical hypothesis test, was used to assess whether the repeated measurements of a single population mean ranks differ.

An in depth analysis of the data was conducted to see whether the null hypothesis could be accepted on any parameters. The null hypothesis was tested on each of the dimensions of research and on each dimension the test rejected the null hypothesis.

5.1.4 Results of the Data Analysis

Following results were obtained from the each of the analysis.

Result of the Overall Factor of the Total Samples

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 160.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 92.00), z = 20.589, p < .05, r = .84.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life for Male Samples

The Quality of Life is significantly better for males after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 152.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 98.00), z = 15.347, p < .05, r = .84.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life Female Samples

The Quality of Life is significantly better for females after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 177.50) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 78.50), z = 13.837, p < .05, r = .85.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of Different Age Groups

Age Group: Below 20 years

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 182.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 67.00), z = 6.023, p < .05, r = .86.

Age Group: 20 to 40 years

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 166.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 93.00), z = 17.108, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: 40 to 60 years

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 141.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 91.00), z = 9.456, p < .05, r = .84.

Age Group: Above 60 years

The Quality of Life is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 134.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 110.00), z = 2.666, p < .05, r = .89.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of Different Groups Based on Caste

General Category

The Quality of Life for the general category is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 122.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 95), z = 10.402, p < .05, r = .86.

Other Backward Castes (OBC)

The Quality of Life for the OBC is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 167.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs(Mdn = 90.00), z = 10.634, p < .05, r = .84.

Scheduled Castes (SC)

The Quality of Life the SC is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 155.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 83.00), z = 12.453, p < .05, r = .06.

Scheduled Tribe (ST)

Overall factor the ST is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 169.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 106.00), z = 6.894, p < .05, r = .09.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of iLiterate and Illiterate Population

Illiterate

The Quality of Life for the category of the illiterate is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 100.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 64.50), z = 6.33, p < .05, r = .87.

Literate

The Quality of Life for the category of literate is same after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 93.00) and before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 93.00), z = 19.697, p < .05, r = .84.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of Employed and Unemployed

Employed

The Quality of Life for the employed is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 163.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 104.00), z = 17.473, p < .05, r = .83.

Unemployed

The Quality of Life for the unemployed is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 158.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 68.50), z = 10.855, p < .05, r = .85.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of the Population Holding Different Type of Job

Private Job

The Quality of Life for the private job holders is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 187.50) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 105.50), z = 10.045, p < .05, r = .84.

Government Job

The Quality of Life for the government job holders is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 154.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 612.50), z = 5.062, p < .05, r = .82.

Self Employed

The Quality of Life for the Self employed is significantly better after intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 149.00) than it was before intervention of NGOs (Mdn = 99.00), z = 13.354, p < .05, r = .83.

Result of the Overall Factors Indicating the Quality of Life of the Beneficiaries of Each NGOs

Jeevan Jyoti

The Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of Jeevan Jyoti is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 172.00) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 72.00), z = 12.168, p < .05, r = .86.

World Vision

The Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of World Vision is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 142.50) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 88.50), z = 12.252, p < .05, r = .87.

Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan

The Quality of Life of the beneficiaries of Shashwat Sahabhagi Sansthan is significantly better after intervention (Mdn = 164.50) than it was before intervention (Mdn = 125.50), z = 10.886, p < .05, r = .77.

5. 2 Findings

The results of the analysis of data show that the assumptions have been proved right.

- 5.2.1. There is a significant difference before the intervention of the NGOs and after the interventions of the NGOs on all the dimensions selected for the research.
- 5.2.2. The interventions of the NGOs have been effective and have made positive contribution in the lives of the beneficiaries of the NGOs in the rural district of Sitapur.
- 5.2.3. The training and educational activities have helped in improving the quality of lives of the beneficiaries of NGOs in the rural district of Sitapur.
- 5.2.4. The beneficiaries of the NGOs are reasonably positive towards the interventions of the NGOs
- 5.2.5. The significant differences after or due to the interventions of the NGOs on the dimensions of the research indicates that the interventions of the NGOs are leading to a healthy and quality life in the rural areas of Sitapur and has a direct influence on human development and enhance human resource development.
- 5.2.6. The interventions of the NGOs in the rural population of the Sitapur are bringing in positive attitudinal changes in the lives of the beneficiaries.
- 5.2.7. The interventions of the NGOs have helped to improve education, health, social competence, intellectual flexibility, livelihood security and leadership skills of the beneficiaries in the district of Sitapur.
- 5.2.8. The interventions of the NGOs have positively helped to manage the lives of the beneficiaries better by active initiative, better time management, emotional control and instilling in them self confidence and achievement motivation.

5. 3 Difficulty Level of the Study

- 5.3.1. The respondents might have been biased in favour of their NGOs.
- 5.3.2. Lack of proper comprehension of the factors due to lack of education.
- 5.3.3. Lack of seriousness about the subject under study.
- 5.3.4. Non availability of proper secondary data and lack of quality pre-assessment studies with the NGOs before the interventions and implementation of their projects in the rural areas.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Study

An in depth organizational study of the NGOs may be necessary with regard to their objectives, policies and programmes and their implementation to gain comprehensive data and see its impact on the beneficiaries. Every NGO work with a particular objectives in mind and hence each NGO is different in nature and kind and hence classification of NGOs may be made and NGOs could be studied and analyzed on their objectives and resulting activities. A critical evaluation of the NGOs also may be undertaken to understand the sincerity of purpose. The fields of NGOs are immense and it is an ever-increasing phenomenon in our times due to various reasons. But there are only extremely few studies on NGOs; hence more and more researches could be made on NGOs.

5.5 Conclusion

Despite the enormity of the field of NGOs and the difficulty in measuring the effectiveness of the works of NGOs, this study sheds light on the often forgotten or taken for granted aspects of the valuable work of the NGOs. The national and international developments have created a space and the deprivation and discrimination faced by vast majority of the people of the developing and underdeveloped nations have forced the citizens' organizations and voluntary agencies to fill in the empty space created by the state in the name of structural adjustments and liberalisations. This study was an attempt to see how the genuine voluntary organizations or the NGOs meaningfully address the issue of development especially of the rural population. Often such works in the remotest rural areas of developing and underdeveloped nations go unnoticed. This research highlight this issue with a view to showcase the fact that how at grass root level people are being empowered, how the quality of life of the rural populations being addressed effectively and how opportunities and freedom of choice is extended to the deprived and discriminated.

The development of the human population in the rural areas is a complex task. The government often lacks will and means and hence this study would suggest that there must be a participatory approach. Though the services of the governments cannot be replaced by NGOs they can aid and facilitate development as partners with the government in the rural areas as they are actively engaged in the uplifting and development of the rural population. Such genuine agencies could be taken seriously

and made partners in planning and policy making rather than excluding them or disregarding them.

This research was not conducted to discredit the state or the state agencies or to contest the fact that the primary responsibility of human development and development of human resources vests with the state but to highlight how effectively the genuine voluntary agencies intervene effectively in human development and development of human resources. Hence they can be genuine partners in policy making and development. Hence one of the aims of this research was to suggest that to effectively address the issue of human development and development of human resources in the rural areas in the context of globalization and liberalization, the state needs to collaborate and cooperate with such genuine voluntary organizations and agencies.



Bibliography

- A. G. Noorani. "Stifling the NGOs." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 36, No. 29 (Jul. 21-27, 2001), pp. 2731-2732. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Akukwe, C. (1998). The growing influence of Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in international health: Challenges and Oppertunities. *The Journal for the Royal Society for the Promotion of Health, 118* (2), 107-115.
- Ali Hassan Obaid Khalil, Maimunah Ismail, Turiman Suandi and Abu Daud Silong. "Human resource development competencies as predictors of agricultural extension agents' performance in Yemen". *Human Resource Development International* Vol. 12, No. 4, September 2009, 429–447. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Amitabh Behar. "Revitalising Panchayati Rajs: Role of NGOs." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 33, No. 16 (Apr. 18-24, 1998), pp. 881-882. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- AmitPradhan. "NGOs as Employers". *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 39, No. 26 (Jun. 26 Jul. 2, 2004), p. 2650. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly
- Andersson-Brolin, L., Ole-Memiri, B.L., Michanel, E., &Ndagala, D. (1991). *The Art of Survival: A Study of Sustainability in Health Projects*. Stockhom: SIDA
- Andreas Rauch, Michael Frese, Andreas Utsch. "Effects of Human Capital and Long-Term Human Resources Development and Utilization on Employment Growth of Small-Scale Businesses: A Causal Analysis." ET & P. Baylor University, 2005.
- Anheier, H., Glasius, M., &Kaldor, M., (2001) Global Civil Society. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Anheier, H.K., & Seibel, W. (eds). (1990). *The Third Sector: Comparative Studies of Nonprofit Organizations*. Berlin, de Gruyter. Application. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Argyris, C. (1970). Intervention, Theory, and Method. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Barr, A., &Fafchamps, M. (2006). A client-community assessment of the ngo sector in uganda. *Journal of Development Studies*, 42 (4), 611-639. □
- Baruch, Y., &Ramalho, N. (2006). Communalities and distinctions in the measurement of organizational performance and effectiveness across for-profit and nonprofit sectors.
- Behling, O., &Schriesheim, C. (1976). Organizational Behavior: Theory, Research, and Benotsch, E.G.; Stevenson, L.Y.; Sitzler, C.A.; Kelly, J.A.; Makhaye, G.; Mathey, E.D.; Somlai, A.M.; Brown, K.D.; Amirkhanian, Y.; Fernandez, I.; Opgenorth, K.M. (2004). HIV prevention in Africa: Programs and Populations served by Nongovernmental Organizations. *Journal of Community Health*, 29 (4), 319-336.
- Billis, D., & Harris, M. (1992). Taking the strain of change: U.K. local voluntary agencies enter the post- thatcher period. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 21 (3), 211-225.
- Bloch, D., & Borges, N. (2002). Organizational Learning in NGOs: An Example of an Intervention Based on the Work of Chris Argyris. *Development in Practice*, 12 (3 & 4), 461-472.
- Bossert, T.J. (1990). Can they get along without us? Sustainability of donor-supported health projects in central America and africa. *Social Science and Medicine*, 30 (9), 1015-1023.
- Bovaird, T., &Rubienska, A. (1996). "Marketing in the Voluntary Sector," in Osborne, S. (Ed.), *Managing the Voluntary Sector: A Handbook for Managers in Charitable and Non Profit Organizations*, International Thomson Press, London.
- Brian K. Murphy. "International NGOs and the Challenge of Modernity." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 10, No. 3/4, 10th Anniversary Issue (Aug., 2000), pp.330-347. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/402956.

- Brown, W.A. (2005). Exploring the Association Between Board and Organizational Performance in Nonprofit Organizations. *Nonprofit Leadership and Management*, 15 (3), 317-339.
- Burke, W., &Litwin, G. (1992). A Casual Model of Organizational Performance and Change. *Journal of Management*, 18 (3), 523-545.
- CA. Guo, C., & Brown, W.A. (2006). Community Foindation Performance: Bridging Community Resources and Needs. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 35 (2), 267-287.
- Cândido, Grzybowski. "We NGOs: A Controversial Way of Being and Acting." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 10, No. 3/4, (Aug., 2000), pp.436-444. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Carroll, G.R. (1985). Concentration and Specialization: Dynamics of Niche Width in Populations of Organizations. *American Journal of Sociology*, 90 (6), 1262-1283.
- Cavil, S., &Sohail, M., (2007). Increasing Strategic Accountability: A Framework for International NGOs. *Development in Practice*, *17* (2), 231-248. □
- Christen, C.T. (2005). The Restructuring and Reengineering of AT&T: Analysis of a Public Relations Crisis Using Organizational Theory. *Public Relations Review*, 31, 239-251. □
- Collingwood, V. (2006). Non-governmental Organizations, Power and Legitimacy in International Society. *Review of International Studies*, *32*, 439-454. □
- Dartington, T. (1996). Leadership and Management: Oedipal Struggles. *Leadership &* David A. Lertzman and Harrie Vredenburg. "Indigenous Peoples, Resource Extraction and Sustainable Development: An Ethical Approach." *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 56, No. 3 (Feb., 2005), pp. 239-254. Published by: Springer.
- David, Lewis (2003). "NGOs, Organization Culture, and Institutional Sustainability." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 590, (Nov., 2003), pp. 212-226. Published by: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Deba, Ranjan, Sarangi (2003). "State, NGOs and Tribals." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 38, No. 1 (Jan. 4-10, 2003), p. 84. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.

- Waring, Peter., and Edwards, Tony (2008). "Socially Responsible Investment: Explaining its Uneven Development and Human Resource Management Consequences." CORPORATE GOVERNANCE. Volume 16 Number 3. Blackwell Publishing Ltd: May 2008.
- Earthscan, Fowler, A. (2000). NGDOs as a Moment in History: Beyond Aid to Social Entrepreneurship or Civic Innovation. *Third World Quarterly*, 21 (4), 637-654.
- Ebrahim, A. (2003). Accountability in Practice: Mechanisms for NGOs. *World Development*, 31(5), 813-829.
- Edwards, M. (1999). 'Legitimacy and Values in NGOs and Voluntary Organizations: Some Skeptical Thoughts.' In D. Lewis (Ed.). *International Perspectives on Voluntary Action*. London: Earthscan.
- Edwards, M. (1999). Ngo Performance- What Breeds Success? New Evidence from South Asia. *World Development*, 27 (2), 361-374.
- Edwards, M. (2004). *Civil Society*. Polity Press: Cambridge. Edwards, M., & Hulme, D. (1992). Scaling up NGO Impact on Developing: Learning from Experience. *Development in Practice*, 2 (2), 77-91.
- Edwards, M., & Hulme, D. (1996). Too Close for Comfort? The Impact of Official Aid on Non Governmental Organizations. *World Development*, 24 (6), 961-973.
- Emma, Harris, Curtis (2003). "Rights-Based Approaches: Issues for NGOs." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 13, No. 5 (Nov., 2003), pp. 558-564. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Farrington, J., &Bebbington, A., Wells, K., & Lewis, D. (1993). *Reluctant Partners?*NGOs, The State, and Sustainable Agricultural Development.

 Routledge: London.
- Fisher, W.F., (1997). Doing good? The politics and Antipolitics of NGO Practices. Annual Review of Anthropology, 26, 439-464.
- Fowler, A. (1997). Striking a Balance: A Guide to Enhancing the Effectiveness of Non-
- Frankish, C.J. (2006). Setting a Foundation: Underlying Values and Structures of Health.

- Fredrick, Muyia, Nafukho., Nancy, R. Hairston, and Kit, Brooks, (2004). "Human Capital Theory: Implications for Human Resource Development." HRDI 7:4 (2004), pp. 545–551. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Froelich, K. (1999). Diversification of Revenue Strategies: Evolving Resource Dependence in Non-Profit Organizations. *Non-profit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 28 (3), 246-268.
- Fruttero, A., &Gauri, V. (2005). The Strategic Choices of NGOs: Location Decision in Rural Bangladesh. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 41 (5), 759-787.
- G., Ananda, Vadivelu, (1999). "The State and NGOs." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 34, No. 46/47 (Nov. 20-26, 1999), p. 3246. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- G. S. Bhalla ., and Peter, Hazell, (2003). "Rural Employment and Poverty: Strategies to Eliminate Rural Poverty within a Generation." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 38, No. 33 (Aug. 16-22, 2003), pp. 3473-3484. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Gilson, L., Sen, P.D., Mohammed, S., & Mujinja, P. (1994). The Potential of Health Sector Non Governmental Organizations: Policy Options. *Health Policy and Planning*, *9* (1), 14-24.
- Gomez-Jauregui, J. (2001). The Feasibility of Government Partnerships with NGOs in the Reproductive Health Field in Mexico. *Reproductive Health Matters*, 12, 42-55.
- Gonella, C., Pilling, A., &Zadek, S. (1999). *Making Values Count: Contemporary Experience in Social and Ethical Accounting, Auditing, and Reporting*. London: The Association of Chartered Accountants.
- Gordenker, L., & Weiss, T.G. (1995). Pluralising Global Governance: Analytical Approaches and Dimensions. *Third World Quarterly*, 16 (3), 358-387. *Governmental Organizations in International Development*. London:
- Green, A., &Mathais, A. (1997). Non-governmental Organizations and Health in Developing Countries. Macmillan Press LTD: New York.
- Green, S.B. (1991). How Many Subjects Does it Take to do Regression Analysis? Multivariate Behavioral Research, 26, 499-510.
- Greg, G., Wang, and Judy, Y. Sun, (2009). "Clarifying the boundaries of human resource development." *Human Resource Development International*,

- Vol. 12, No. 1, February 2009, 93–103. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Gronbjerg, K. (1993). Understanding Non-profit Funding: Managing Reviews in Social Services and Community Development Organizations, Jossey-Bass, San Fransico,
- Habemas, J. (1989). The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An inquiry into the Category of Bourgeois Society, trans. Thomas Burger, Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Hannan, M.T., & Freeman, J. (1977). The Population Ecology of Organizations. *American Journal of Sociology*, 88, 1116-1145.
- Hashemi, S. (1992). "State and NGO Support Networks in Rural Bangledesh: Concepts and Coalitions for Control. Copenhagen, Denmark.: Centre for Development Research.
- Heimovics, R., Kotlererman, R., & Coughlin, C. (1993). Executive Leadership and Resource Dependence in NGOS: A frame analysis. *Public Administration Review*, 53 (5), 419-427.
- Hildy, Teegen., Jonathan, P. Doh., Sushil, Vachani (2004). "The Importance of Nongovernmental Organizations (NGOs) in Global Governance and Value Creation: An International Business Research Agenda." *Journal* of *International Business Studies*, Vol. 35, No. 6 (Nov., 2004), pp. 463-483. Published by: Palgrave Macmillan Journals.
- Hurley, R.E., & Kaluzny, A.D. (1987). Organizational Ecology and Health Services Research: New Answers for Old and New Questions. *Medical Care Review*, 44 (2), 235-255.
- Hutchinson, G.E. (1957). Concluding Remarks. *Cold Spring Harbor Symposium on Quantitative Biology*, 22, 415-427.
- Jareg, P., &Kaseje, D.C.O. (1998). Growth of Civil Society in Developing Countries: Implications for Health. *Lancet*, *351* (9105), 819-823.
- Jayati, Srivastava (2005). "NGOs at World Trade Organisation: The 'Democratic' Dimension". *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 40, No. 19 (May 7-13, 2005), pp. 1952-1957. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Jayati, Srivastava, (2005). "NGOs at World Trade Organisation: The 'Democratic' Dimension" *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 40, No. 19 (May 7-

- 13, 2005), pp. 1952-1957 Published by: Economic and Political Weekly
- Joan, Mencher, (1999). "NGOs: Are They a Force for Change?" *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 34, No. 30 (Jul. 24-30, 1999), pp. 2081-2086. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Jude L. Fernando (2003). "NGOs and Production of Indigenous Knowledge under the Condition of Post modernity." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 590, (Nov., 2003), pp. 54-72. Published by: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Judge, W.Q. (1994). Correlates of Organizational Effectiveness: A Multilevel Analysis of a Multidimensional Outcome. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 13, 1-10.
- K. Peter Kuchinke (2010). Human development as a central goal for human resource development. (September 2010). Human Resource Development International Vol. 13, No. 5, November 2010, 575–585. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Kanji, N., Kilima, P.M., Munishi, G.M. (1992). Quality of Care in Primary Curative Care in Dar es Salaam. London: Health Policy Unit, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.
- Kanter, R., & Summers, D. (1987). "Doing Well While Doing Good: Dilemmas in Performance Measurement in Non-Profit Organizations and the Need for Multiple-Constituency Approach," in Powell W.W. (Ed.), *The Non-profit Sector: A Research Handbook*. London: Yale University Press.
- Kekic, L. (2007). The Economist Intelligence Units Index of Democracy. In the Economist, *The World in 2007*.
- Kelly, L., Kilby, P., & Kasynathan, N. (2004). Impact Measurement for NGOs: Experiences from India and Sri Lanka. *Development in Practice*, 14 (5), 696-702.
- Kilby, P. (2006). Accountability for Empowerment: Dilemmas Facing Non-governmental Organizations. *World Development*, *34* (6), 951-963.
- Kim, H.R. (2000). The State and Civil Society in Transition: The Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in South Korea. *The Pacific Review, 13* (4), 595-613.

- King, A. (2001). *The Primary Health Care Strategy*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Health.
- Korne, Lia, Laza, Nyi (2011). "Reflections on the 11th International Conference on Human Resource Development Research and Practice across Europe, Pecs, Hungary: looking through the lens of global mobility". *Human Resource Development International*, Vol. 14, No. 1, February 2011, 75–82. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Lambell, R., Ramia, G., Nyland, C., & Michelotti, M. (2008). Ngos and International Business Research: Progress, Prospects, and Problems. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 10 (1), 75-92.
- Lavalette, M., & Ferguson, I. (2007). Democratic Language and Neoliberal Practice: The Problem with Civil Society. *International Social Work*, *50* (4), 447-459.
- Leat, D. (1995). "Funding matters," in Davis, J. (Ed.), *An Introduction to the Voluntary Sector*. Routeledge, London, pp. 157-189.
- Leonard. K.L., & Leonard, D.K. (2004). The Political Economy of Improving Health Care for the Poor in Rural Africa: Institutional solutions to the Principle-Agent Problem. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 40 (4), 50-77.
- Lewis, D., &Madon, S. (2004). Information Systems and Nongovernmental Development Organizations: Advocacy, Organizational Learning, and Accountability. *The Information Society*, 20, 117-126.
- Lidewey, E. C., & Van, Der, Sluis, (2007). "Umbrella for Research into Human Resource Development (HRD)." Human Resource Development International, Vol. 10, No. 1, 99 106, March 2007. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Lister, S. (2003). Ngo legitimacy: Technical issue or social construct? *Critique of Anthropology*, 23 (2), 175-192.
- Logister, L. (2007). Global Governance and Civil Society. Some Reflections on NGO Legitimacy. *Journal of Global Ethics*, *3* (2), 165-179.
- M. Srimannarayana (2008). "Human Resources Development Climate in India". IJIR, Vol. 44, No. 2, October 2008.

- Macedo, I.M., & Pinho, J.C. (2006). The Relationship Between Resource Dependence and Market Orientation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 40 (5/6), 533-553.
- Malawski, F. (1993). The Evolving Role of Non-governmental Actors. *Journal of International Affairs*, 46 (2), 391-414.
- Martens, K. (2002). Mission Impossible? Defining Nongovernmental Organizations. Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations, 13 (3), 271-285.
- MATTEO RIZZO (2009). The Struggle for Alternatives: NGOs' Responses to the World Development Report 2008. *Journal of Agrarian Change, Vol. 9 No. 2, April 2009, pp. 277–290.*
- Mburu, F.M. (1989). Non-government Organization in the Health Field: Collaboration, Integration, and Contrasting Aims in Africa. *Social Science and Medicine*, 29 (5), 591-597.
- Mebrahtu, E. (2002). Perceptions and Practices of Monitoring and Evaluation: International NGO Experiences in Ethopia. *Development in Practice*, 12 (3/4), 501-517.
- Mercer, A., Khan, M.H., Daulatuzzaman, M., & Reid, J. (2004). Effectiveness of Primary Health Care Programme in Rural Bangladesh: Evidence from the Management Information System. *Health Policy and Planning*, 19 (4), 187-198.
- Mercer, A., Uddin, N., Huq, N.L., Haseen, F., Khan, M.H., & Larson, C.P. (2006). Validating Neonatal Mortality and Use of NGO Reproductive Health Outreach Services in Rural Bangladesh. *Studies in Family Planning*, 37 (2), 111-121.
- MesutAkdere (2001). "Social Capital Theory and Implications for Human Resource Development." *Singapore Management Review*, Volume 27 No 2. 2001
- Meyer, C., (1992). A Step Back as Donor Shifts in Institution Building from the Public to the 'Private' Sector. *World Development*, 20 (8), 1115-1126.
- Michael, Edwards, and Gita, Sen, (2000). "NGOS, Social Change and the Transformation of Human Relationships: A 21st-Century Civic Agenda." *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 21, No. 4, (Aug., 2000), pp.605-616. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/3993367.

- Mingzheng, Xiao (2003). "Human resource development issues in the implementation
- Mokbul Morshed Ahmad. "Distant Voices: The Views of the Field Workers of NGOs in Bangladesh on Microcredit." *The Geographical Journal*, Vol. 169, No. 1 (Mar., 2003), pp. 65-74. Published by: Blackwell Publishing.
- Morin, E., Savoie, A., & Beaudin, G. (1994). Lefficacite de l' Organization: Theories, Representations et Measures [Organization Effectiveness: Theories, representation, and measure]. Montreal, Canada: Gaetan Morin Editeur.
- Morris, T. (2007). Internal and External Sources of Organizational Change: Corporate Form and the Banking Industry. *The Sociological Quarterly, 48*, 119-140.
- Mugisha, F., Birungi, H., & Askew, I. (2005). Are Reproductive Health NGOs in Uganda Able to Engage in the Health Swap? *International Journal of Health Planning and Management*, 20, 227-238.
- Nauro F. Campos, Feisal U. Khan, Jennifer E. Tessendorf, (2004). "From Substitution to Complementarity: Some Econometric Evidence on the Evolving NGO-State Relationship in Pakistan". *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 37, No. 2 (Spring, 2004), pp. 49-72. Published by: College of Business, Tennessee State University.
- Nauro F. Campos, Feisal, U. Khan, Jennifer E. Tessendorf, (2004). "From Substitution to Complementarity: Some Econometric Evidence on the Evolving NGO-State Relationship in Pakistan." *The Journal of Developing Areas*, Vol. 37, No. 2 (Spring, 2004), pp. 49-72. Published by: College of Business, Tennessee State University.
- Nicola Pratt, (2004). "Bringing Politics Back in: Examining the Link between Globalization and Democratization". *Review of International Political Economy*, Vol. 11, No. 2 (May, 2004), pp. 311-336. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Nienhuser, W. (2008). Resource Dependence Theory. How Well Does it Explain Behavior of Organizations. *Management Revue*, 19 (1/2), 9-32.
- Nisha, Nambisan. Manikoth, Olga, Verkhohlyad, RolaChamiMalaeb, and

- Nonita, Yap, (1990). "NGOs and Sustainable Development." *International Journal*, Vol. 45, No. 1, (Winter,1989/1990), pp. 75-105. Published by: Canadian International Council.
- Okello, D.O., Lubanga, R., Guwatudde, D., & Sebina-Zziwa, A. (1998). The Challenge to Restoring Basic Health Care in Uganda. *Social Science Medicine*, 46 (1), 13-21.
- Olson, D.E. (2000). Agency Theory in the Not-for-Profit Sector. Its Role at Independent Colleges. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 29, 280-296. *Organizational Development Journal*, 17 (6), 12-16.
- Paxman, J.M., Sayeed, A., Buxbaum, A., Huber, S.C., & Stover, C. (2005). The India Local Initiatives Program: A Model for Expanding Reproductive and Child Health Services. *Studies in Family Planning*, *36* (3), 203-220.
- Pearce J., (1997). Between Co-Option and Irrelevance: Latin American NGO's in the 1990's, in D. Hulme and M. Edwards (eds). *NGOs*, *States*, *and Donors: Too Close for Comfort?* Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G.R. (1978; 2003). The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective. New York.
- Pfeiffer, J., (2003). International NGOs and Primary Health Care in Mozambique: The Need for a New Model of Collaboration. *Social Science & Medicine*, *56*, 725-738.
- Piyasiri, Wickramasekara, and Piyasiri, Wickramasekhra. (1990). "Rural Employment Generation Schemes: Review of Asian Experiences." *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 25, No. 4 (Apr., 1990), pp. 354-371. Published by: Shri Ram Centre for Industrial Relations and Human Resources.
- Pravin, Sinha (2004). "Representing Labour in India." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 14, No. 1/2 (Feb., 2004), pp. 127-135. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Prechel, H. (2000). *Big Business and the State: Historical Transitions and Corporate Transformations*, 1880s-1990s. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Prema-Chandra Athukorala; Chris Manning and Piyasiri Wickramasekara (2001). "
 Growth, Employment and Migration in Southeast Asia: Structural
 Change in the Greater Mekong Countries". The Journal of Asian

- Studies, Vol. 60, No. 1 (Feb., 2001), pp. 284-286. Published by: Association for Asian Studies.
- Rajni Kothari (1986). "NGOs, the State and World Capitalism." *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 21, No. 50 (Dec. 13, 1986), pp. 2177-2182. Published by: Economic and Political Weekly.
- Ricardo Wilson-Grau (2003). "The Risk Approach to Strategic Management in Development NGOs." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 13, No. 5 (Nov., 2003), pp. 533-536. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Richard a. Swanson (2007). Defining Intergalactic Human Resource Development (IHRD). *Human Resource Development International*, Vol. 10, No. 4, 455 457. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group, December 2007.
- Riddell, R., & Robinson, M., (1992). "The Impact of NGO Poverty Alleviation Projects: Results of Case Study Evaluations," Working Papers No. 68 (London: Overseas Development Institute).
- Riddell, R., Kruse, S.E., Kyollen, T., Ojanpera, S., &Vielajus, J.L. (1997). Searching for Impact and Methods: NGO Evaluation Synthesis Study. A Report Produced for the OECD/DAC Expert Group on Evaluation. Department for International Development Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Helsinki. Retrieved on May 20, 2008 from http://www.valt.helsinki.fi/ids/ngo.
- Riddell, R.C. (1997). Evaluating NGO Development Interventions. In D. Lewis (Ed.),
- Robbins, S.P. (2005). *Essentials of Organizational Behavior*. (8thed.). Uppersaddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Robinson, M., (1993). "Governance, Democracy, and Conditionality: NGOs and the New Policy Agenda," in A. Clayton (Ed.), *Governance, Democracy, and Conditionality: What Role for NGOs?* Oxford: INTRAC.
- Roche, C. (1999). Impact Assessment for Development Agencies: Learning to Value Change. Oxford: Oxfam, GB.
- Rosenberg, A., Hartwig, K., & Merson, M. (2008). Government-NGO Collaboration and Sustainability of Orphans and Vulnerable Children Projects in South Africa. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *31*, 51-60.
- Salamon, L.M., &Anheier, H.K. (1992). In Search of the Non-Profit Sector II: The Problem of Classification. *Voluntas*, *3* (3), 267-309.

- Sangeeta, Kamat (2004). "The Privatization of Public Interest: Theorizing NGO Discourse in a Neoliberal Era." *Review of International Political Economy*, Vol. 11, No. 1 (Feb., 2004), pp. 155-176. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Sarosh Kuruvilla And Aruna Ranganathan (2008). "Economic Development Strategies and Macroand Micro-Level Human Resource Policies: The Case Of India's "Outsourcing" Industry." *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, Vol. 62, No. 1 (October 2008). Cornell University.
- Sarriot, E.G., Winch, P.J., Ryan, L.J., Edison, J., Bowie, J., Swedberg, E., & Welch, R. (2004).Qualitative Research to Make Practical Sense of Sustainability in Primary Health Care Projects Implemented by Non-Governmental Organizations. *International Journal of Health Planning and Management*, 19, 3-22.
- Sheila Carapico (2000). "NGOs, INGOs, GO-NGOs and DO-NGOs: Making Sense of Non-Governmental Organizations." *Middle East Report*, No. 214, (Spring, 2000), pp. 12-15. Published by: Middle East Research and Information Project (MERIP).
- Shelley Feldman (1997). "NGOs and Civil Society: (Un)stated Contradictions". *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 554, (Nov., 1997), pp. 46-65. Published by: Sage Publications, Inc. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1049566.
- Sheppard, J.P. (1995). A Resource Dependence Approach to Organizational Failure. *Social Science Research*, 24 (1), 1-18.
- Singh, J.V., & Lumsden, C.L. (1990). Theory and Research in Organizational Ecology. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 16, 161-195.
- Smillie, I., & Helmich, H. (1993). Non-Governmental Organizations and Governments; Stakeholders for Development .Paris: OECD.
- Sogge, D., ed. (1996). *Compassion and Calculation: the Business of Private Foreign Aid.* London: Pluto Press.
- Sollis, P., (1992). Multilateral Agencies, NGOs and Policy Reform. *Development in Practice*, 2 (3), 163-178.
- Steel, B.S., Henderson, S., & Warner, R.L. (2007). NGOs and the Development of Civil Society in Bulgaria and the USA: A Comparative Analysis. *Innovation*, 20 (1), 35-52.

- Swaminathan, A. (1995). The Proliferation of Specialist Organizations in the American Wine Industry, 1941-1990. *Administrative Sciences Quarterly*, 40, 653-680.
- T. S. Papola (1994). "Employment Growth and Social Protection of Labour in India". *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 30, No. 2 (Oct., 1994), pp. 117-143. Published by: Shri Ram Centre for Industrial Relations and Human Resources. URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/27767349.
- Tendler, J. (1982). "Ventures in the Informal Sector and How They Worked out in Brazil." Evaluation Specialty Studies, No. 12. Washington, DC: US Agency for International Development.
- Thomas, S.M. (2004). Building Communities of Character: Foreign Aid Policy and Faith Based Organizations. *SAIS Review*, 24 (2), 133-148.
- Ullah, A.N.Z., Newell, J.N., Ahmed, J.U., Hyder, M.K.A., & Islam, A. (2006). Government-NGO Collaboration: The Case of Tuberculosis Control in Bangladesh. *Health Policy & Planning*, 21 (2), 143-155.
- UNICEF (1996). The State of the Worlds Children, 1996. New York: UNICEF.
- URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/4408607.
- Uvin, P., & Weiss, T.G. (1998). The United Nations and NGOs: Global Civil Society and
- Uvin, P., Jain, P., & Brown, L.D. (2000). Think Large and Act Small: Toward a New Paradigm for NGO Scaling Up. *World Development*, 28 (8),1409-1419.
- Vakil, A.C. (1997). Confronting the Classification Problems: Towards a Taxonomy of NGOs. *World Development*, 25 (12), 2057-2070.
- Vijay Padaki (2007). "The Human Organisation: Challenges in NGOs and Development Programmes." *Development in Practice*, Vol. 17, No. 1 (Feb., 2007), pp. 65-77. Published by: Taylor & Francis, Ltd.
- Vivian, J., (1994). NGOs and Sustainable Development in Zimbababwe. *Development and Change*, 25, 181-209.
- Walsh, D.C., & Lenihan, H. (2006). Accountability and Effectiveness of NGOs: Adapting Business Tools Successfully. *Development in Practice*, 16 (5), 412-424. Westpoint, CT, pp. 213-238.

- World Health Organization (1995). The World Health Report 1995: Bridging the Gaps. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (1978). Declaration of Alma Ata. Retrieved on July, 8, 2008 from www.who.int/hpr/MPH/docs/declaration_almaata.pdf.
- World Health Organization. (2001). The World Health Report: Reducing Risks, Promoting Healthy Life. Geneva: WHO.
- Yanacopulos, H. (2005). The strategies that bind: NGO coalitions and their influence. Global Networks: A Journal of Transnational Affairs, 5, 93-110.
- Yianna Lambrou (1997). "The Changing Role of NGOs in Rural Chile after Democracy." *Bulletin of Latin American Research*, Vol. 16, No. 1, (1997), pp. 107-116. Published by: Blackwell Publishing.
- Yin-Che Chen (2011). "Evaluation of Human Resources using Development Performance Management (DPM): A Study among Schools in Taiwan". International Journal of Management, Vol. 28 No. 4 Part 1 Dec 2011. Taiwan: National Hsinchu University of Education.
- Dyke, Elizabeth; Edwards, Nancy; McDowell, Ian; Muga, Richard; Brown, Stephen.(2014). Shaped by asymmetrical interdependence: a qualitative case study of the external influences on international non-governmental organizations' implementation of equity principles in HIV/AIDS work. International Journal for Equity in Health, 13:86.
- Hassan, Azizul; Forhad, Ahmed. (2013). Contributions of the Non Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh Are They Merely a Hegemony of Tagging 'Sustainability'?. Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review 2.9 pp. 14-26.
- Jessica R. Goldberger. (2008). Non-governmental organizations, strategic bridge building, and the "scientization" of organic agriculture in Kenya. Agriculture and Human Values (2008) 25. Pp. 271–289. Springer 2007 (Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, USA)
- Vatamanescu, Elena-Madalina; Pînzaru, Florina; Anghel, Lucian Claudiu. (2014). A Managerial Perspective on Common Identity-Based and Common Bond-Based Groups in Non-Governmental Organizations. Patterns of Interaction, Attachment and Social Network Configuration. Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy 2.2. pp. 265-282.

- Maria Svidronova (2014). Comparison of Development of Non-governmental Organizations and the Current State of Their Funding in Review Of Economic Perspectives VOL. 14, ISSUE 3, 2014, pp. 267–286,
- Kelly, Robert Edwin. (2005).'A lot more than the NGOs seem to think': The impact of non-governmental organizations on the Bretton Woods Institutions. USA: The Ohio State University.
- Ismail, Muhammad. (2012). Study on the Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Imparting Primary Education in Pakistan Dr. Hameed-Ur-Rehman. Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research In Business 4.1 (May 2012). Pp. 751-769.
- Sitek, Anna. (2013). Economic and Social Development. Pp. 807-813. Varazdin: Development and Entrepreneurship Agency.
- Bradaschia, Leila M. (2008). Non-Governmental Organizations and Public Primary Education in Nicaragua. Ann Arbor: United States.
- Chalhoub, Michel Soto. (2009). The Effect of Management Practices on Corporate Performance: An Empirical Study of Non-Governmental Organizations in the Middle East. International Journal of Management, 26.1. Poole: United Kingdom. pp. 51-76.
- Guay, Terrence; Doh, Jonathan P; Sinclair, Graham. (2004). Non-governmental Organizations, Shareholder Activism, and Socially Responsible Investments: Ethical, Strategic, and Governance Implications. Journal of Business Ethics 52.1. Dordrecht: Springer Science & Business Media. pp. 125-139.
- Chimiak, Galia. (2014). The Rise and Stall of Non-Governmental Organizations in Development. Polish Sociological Review, 185 Warsaw: Polish Sociological Association. pp. 25-44.
- Mittman, Juliane Renee. (1998). Building from the bottom up: A user's guide to the capacity building of local non-governmental organizations
- Gibson, Patrick E. (2000). Non-governmental development organizations and the state, 1968—1993. Canada: Carleton University
- Mashinini, Mkhize Timothy. (2000). The role of non-governmental organizations in helping African students gain access to tertiary education in South Africa. United States: Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company.

- Yagub, Abdallah I A. (2014). Collaboration between Government and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Delivering Curative Health Services in North Darfur State, Sudan- a National ReportIranian Journal of Public Health 43.5 pp. 561-571.
- Duru, Annie N. (2011). Understanding Men's Interference in Women's Empowerment and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Nigeria: A Gender Comparison Howard University,
- Islam, M Rezaul; Morgan, W John. (2012). Agents of Community Empowerment? The Possibilities and Limitations of Non-Governmental Organizations in Bangladesh. Journal of Community Positive Practices, 12.4 pp. 703-725.

Appendix-1

Data Collection Tool

PERCEPTION ANALYSIS TOOL TO MEASURE THE IMPACT OF NGOS INTERVENTIONS AMONG RURAL POPULATION

A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE 1) Name: 2) Age: 3) Gender Male Female 4) Religion 5) Caste 6) Marital Status 7) Education
8. Employment Status Are you currently?
a) Employed
b) Unemployed
If answer is (a) then move to question no. 9. If answer is (b) then jump to question no.11.
9. If employed kindly describe the kind of employment-
a) Private job
b) Public sector job
c) Self employed
10. Did any organization or NGO play any role/helped you in getting the employment
11. Household Income
What is your total household income?
a) Less than one lakh
b) Less than two lakh
c) Less than three lakh
d) Less than four lakh
e) Less than five lakh
f) Above five lakh
12. The source of my income
Government job
Private job
Self-employment Self-employment
Agriculture
Business
Any other (please specify)

B. PERCEPTION ANALYSIS

Sl.No.	Indicator	F	Befo	re th		iterv 3Os	enti	ion (of
1	I plan and use my time efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2	I am successful in social situations.								
3	When working on a project, I do my best to get the details right when important things are to be done.								
4	I change my thinking or opinions easily if there is a better idea.								
5	I can get people to work for me.								
6	I can stay calm in stressful situations.								
7	I like to be busy and actively involved in things of the society and family.								
8	I know I have the ability to do anything I want to do.								
9	I am able to do useful activities with the time available and do not waste time.								
10	I am competent in social situations.								
11	I try to get the best results when I do things.								
12	I am open to new ideas.								
13	I take leadership when something needs to be done.								
14	I stay calm and overcome anxiety in new or changing								
15	I like to be active and energetic in performing my responsibilities and activities.								
16	When I apply myself to something I am confident I will								
17	I manage the way I use my time well.								
18	I communicate well with people.								
19	I try to do the best that I possibly can.								
20	I am adaptable and flexible in my thinking and ideas.								
21	As a leader I motivate other people well when a task needs to done								
22	I stay calm when things go wrong.								
23	I like to be an active and to be part of the activities of society and family.								
24	I believe I can do it								
									L

25	Had opportunities and facilities to increased my knowledge and skills and have changed and improved the way I do my work and activities.				
26	Education has changed my life				-
27	I will use all my means to educate my children				
28	Better health facilities are available				
29	Gained awareness, importance and need of taking care of health				
30	Gained knowledge about health related problems and handle them effectively				
31	I have opportunities to gain more awareness about saving, financial opportunities from banks and other agencies.				
32	My personal income and family income has increased due to involvement in the income generating activities.				
33	I am able to make right investment for me and my family.				
34	I have learned new skills and methods of earning for my family				
35	I can afford to have reasonably nutritious food for me and my family.				
36	I can afford three times meals for me and my family.				

B. PERCEPTION ANALYSIS (After the intervention of the NGOs)

Sl.N o.	Indicator	After the Intervention NGOs							
1	I plan and use my time efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2	I am successful in social situations.								
3	When working on a project, I do my best to get the details right when important things are to be done.								
4	I change my thinking or opinions easily if there is a better idea.								
5	I can get people to work for me.								
6	I can stay calm in stressful situations.								
7	I like to be busy and actively involved in things of the society and family.								
8	I know I have the ability to do anything I want to do.								
9	I am able to do useful activities with the time available and do not waste time.								
10	I am competent in social situations.								
11	I try to get the best results when I do things.								
12	I am open to new ideas.								

13	I take leadership when something needs to be done.					
14	I stay calm and overcome anxiety in new or changing					
15	I like to be active and energetic in performing my	1			1	
13						
	responsibilities and activities.					
16	When I apply myself to something I am confident I will					
10	when rapply myself to something rain confident rwin					
17	I manage the way I use my time well.					
1,	I manage are way I use my time went					
18	I communicate well with people.					
19	I try to do the best that I possibly can.					
20	I am adaptable and flexible in my thinking and ideas.					
21	As a leader I motivate other people well when a task needs to					
	done					
22	T. I. I. I.					
22	I stay calm when things go wrong.					
23	I like to be an active and to be part of the activities of society	-		-		
23	and family.					
	and lummy.					
24	I believe I can do it					
25	Had opportunities and facilities to increased my knowledge and					
	skills and have changed and improved the way I do my work					
	and activities.					
26	Education has changed my life					
27	7 19 19	1				
27	I will use all my means to educate my children					
28	Better health facilities are available			\vdash		
29	Gained awareness, importance and need of taking care of health					
30	Gained awareness, importance and need of taking care of health Gained knowledge about health related problems and handle					
30	them effectively					
31	I have opportunities to gain more awareness about saving,					
	financial opportunities from banks and other agencies.					
32	My personal income and family income has increased due to					
	involvement in the income generating activities.					
33	I am able to make right investment for me and my family.					
34	I have learned new skills and methods of earning for my family		-			
35	I can afford to have reasonably nutritious food for me and my					
2.5	family.			$\vdash \vdash$		
36	I can afford three times meals for me and my family.					

Appendix-2

Formulas Used

Mean:
$$M = \frac{\sum x}{N}$$

Standard Deviation: S.D. =
$$\sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(X - M)^2}{N}}$$

ANOVA:
$$F = \frac{MS_B}{MS_W}$$

Standard Error: S.E.
$$\sigma_D = \sqrt{MS_w \left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2}\right)}$$

T-Score:
$$t = \frac{M_1 \approx M_2}{\sigma_D}$$
 Z-Score:
$$Z = \frac{(X-M)}{\sigma}$$

Z-Score:
$$Z = \frac{(X-M)^2}{\sigma}$$

Here r is effect size:
$$r = \frac{Z}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Methodology for Level of Achievement

$$Achievement = \frac{(Score - Minimum Score)}{(Maximum Score - Minimum Score)}$$

Achievement Levels	Value
Very Low	0.00 to 0.20
Low	0.20 to 0.40
Moderate	0.40 to 0.60
High	0.60 to 0.80
Very High	=>0.80

Item Statistics

Item No.	Mean	SD	N
q1d	3.9683	1.50234	63
q2d	3.8571	1.53305	63
q3d	3.8095	1.41258	63
q4d	3.8730	1.60133	63
q5d	3.7460	1.51304	63
q6d	3.6508	1.43862	63
q7d	3.8254	1.55065	63
q8d	3.8889	1.47135	63
q9d	3.7302	1.45032	63
q10d	3.8889	1.49311	63
q11d	3.9206	1.49517	63
q12d	3.7619	1.72004	63
q13d	3.7460	1.73176	63
q14d	3.6825	1.96605	63
q15d	3.6349	1.58929	63
q16d	3.7143	1.65030	63
q17d	3.6667	1.51338	63
q18d	3.8413	1.57814	63
q19d	3.8254	1.56101	63
q20d	3.4921	1.65464	63
q21d	3.9048	1.61359	63
q22d	3.7460	1.31944	63
q23d	3.9365	1.37809	63
q24d	3.5714	1.61359	63
q25d	3.8730	1.59123	63
q26d	3.7937	1.68637	63
q27d	3.8095	1.60500	63
q28d	3.7302	1.78891	63
q29d	3.8095	1.79477	63
q30d	4.0635	1.42414	63
q31d	4.2381	1.53154	63
q32d	4.0000	1.48106	63
q33d	3.7778	1.57033	63
q34d	3.8889	1.51456	63
q35d	3.7937	1.70539	63
q36d	3.8095	1.72138	63

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	3.813	3.492	4.238	.746	1.214	.019	36
Item Variances	2.503	1.741	3.865	2.124	2.220	.181	36
Inter-Item Covariances	1.602	.891	2.870	1.979	3.222	.072	36
Inter-Item Correlations	.647	.311	.868	.557	2.789	.008	36

Item-Total Statistics

q1d	if Item Deleted 133.3016	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Item-Total	Squared Multiple	Alpha if Item
a1d		if Item Deleted	O 1 . '		
a1d	133.3016		Correlation	Correlation	Deleted
1 .		1986.214	.897	.928	.984
q2d	133.4127	1991.537	.839	.852	.984
q3d	133.4603	1999.091	.851	.882	.984
q4d	133.3968	1986.405	.838	.886	.984
q5d	133.5238	1992.479	.843	.855	.984
q6d	133.6190	2004.562	.792	.814	.984
q7d	133.4444	1995.993	.796	.905	.984
q8d	133.3810	2001.465	.797	.869	.984
q9d	133.5397	2012.994	.719	.780	.984
q10d	133.3810	1991.885	.859	.937	.984
q11d	133.3492	1999.521	.799	.906	.984
q12d	133.5079	1985.383	.785	.850	.984
q13d	133.5238	1970.802	.877	.926	.984
q14d	133.5873	1966.956	.790	.926	.984
q15d	133.6349	1996.977	.768	.881	.984
q16d	133.5556	1981.767	.845	.827	.984
q17d	133.6032	1995.308	.821	.853	.984
q18d	133.4286	1997.668	.769	.841	.984
q19d	133.4444	1990.283	.832	.857	.984
q20d	133.7778	1981.111	.847	.891	.984
q21d	133.3651	1988.655	.815	.851	.984
q22d	133.5238	2013.447	.789	.841	.984
q23d	133.3333	2007.677	.802	.919	.984
q24d	133.6984	1999.053	.741	.813	.984
q25d	133.3968	1994.888	.782	.871	.984

Contd...

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
q26d	133.4762	1981.544	.827	.894	.984
q27d	133.4603	2005.543	.699	.906	.984
q28d	133.5397	2007.769	.609	.849	.985
q29d	133.4603	2003.414	.635	.912	.985
q30d	133.2063	2000.199	.835	.890	.984
q31d	133.0317	1994.805	.815	.865	.984
q32d	133.2698	1998.910	.812	.847	.984
q33d	133.4921	2001.770	.743	.841	.984
q34d	133.3810	1994.982	.823	.903	.984
q35d	133.4762	1983.382	.805	.897	.984
q36d	133.4603	1978.736	.829	.921	.984

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items		
137.2698	2108.620	45.91971	36		

Appendix-3

The Baseline Assessment Reports

Before the intervention of the World Vision ADP, Sitapur, the organization conducted an initial baseline Assessment which was very long process. Various methods were used for the successful evaluation of the existing situations the areas where the ADP intended to intervene.

1. Quantitative and Qualitative Tools Used for the Assessment

☐ Qualitative and Quantitative
□ Participatory / extractive
□ Multi-disciplinary
☐ Secondary / primary data sources
2. Uniqueness of the Assessment
☐ Use of participatory empowerment evaluation approach
☐ In-depth study of change in behaviour, attitude, and perception in the community.
☐ Comparative study between staff, volunteers and community
☐ Use of various participatory assessment tools to understand trends
☐ Interfacing the Projects` interventions with the Child Wellbeing Outcome
Framework

3. Major findings of the Baseline Survey

Sectors	Status of communities /key data
Economic	 More than 60 % of the families live below the poverty lie Lack of regular employment, agriculture operations are seasonal Small and marginal farmers jointly constitute 82 % of the farmers in the block. The agriculture infrastructure base is very poor in the communities No input and output service agencies
Health	 Only 20% of the children are fully immunized Superstitions against immunization prevailing in the communities IMR is 90, MMR is 800, 26 % of boys and 28.5 % girls are mal nourished 28 % of the children are administered ORS in times of crisis. Poor prenatal and postnatal practices 53 % of the girls get marred much below the statutory age for marriage - 18 years. prevalence of TB and Malaria in the area, More than 60 % of the deliveries take place at home. 80% of the HH do not have toilet facilities. Large family size and poor Birth spacing, 76% of unmet need in FP.

Contd...

Sectors	Status of communities /key data
Education	 More than half of the population of the block is illiterate More than half of the total female population is illiterate 52.2 % enrolment in primary school children's low learning achievements school drop - outs , especially at high school level, while moving from primary to high school
Poor Infrastructure	 70% of the families in the target are do not have adequate shelter. The road connectivity and transportation facilities in the villages are very poor The target areas do not have adequate health infrastructure facilities. Electricity and telephone facilities are not available in majority of the villages
Social	 Castism is very much prevalent. Crime and domestic violence The gap between the rich and the poor is wide . Various forms of gender discriminations Corrupt and unjust social order and abject poverty. Low self esteem and high degree of hopelessness among poor. Bleak response from Government institutions

4. Specific Sectors of Intervention for World Vision Sitapur ADP

Sl. No	Sector	Name of project			
1	Economic Development	Sitapur Livelihood Development Project			
2	Health	Sitapur Primary Health Care Project			
3	Education	Sitapur Primary Education Project			
4	Sponsorship	Sitapur Sponsorship Management Project			

5. Yearly Budget Distribution for the Sectors

Sl.		Budget [a	ctual] in \$					
N o	Sector	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	20111 [INR]	Total \$
1	Livelihood	0	0	29143	63427	118902	176531	
2	Education	0	0	34673	18997	47303	52531	
3	Health	0	0	27659	12565	36186	38143	
4	Sponsorship		67247	41974	92574	139065	216058	
Tota	.1	54877	67247	133449	187563	341456	483263	
Tota	l INR	2249988	2757127	5471409	8742325	16291503	21930892	57443244

6. The Community Contribution

Year	Major activities	Community Contribution.
2008	EDA, solar lantern	147000
2009	EDA, solar lantern, zero till and bore wells	424000
2010	EDA, solar lantern , bore well , thrasher, Zero till, grain bins , certified seeds, semi organic – kits	1061750
2011	EDA, solar lantern, chaff cutter, Zero till, grain bins, certified seeds- paddy, tri-cycle.	1834000
Total		34,66, 750

7. Major Interventions and Achievements

Year	Major Interventions	Major Accomplishment	Investment
2005 – August	Initiation of the ADP	Opening bank accounts and setting up of Office	INR
2006	Programme Assessment Report	Data collection, Relationship building, initial rapport building and small entry programes	2249988
2007	PDD	Community preparation and supply of 900 CHs implementation of IBSP, Entry programmes	2757127
2008	Baseline and FD	Provisional Design document, supply of 500 more CHs, Baseline survey formation of 35 SHGs and implementation of sector specific interventions – PIKA project – Nov.2008,	5471409
2009	FD and Implementation of sector specific interventions	Finalization of Design , Supply of 1441 CHs, implementation of PIKA, implementation of other project specific activities	8742325
2010	Implementation – in full swing	Sectoral implementation: Health, Education, Livelihoods including PIKA	16291503
2011	Implementation – Fullswing	Sectoral implementation : Health, Education, Livelihoods including PIKA	21930892

8. Accomplishments in Livelihood project at a glance

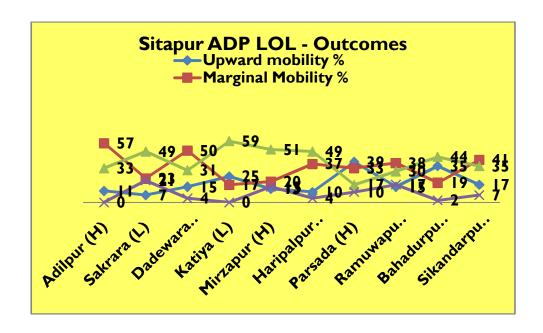
Outcome /output	Narration /description	Major accomplishment	Impacts observed		
Outcome 1	Increased number of food secure households in the community				
Output 1.1	Small and marginal framers will be able to earn higher income through specific crop based livelihood cluster.	600 farm HH were assisted with certified seeds, covering 600 acres 111 farm HH were assisted with certified wheat, covering 71 [357 bighas] acres	Agriculture production increased by 25-30 %, enhancing food security at the HH level. Framers have become the owners of certified seeds /high quality seeds		
Output 1.2	Strengthened linkages to markets for farmer families	4 SHGs have under taken wheat procurement 81 potential farmers have been provided with RML cards	Market linkage is still weak and needs to be strengthened. Farmers have got access to RML technology, which is gradually spread in the communities		
Output 1.3	Increased access to comprehensive financial service for small and marginal farmers	are eligible for bank linkage	Bank linkage is in process / SHG grading yet to be done.		
Outcome 2	Increased production by 5 %-30	%			
Out put 2.1	The targeted farmers have access to cropping technologies , irrigation facilities	270 farmers used Zero tillage technology in 2010 51 villages covered under zero tillage technology 12.6 acres of demonstration plots on LLL, 1.6 demonstration plot on multiple cropping 6 acres of demonstration plot on DSR 28 winnowing fans for farmersGrain bins have been given to small and marginal farmers.	The use of zero till technology, which reduces input cost 25-30 % is increasing in the communities. Farmers have showed interest in diversifying the cropsbanana and papaya.		
Output 2.2	Target farmers will have gained technical knowledge on water resource management and soil conservation	300 trained on soil and water conservation practices. 5 ponds have been renovated in the target area to enhance ground water table and irrigation facilities. 8248 farmers have been benefited through PIKA. 300 farmers trained on soil testing /used soil testing.	Ground water table has improved , enhancing irrigation facilities. Fisheries- livelihood activity- has been started in two ponds.		
Outcome 3	Increased income of wage in lab	or based households			
Output 3.1	Establish baseline data on poorest household in the target area.	Community wealth ranking has been accomplished for all the 60 villages.	The data is being used for development planning, especially for EDA.		

Contd...

Outcome /output	Narration /description	Major accomplishment	Impacts observed
Output 3.2	Saving habit promoted among small wage labor households	210 functional SHGs are in the ADP. 2621 families have membership in SHGs Rs.17,06431 saving in groups [cash at bank and cash in hand] Rs.12, 75419 internal loans. Total = 29,8150	Saving and repayment culture has been promoted in the communities. SHGs impacts other aspects of life
Output 3.3	SHG members initiated Livelihood activates either as collective or individual	297 families have been assisted with mulch animals and are involved in diary programme. 180 families , 15 SHGs , have taken up zero tillage as a ME activity, . 84 Families , 7 SHGs , use thrashers as small scale income generation unit. [Rs.10,000/-]	Poorest HH get additional income from MES activities. A portion of the income is saved in SHGs. SHGs spread technology, enhancing a agriculture production.
Output 3.4	Youth trained on employable skills	under PIKA	
Output 3.5	Poorest households trained on multiple livelihood activities		

9. Impact in the Improvements of Economic Security.

In order to assess the impact of all the income generating activities the ADP conducted a Community Mobility Matrix analysis The Community Mobility Matrix -Moving out of Poverty Analysis (Ladder of Life) exercise conducted in Rajnandgaon ADP reveals that 19% of the Households have an Upward mobility and have moved out of Poverty and 33% of the families have a Marginal mobility and were able to move out of Poverty. The families with Marginal upward mobility are very vulnerable because if they undergo a crisis situation they would fall back into poverty. The Livelihood interventions of Sitapur ADP have definitely contributed to the improvement in the economic status of the families in the selected target communities. However 40% of the House-holds have experienced Stagnation and a 8% Downward mobility, which requires attention and reveals that the Livelihood interventions of the ADP need to reach these families. Families in the target communities moving from Below Poverty Line (BPL) to Above the Poverty Line (APL) is due to the intentional focus on Livelihood interventions. The ADP has experienced a total of 52% of families having Upward and Marginal mobility, at the same time it is worrying to note that still 72% of the children aged 6-59 months are stunted. This infers that the families have not translated the improvement in economic status into Child Well Being. ADP has a big role to address the issue of malnutrition.



Sl.No	Study Villages	Upward Mobility %	Marginal Mobility %	Stagnation %	Downward Mobility %
1	Adilpur	11	57	33	0
2	Sakrara	7	23	49	21
3	Dadewara	15	50	31	4
4	Katiya	25	17	59	0
5	Mirzapur	13	20	51	15
6	Haripalpur	10	37	49	4
7	Parsada	39	33	17	10
8	Ramuwapur	15	38	30	17
9	Bahadurpur	35	19	44	2
10	Sikandarpur	17	41	35	7

Status	Numbers	Percent
Movers Up	282	19
Marginal Mobility	502	33
Stagnation	597	40
Downward	119	8
Total	1500	100

Category	Wealth Ranking Scores (%) 2008	Wealth Ranking Scores (%) 2012	Remarks
Vulnerable/Very Poor	21	16	There is a small decrease or improvement
Poor	53	53	It is stagnant
Middle	18	22	Increase is evident. EDA/Agricultural intervention has benefitted this group as most of them are small farmers with land holdings
Rich/Well off	8	9	Not of interest for the NGO

10. Interventions in Health Sector

Outcomes/ outputs	Narration	Major accomplishments	Impacts observed		
Outcome	% infants 0 - 5 months who were exclusively breastfed;				
	% infants 6 - 9 months who were milk	e given semisolids and breast			
	% children 0 - 59 months who ORT/increased feeds;	had diarrhea in the past 2 w	eeks who were given		
Output	% mothers who know key breastfeeding practices; 6543 pregnant women were counseled with key breastfeeding practices		Awareness on diarrhea amongst the community, to Know how to deal		
	% MWRA who know at least 3 methods of FP	3346 pregnant women were told about methods of family planning	with diarrhea at local level, is Close to negligible.		
	% households that were provided with ORS packets and trained in its use;	Training to local health volunteers on ORS. Distribution of ORS packets to each household.	Many children in community have died of diarrhea in the past two years.		
Outcome 2	% children 12 - 23 months who are fully immunized				
	% children 9 - 36 months who received a dose of vitamin A supplement in the past six months;	1942 infants were administered with Vitamin A supplement in past three years.			
	Contraceptive prevalence rate (% MWRA who are fecund, who do not want a child in the next 2 years or unsure, who are using a modern contraceptive method	9080 MWRAs were reported to use modern contraceptive methods, out which 316 women went for sterilization.			
	Unmet need (% MWRA who are fecund, who do not want a child in the next 2 years or unsure, who are not using a modern contraceptive method)				
Output 2.1	# of AWW/ASHA/ANM trained/refreshed in key health issues and skills in the past year;	3 training programs were organized for AWW, ANMs and ASHAs on FP and on diarrhea management 937 meetings of our health workers with ANMs to discuss the health issues in the past three years.			
	%of MWRA who report discussing FP with a health worker/volunteer in the past 12 months;	20232 women were counseled in the past three years by our health volunteers			
	% of FP clients who received adequate FP counseling;	23354 clients received adequate FP counseling.			

Outcomes/ outputs	Narration	Major accomplishments	Impacts observed
Outcome 2	# of AWW/ASHA/ANM trained/refreshed in key health issues and skills in the past year;	3 training programs were organized for AWW, ANMs and ASHAs on FP and on diarrhea management 937 meetings of our health workers with ANMs to discuss the health issues in the past three years.	
	%of MWRA who report discussing FP with a health worker/volunteer in the past 12 months;	20232 women were counseled in the past three years by our health volunteers	
	% of FP clients who received adequate FP counseling;	23354 clients received adequate FP counseling.	

11. Summary of the General Improvements Achieved as a Results of the Intervention in the Health Sector

Health Indicators	2008	2011
Health indicators	(%)	(%)
Pregnancy Care	23	50
Immunization	11	90
Safe Drinking Water	48	88
Water Sealed Toilets	10	20

Key Findings of the Impact Evaluation Programme in the Health Sector

- Close coordination with government hospitals and with health workers (ANMS, ASHAs, and AWW) has helped in achieving 93% of the pregnant mothers practicing Institutional delivery.
- Have high level relationship with government people for advocacy issue.
- IBSP volunteers with the close coordination of SHG/ CBOs should look into effective functioning of Anganwadis.
- Community based health monitoring systems for children is a must.
- Capacitating the SHGs to counsel male members on FP.
- Malnourishment among children needs to be addressed on war footing.
- Hearth PD to be scaled up to all the villages.
- Behavioral change by creating awareness on the importance of mothers Infant feeding practices, consumption of IFA tablets, access to Pre Natal Care, through appropriate IEC methods and rigorous monitoring by SHG volunteers.

Study the causes like work pattern of the mothers, for the decrease in the important practice & behavior of mothers providing their infants aged 6 – 11 months with semi solid food.

12. Interventions in Education Sector

According to World Vision the concept of child friendly schools in deed is multidimensional. A child-friendly school is not just a child-welcoming school, but also a child-seeking school. It works to attract and retain children from different backgrounds, respects diversity and ensures nondiscrimination.

To promote enrolment and enhance the quality of education, ADP implemented a package of interventions considering various factors that make the school more attractive for children.

The package of interventions to make a school child friendly includes

- School Renovation
- Desk and Benches for learning
- Teachers' training for quality teaching
- Sports games items for physical and mental development
- School dress, bags and cycles
- Ensure nutrition food
- Hand pumps for safe drinking water

The package intervention was designed as per the specific needs of the various schools in the target area. It included the enhancement of physical infrastructure / facilities at the schools, social mobilization, engagement with teachers, quality improvement measures, remedial teaching for weaker children etc. To attract children, Swings were installed in 13 schools and desks and benches were provided in 7 schools. In five villages, schools were effectively renovated. To facilitate the physical development of children, sports material was given to 40 schools. To motivate children to attend school, poor children in as many as 42 villages were assisted with school bags.

13. Major Interventions in Education Sector and Accomplishments

Outcome/out put	Narration	Major accomplishments	Impacts observed	
Outcome 1	% of children 2-6 years able to attend ECCD before school enrolment			
Output 1.1	# of service providers trained and sensitized on ECCD practices	0	Apart from assisting the ECCDs for enhancing their infrastructure, no major work has been done here.	
Output 1.2	# of children with age appropriate learning skills in Anganwadis	18 AWS have been assisted and 450 Children have been benefited	Except creating an enabling environment, no major work has been initiated.	
Outcome 2		n age appropriate lea aseline report Page N	arning achievements [primary 0. 83-95	
	Enrolment rate			
Output 2.1	# of teachers trained improved teaching methods	0	Apart from basic orientation, no formal training has been conducted for teachers.	
	# of volunteers trained and involved in teaching	18 Remedial teaching volunteers have been trained.	Great improvements has been observed in terms of quality Communities have also come forward to own and operate centers.	
Output 2.2	# of girls and boys with age appropriate learning achievements / # Remedial education centers	988 children with solar lantern 596 children attend RCCC at the village level. 2875 Have been benefitted from CFS created in 20 schools	School enrolment has increased School attendance has increased Interest among parents to send their children has increased	
Output 2.3	# of PTA/VEC functional in the communities	0		

14. Trends in the Enrolment of Children

	Boys (%)	Boys (%)		Girls (%)	
Educational Level	2008	2012	2008	2012	
Primary	50	61	50	70	
Secondary	57	63	43	64	
Post Secondary	40	48	40	61	

Number of Samples = 180

15. Key Findings in the Education Sector:

- There is no gender discrimination in primary children education.
- There is no caste barrier or gender bias issues in the school and is inclusive. Children feel secured in the school premises.
- Children are able to identify English letters but not words or paragraphs (PRATHAM tool)
- Children do not have access to toilets.
- Education for mentally challenged children. School education has to be inclusive to differentially abled children.
- PTA should be strengthened.
- Remedial classes conducted by the ADP help in enhancing the quality of education.
- Network with education partners(DIET) is required
- Performance of Anganwadis` to be enhanced through networking at the District level.
- The MGML methodology of learning introduced by the Government is useful for the children to enhance their learning capabilities based on the 5 milestones.
- The number of the teachers is not appropriate to the number of the children.
- The community members and the parents do not involve much in the school affairs.
- Children need Improvement in the reading, writing and numerical skills.
- PTAs / SMCs need strengthening in monitoring the welfare of the schools in the communities.
- CPUs to be organized and must be made aware of their responsibilities & roles.
- In the Phase-2 the ADP needs to concentrate on the soft/core area -improving the quality education & reduce its investment on construction/infrastructure activities.
- ADP to take a lead role in making the Panchayat responsible for the active functioning of the SMCs / PTAs and conduct of meetings regularly.
- Age appropriate Learning skills to be enhanced, measured and documented using the Pratham tool.
- ADP to concentrate on enhancing the quality of education at the Primary and Middle school level, by engaging the Govt..

- Enhance the capacity of teachers to make use of TLM to facilitate quality teaching.
- ADP to develop a concrete plan to facilitate community to access Resources or provide assistance, for Children especially girls to pursue higher education.

16. The Interventions in Leadership Development

16.1.The Gender Progress Card

Before the project	Interventions	After the interventions/ Changes observed	
Low self esteem	Community meetings & counseling	Women have gained confidence to address the issues faced by them. Community based female volunteers have developed a positive outlook and attitude.	
Illiteracy	Adult literacy	The adult literacy programme implemented in 19 villages enabled women to read and write. They are able to keep their books of accounts and other records.	
Low economic status /income	SHGs , IGPs & adolescent girls groups	Habit of saving and a culture of repayment developed in the communities. Both men and women in SHGs are accustomed to the new technologies and modern agricultural practices.	
Low social participation	Community meetings	Increased participation of women in development interventions. SHGs have broken the rigidity of caste, creed and other social divisions.	
Rigid attitude of men	SHG, community meetings & trainings (IEC)	Men's attitude towards women's involvement in social activities is changed. It is manifested through their active participation and involvement in project activities.	
Lack of information	Health & livelihood interventions	Increased awareness on a set of health information that affect their lives, better prenatal and post natal care, Reduction in maternal deaths, increased awareness among women on modern agriculture practices	
No access to information & technology	Zero Tillage / LLL/ DSR	Women are acquainted with technology.	
Access to resources	EDA & SHG	The economic base of the SHGs have been strengthened through EDA, which has helped them to have increased status within and outside the family.	

Key Findings in the Leadership Development Sector

- During the field validation it was identified that the ADP did not have a viable model of a CBO and the same was also not described in the Design Document. The Potential of the Youth remains untapped and lack of value based leadership system in the PRIs was also noted.
- SHG members need training on Maintenance of Accounts, Capacity building on leadership for Sustainability.
- Require training on Rights approach, to encourage to participative in Advocacy. CBOs need to be trained on leadership capacities
- Need to give opportunities for differentially abled people to be part of leadership.
- Capacity of SHG members need to be built to help them become part of the PRIs as Community people are still not taking initiative to lead the community and also issues related to the community.
- CBOs to engage in advocacy and enable the community to access their basic entitlements like water, electricity, land ownership etc.,.
- Capacity of the SHG office bearers to be built in maintenance of books of Accounts for sustainability and slowly wean away from the practice of hiring SHG volunteers.
- Youth in the target communities to be engaged for productive purposes. Provide professional and technical assistance towards enlisting Skill and Personality development, in order to prepare them for the future.

17. Priorities for Future Intervention

After the initial stages of the Sitapur ADP, evaluation exercises were conducted to capture the perspectives of the target communities. About 60 community representatives participated in identifying problems through the Problem Analysis, Livelihood Analysis and Vulnerability major issues are given below. The Community Representatives identified and Prioritized following areas for further interventions.

1	Quality of Education in Schools	9	Cleanliness and Sanitation in Villages
2	2 Unemployment		Unavailability of Quality Seeds
3	Electricity		Road Connectivity
4	Improper Shelter		Alcoholism
5	Improper Irrigation Facility		Immunization
6	Safe Drinking Water		Drought
7	Health Services		Alternative Livelihood
8	Access to Higher Education for Girls		Fire