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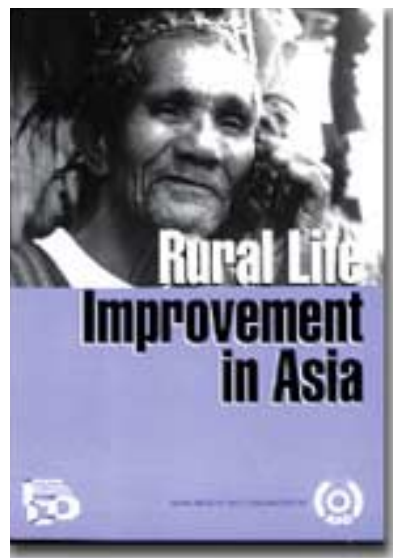
Rural Life Improvement in Asia

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**Report of the APO Seminar on Rural Life
Improvement for Community Development**

Japan, 22–26 April 2002

Edited by Dr. D.A. Cruz, Technical Editor,
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RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT IN ASIA

2003
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Tokyo

Report of the APO Seminar on Rural Life Improvement for Community Development held
in Japan, 22-26 April 2002
(02-AG-IC-SEM-02)

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FOREWORD

Rural life improvement programs in several APO member countries in the past have had numerous features in common with the sustainable livelihood approach, which has been in the limelight as an innovative method for rural community development in recent years. Generally, rural life programs focus on not only improving the production aspect but also the living conditions of rural people. The Rural Life Improvement Program in Japan and the Saemaul Undong in Korea, for example, have succeeded in mobilizing a large number of local people and broad-based local resources for rural livelihood improvement and productivity activities. 4-H Clubs in the Republic of China and the Philippines have also contributed greatly to the betterment of rural living standards.

The distinctive features of successful rural life improvement programs may be summarized as follows. Community people, mainly rural women, mobilize their local resources for the betterment of daily life based on the spirit of self-help. The construction of simple water supply systems, communal cooking and childcare during the peak agricultural season, and improvement of cooking stoves and toilets are typical examples. Rural life improvement officers and/or extension workers play a significant role as motivators to encourage villagers to initiate changes, as organizers to promote group activities, or as coordinators between the local government and community people. The central and local governments provide minor but effective assistance in the areas where local people alone cannot manage by themselves. It should be noted that these rural life improvement movements include almost all the key elements of development efforts which have recently been highlighted: people's participation; community-driven development; human-centered development; social capital enhancement; gender and development; facilitating the role of outsiders in the development process; and decentralization. In the Asia-Pacific region, we can find ample examples of successful cases of rural life improvement programs now. In this regard, it is useful to learn lessons from both the past achievements and serious ongoing efforts.

The APO organized the Seminar on Rural Life Improvement for Community Development in Japan, 22-26 April 2002. This publication contains a report on the proceedings of the seminar, and a compilation of the resource papers and country papers presented to the meeting. It is my hope that this will be a useful reference text for those who are involved in rural development in the Asia-Pacific region.

The APO is grateful to the Government of Japan for hosting the seminar, the Association for International Cooperation of Agriculture and Fisheries for implementing the program, and the resource speakers for their valuable contributions.

TAKASHI TAJIMA
Secretary-General

Tokyo
July 2003

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SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

INTRODUCTION

The enhancement of productivity in agriculture is a major approach for rural/community development efforts in many countries. A typical example of such approach was the erstwhile “Green Revolution” that was “waged” in the 1960s. This advent raised the yields of cereals per unit area, particularly for wheat and paddy. However, this approach had its own drawback, namely; it benefitted mainly well-off farmers who had capacity to take advantage of it. In comparison, the poorer farmers and socially handicapped people in the rural areas benefitted less from the same innovation.

Be that as it may, various integrated rural development projects have been launched with the aim of raising the standard of living of whole communities in many APO member countries. Among the more successful ones since the early post-World War II are: a) rural life improvement in Japan; b) “*Saemaul Undong*” (New Community Movement) in the Republic of Korea; and c) the 4-H Club activities in the Republic of China. Invariably, these efforts were aimed at upgrading both rural life conditions and agricultural productivity, in most cases, almost simultaneously.

The APO initiated a seminar on Rural Life Improvement for Community Development in Japan on 22-26 April 2002 the proceedings of which this volume reports on. The Government of Japan funded the seminar. The seminar sought to: a) examine various rural development programs in member countries, in particular, successful cases like rural life improvement activities in Japan; and b) to identify key factors for the success and roles of rural life improvement for community development.

The rural life improvement program in Japan and similar programs in other member countries indicate that most of the successful community development efforts have several common features. People’s participation in development process ensures ownership and responsibility of stakeholders and brings about sustainability of their efforts. While community people are the main actors of the development process, outsiders like government extension workers and livelihood extension workers play an important role as facilitator; the facilitator prepared ground for community people to express ideas, initiates their activities for good changes, and harvests the fruits for further development.

The good changes in a community were mainly achieved with group-oriented approaches. Group-oriented approaches, once properly managed, encourage the group members to take initiatives, sustain their efforts, and accelerate good changes. To the success of group-oriented approaches, the existence of good leadership is an essential requirement. Almost all the time, successful community efforts are sustained by excellent leaders and followers. The Japanese experience of rural life improvement shows that good leaders may be found and empowered by outsiders such as rural livelihood extension workers.

The other key to success in community development is continuity. Rural life improvement is a continuous process of minor progress in the daily routines of people. Such small but successful changes give the confidence to community people to initiate larger challenges. In the long run, community people can acquire capacity to venture substantive

commercial activities by mobilizing their local resources more effectively and efficiently. This process can be the minor image of *Kaizen* movement in the industry sector.

A continuous improvement promotes human resource development by providing an opportunity to local people to review their routines, local resources, their weaknesses and strengths. Human resource development in the rural life improvement in Japan is symbolized with the movement motto of “fostering thinking farmers”. The thinking farmer in this context means the farmer who can think rationally, scientifically, and independently from conventions and customs within which the farmers tended to regulate their behavior without personal reflection. In a nutshell, rural life improvement in Japan and other similar programs possess plenty of commonalities with social development and human resource development approaches which occupy the central position in recent development scenes. These program experiences and vivid cases in the region have a lot of success stories and a treasure of rural development in the Asia and Pacific region.

A total of 17 participants from 11 APO member countries attended the seminar. Eleven of the participants were from government agencies involved in rural life improvement; four from academic organizations whose fields have relevancy with the subject of the seminar; and two participants represented NGOs which currently implement rural life improvement programs in their own countries.

Like most seminars and other projects undertaken by APO’s Agriculture Department, this one consisted of discussions of resource papers on different sub-topics by four hired resource speakers; presentation of country papers by participants; group workshops; plenary sessions and field visits to pre-selected areas to enable the participants to observe firsthand some rural life ongoing activities.

HIGHLIGHTS OF RESOURCE PAPERS

Rural Life Improvement Movement in Contemporary Japan (Mr. Masami Mizuno)

Mr. Mizuno rendered a brief review of the development of agriculture in Japan as a sequel to his other companion review of the rise of the rural life improvement movement in the country. Truly, agricultural development and rural life are inseparable subjects. On the agricultural development aspect, he noted a fast changing social structure in rural Japan which he attributed to the gradual but constant decrease in rural population of the young ones due to the following factors: a) aging farmers and housewives of 60 years old or over now remaining in rural areas; b) the exodus of the rural youth to urban centers either for higher education and/or search for non-agricultural preoccupation; and c) the lure of the vibrant life in the cities. Even as land is scarce in Japan, many farmlands are not being cultivated, especially in hillsides and mountain slopes due to labor shortage given that modern farm machineries and equipment are available. On this score, one wonders how agriculture will fare 20 or 30 years from now.

Turning to the rural life improvement movement in the country, Mr. Mizuno made a brief presentation of the organizational set-up of Japanese villages vis-à-vis the formal organization of the power structure of the government. At the village level, indigenous informal associations of residents are locally called “*kumi*” comprising of 10 households each with a regular annual rotation of leadership. These associations play a key role as interface between government agents and rural residents.

The rural life improvement movement in the country has a long history and tradition. As a matter of fact, it was the movement that initiated economic support by the government

during the 1930 depression coupled with life improvement measures such as rural hygiene, medical facilities, kitchen upgrading and public libraries. The central focus during the period was to increase the productivity of agriculture by mobilizing traditional values.

The post-World War II years, and up to the present time, saw the life improvement movement experiencing a wide variety of new features unheard of before. Many, if not all, of the new innovations were imposed by the then U.S. occupation forces in the process of democratizing the political climate. For one, the rural life improvement effort took the name of livelihood concept which fundamental difference, of course, is minimal. Three outstanding changes were: a) the emancipation of women from their old role as subservient to the men or husbands in the days of yore; b) the agricultural extension service concept being a transplant from the United States took over the functions and name of rural improvement and partly those of the ministries of agriculture; and c) women, for rural life improvement, and men for agricultural matters, were recruited and trained. In time, extension service courses abroad attracted the Japanese Government to send graduate students to specialize on the subject and, on their return, served as multiplier effect by teaching or supervising extension workers.

In closing, Mr. Mizuno concluded that the rural life improvement movement in Japan has been conceived and developed during a period of social turmoil and instability which the movement not only survived but greatly improved as well.

Rural Life and Extension Service in Japan (Ms. Mieko Takaoka)

The rural life improvement program in Japan was the dissertation of Ms. Takaoka's resource paper that transcends on the traditional and modern extension system and the roles of the extension workers. She provided a glimpse of the country's traditional rural communities serving as it does an introductory preface of her presentation. Some old features of the pre-World War II years included: a) the Japanese consisted almost of one ethnic group that spoke a common language and shared the same culture; b) women were expected to do manual labor as a virtue and that unwritten laws prevented them from attending public meetings or activities; and c) as a hierarchical society nurtured in a long history and tradition promoted male chauvinism.

From the revolutionary changes in rural communities during the post-World War II era are five characteristics: a) elimination of difference in social standings; b) the patriarchal system still respects the oldest son in the family with priority in inheritance; c) advancement of democratization and review of basic women's rights; d) women in rural communities became aware of democratization to their advantage; and e) enactment of a law to support agricultural improvement and agricultural cooperatives.

From the standpoint of Japan's outlook and field experiences, the basic objective of rural life improvement is to support farmers in their efforts to operate farm management and practices and at the same time manage the household's lives based on democratic measures. Its concept, therefore, respects farmers' and families' voluntary spirits in order to bring out their latent talents and aspirations. In this regard, the resource paper gave importance to strengthening the ties between the farmers and experiments, research and the provision of technical information, advice and diagnostic instructions for upgrading the lives of members of the farming households.

In addition, Ms. Takaoka cited four current innovative characteristics of the country's rural life improvement program (that do not, by the way, differ markedly from those of the agricultural extension service generated from the Western world) as follows: a) the

management of the system is essentially a collaboration between the central and local government agencies; b) the system emphasizes the human aspect of development; c) the management is focused on life as life should be lived; and d) the rural youth is a target group as future farmers and 4-H Club membership and experience.

In order to substantiate much of the delineations and arguments affecting the goals, objectives and concepts that surround the roles of the extensionists, the author related several case studies/reports straight from the villages, herself having gone through a rich and rewarding long career as a Livelihood Extension Worker before becoming a lecturer at Ehime Prefecture College of Agriculture.

As a matter of fact, Ms. Takaoka documented in her *magnum opus*-resource paper five very interesting case studies plucked from her experience in different communities around Ehime prefecture.

Rural Life Improvement Experience in Japan for Rural Development in Developing Countries (Mr. Hiroshi Sato)

Mr. Sato traced back Japan's successful life improvement movement as an offshoot of an even more successful economic and social development that picked up the country from the ruins of World War II in 1945 in a state of starvation and poverty. He hypothesized that the process of economic and social development in post-war Japan was not possible without the scheme of social development, particularly through the accumulation of meaningful exercises on life improvements in the rural areas. The keyword for social development in the rural areas at the time was actually "life improvement" instead of (*Seikatsu-kaizen*).

The author recalled that the national goals immediately after the war consisted of securing food, improving sanitary conditions and building a "democratic state" to replace the collapsed militarist regime. He further attributed the eradication of poverty in the country to the concerted and untiring efforts of the entire population that moved as one towards these goals to the central government, to the local governments and down to the rural communities that eventually came into fruition in the form of rapid economic growth. In order to dramatize the sequence of events, Mr. Sato saw an obvious fact that the common people of Japan succeeded in escaping from poverty and gained success to a life in which they can live without worrying for food, shelter and clothes.

Mr. Sato was careful to suggest that it is far-fetched to think that the experiences in Japan with a different historical background and culture can be easily transplanted to the current developments in developing countries.

In reviewing the advent of democratization in the country, he noted that indeed the purpose of the American occupation policy was to convert Japan in such a way that she would not become a threat again to the United States in the future. A series of policies and directives for democratizing the Japanese society were set out after another, including constitutional amendments, disbanding the military, dissolution of the financial combine (*Zaibatsu*) and education reform. Quite naturally, the wave of democratization reached the rural areas wherein three major reforms were implemented in rapid succession in the post-war rural landscape, namely; a) agricultural land reform; b) establishment of agricultural cooperatives; and c) commencement of agricultural improvement and extension programs.

More specifically, through the enforcement of the Agricultural Promotion Law, prefectural governments created agricultural extension workers (mainly in charge of offering guidance on agricultural techniques and production) and livelihood extension workers (all women in charge of improvement of rural life). The latter played a central role in the post-

war rural life improvement and considered as the most well-defined means of attaining social reform. As a matter of fact, it was well recognized that the greatest factor behind the success of the rural life improvement program was the dedicated activities of the livelihood extension workers, the women. They concentrated activities that could be described as an original form of fieldwork in which they went around on foot (later on bicycle and eventually, motor cycle), talked to the village women and gained an understanding of real rural life.

In time, the rural improvement in the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries posted subject-matter specialist in each prefecture for the purpose of providing logistical support to the livelihood extension workers. It was an effort to establish a system in which people having expertise in food, clothing and shelter offered advice to the livelihood extension workers.

In the elongated Japanese archipelago that runs North to South direction, agriculture varies according to climate, e.g., date and time of year to sow and harvest what annual crops may be grown in what area. Consequently, the livelihood workers, resourceful as they are, modified (to this day) the farm operation at the advantage of farmers and their families.

In summary, Mr. Sato concluded that:

- a. Various rural life improvements that took place over the 20-year period from immediately after Japan's defeat in World War II (1945) to the dawn of the unprecedented rapid economic growth that came about 10 years later consisted of poverty eradication and multiple rural life improvements. It does seem that about the same issues then are currently being approached in most developing countries;
- b. The seven-year period (1945-52) of General MacArthur's General Headquarters (GHQ) enforcement of changes in the country in the name of democratization that were almost compulsorily transplanted irrespective of the will of the people indeed worked;
- c. Of course, the process of incorporating an alien system unto one's self does not come easily into existence simply through imitation of technology or system. To be sure, Japan's success in rural life improvement and economy was influenced not only by democratization but by many other factors such as the tenacity of the Japanese to succeed and the acceptance of discipline on their part;
- d. Redefining the rural life improvement in the context of rural sociology fundamentals on development is its close relationship with economic development in terms of the latter distributing rapidly to the people the fruits of the country's rapid growth; and
- e. May some of the desirable lessons of a common experience in achieving the goals of rural life improvement and economic development in Japan be shared by developing countries.

An Actor-oriented Approach to Development Intervention (Prof. Dr. Normal Long)

This resource paper argues the case of an actor-oriented analysis of development policy and intervention. In so doing, the author aimed to clarify a number of critical issues concerning how actors, organizing practices and institutional/structural constraints are conceptualized within this framework of analysis. The main task, as he sees it, is to advance a more sophisticated treatment of social change and development that emphasizes the central significance of 'human agency' and self-organizing processes and the mutual determination of the so-called 'internal' and 'external' factors and relationship.

He asserts that in the field of intervention primarily that struggles over social meanings and practices take place and where the emergence of various kinds of negotiated orders,

accommodations, oppositions, separations and contradictions are mostly clearly seen. Such 'battlefields' of knowledge arise within and across many different institutional domains and arenas of social actions. Indeed they embrace a wide range of social actors committed to different livelihood strategies, cultural interests and political trajectories. Knowledge emerges out of a complex interplay of social, cognitive, cultural, institutional and situational elements.

As the author shows later, the notion of 'social interface' provides a useful heuristic device for identifying and analyzing the critical points of 'intersection' among different fields or levels of social organization, since it is at this interface that discrepancies and discontinuities of value, interest, knowledge and power are clearly revealed. He further asserts that an actor-oriented approach to these issues requires a strong sensitivity to the processes by which the practitioner (and likewise, the researcher) enters the lifeworlds of the other social actor and vice versa, and therefore, implies a more reflexive type of understanding than is often the case.

Prof. Dr. Long identified 10 brief statements that capture the key elements of the cornerstones which he suggested to be helpful in providing a synopsis of the conceptual foundations of an actor-oriented analysis.

An actor-oriented perspective has a number of implications for the study of processes of intervention, whether in the area of development or organizational change. Development frameworks are always part of a chain or flow of events located within the broader framework of the activities of the state, international bodies and the actions of the different interest groups operative in civil society. They are also linked to previous interventions, have consequences for future ones, and more often than not, are a focus for intra-institutional struggles over perceived goals, administrative competencies, resource allocation and institutional boundaries.

The author adds that intervention processes cannot be confined to specific 'spaces' and functions delimited by official policies and plans. For many actors involved, interventions have no clear beginning marked by the formal definition of goals and means, nor any final cut-off point of 'end-date' as identified by the writing of final reports. He observed that we need to deconstruct the concept of intervention so that it is recognized for what it is, fundamentally, namely; an ongoing, socially constructed and negotiated process.

On the subject of interface for development research and policy issues, he noted that the notion of social interface offers a way of exploring and understanding the issues of diversity and conflict that is inherent in the processes of external intervention. Interfaces typically occur at points where different, and conflicting, lifeworlds or social fields intersect in social arenas in which interaction become oriented around problems of bridging, accommodating, segregating or contesting civil, evaluative and cognitive standpoints. He enumerated six elements of an interface perspective as follows: a) interface as an organized entity of interlocking relationships and intentionalities; b) interface as a site for conflict, incompatibility and negotiation; c) interface and the clash of cultural paradigms; d) the centrality of knowledge processes; e) power as the outcome of struggles over meanings and strategic relationships; and f) interface as composed of multiple discourses.

The author then briefly described the paradox of participatory development by saying that it is not realistic to imagine that facilitators can gently nudge or induce people and organizations towards nor 'participatory' and equitable modes of integration and coordination – the paradox of neo-popular discourses and participatory methods aimed at empowering local people.

In conclusion, Prof. Dr. Long left words of warning that: In building a picture of everyday encounters and modes of organization and knowledge, we must be careful not to reify cultural phenomena, even if local people and policy-makers do so themselves by using labeling or classificatory devices. Rather, they should be visualized as providing a methodological entry point for examining the dynamics and transformation of inter-cultural and inter-institutional relationship and values.

SUMMARIES OF COUNTRY PAPERS

The following are the summaries of the country papers presented by the participants during the seminar.

Fiji

This paper renders an overview of the process adopted by the Fiji Government in addressing the rural life improvement in the country. It identifies the demographic concentration in the rural areas of the country and the need to focus resources through various agencies and supporting services and their functions relative to rural life improvement.

The central government, in collaboration with the district administrators, coordinates the effort at improving the lives of the people. The objective is to stimulate the economy and enrich the social environment in order to encourage the participation of the Fijians on government efforts to improve their life. The process begins at the village level where the community needs and problems are addressed. The provincial and advisory councils process the community resolutions until the decision is made at the ministry responsible for community development. The administrative arms of the various ministries provide the consultative work which allows the flow of information from top-down and bottom-up.

Typical programs used by the local administrations to carry out this function are the self-help schemes and small grant schemes. The former is a program of assistance funded by the annual appropriation and is utilized at the discretion of the commissioners at the district level. It operates on a sharing of cost at one-third by the communities, and two-thirds by the central government. The latter scheme is a donor-funded form of assistance. The sharing follows strict adherence to donor's conditions and the government's budgetary provisions.

The most popular ongoing foreign assistance on research program in the country is the German Regional Forestry Funded Project. This research project focuses on the sustainable indigenous forest management. The priority of this project is the dissemination of forestry information and technologies to the rural community. The success of this rural development project is dependent upon the commitment of the stakeholders, i.e., resource owners, local administrators, donors, the government, and all the other actors.

India (1)

Rural development in India is essentially geared towards the ethos and its relevance to whom development plans are intended. The strategies would have to be innovative, realistic, "chiselled" and shaped to fine-tune the aspirations of the people. The approach on rural development in the country has undergone several changes since the Community Development Program (CDP), the first ever nationwide attempt for rural development initiated in 1952. The CDP was initiated with the all-around development of the countryside through active participation of residents in villages. This country paper focuses on the

various aspects of activating the rural life. It emphasizes the prevailing scenario of rural India and the various problems that need to be attended to in order to uplift the conditions of the rural poor. It presents sample cases of rural life improvement programs such as rural infrastructure development, rural credit, agricultural extension, and a special case study in the State of Andhra Pradesh.

India (2)

This other Indian country paper concerns the different approaches in the country to the weaker sections of the society particularly the landless laborers as India is basically an agrarian society in which 70 percent of the population depend on agriculture for their livelihood and majority of them live in rural areas. The weaker section is identified as those who have less in life whose landlords often subject them to many cruelties whenever they refuse to work in their land. The illiterates, bonded laborers and poor are often from the weaker sections.

In order to improve the conditions of the weaker sections, both central and state governments have undertaken many schemes directly benefitting these classes such as the Land Reform Act, Debt Relief Act and Abolition of Bonded Labor Act. As a result, the weaker sections were able to come out of the clutches of landlords. In the process some of the laborers who were working as tenants became landowners under the Tenancy Act.

Apart from the above measures the government also took steps to provide education and other economic benefits for the weaker sections. Many schools and hostels were opened to cater to the educational needs of these people. The government has also enacted the *Panchayat Raj* Act under which *panchayat* institutions have come up to facilitate rural development. The *Panchayat Raj* Act also provides for proportionate representation for all sections of society, including the weaker sections. Now good numbers of people belonging to the weaker sections are heading *panchayat raj* institutions and many of them are in the mainstream of administration.

Indonesia (1)

This Indonesian country paper discussed the role of NGOs in developing rural communities through agribusiness, farmer empowerment and the complementary share of roles between the government and NGOs. This paper emphasizes the role of the Islamic Boarding School, *Pondok Pesantren*, an indigenous NGO, self-help community-based institution applying religious (Islamic) approach in their program. In its development, *Pondok Pesantren* turned to be a social institution giving a typical characteristic for community development. The role of *Pondok Pesantren* covers not only education on religious matters but also many aspects related to local community development. In addition, it also conducts community economic empowerment, by developing a number business units mostly in the agribusiness, the agro-industry and also the cooperative.

Baitul Hamdi is an integrated Islamic educational institution which is concerned with community development. The management is fully aware that the success of its goal will be much influenced by the active participation of the residents of the community nearby. The benefits of the successful program should be enjoyed by the neighborhood as well as the trainees or the students. Community development program under the *Baitul Hamdi* basically covers activities to develop togetherness among the people nearby; to encourage partnership and to provide necessary places for practice on agribusiness. The first step of its establishment was directed to developing synergy mutually among the institution's goals, the community's interest, and needs in terms of socio-religion and socio-economy. The

community development strategy consists of the following programs: 1) Community's Welfare Improvement Program; 2) Socio-religion Counseling Program; and 3) Socio-economic Counseling Program. The *Baitul Hamdi* is a self-help institution.

Indonesia (2)

This paper reviews an agricultural extension capacity building program developed under a new paradigm in agricultural development that was introduced by Decentralized Agriculture and Forestry Extension Project (DAFEP), a World Bank-funded project. The main objective of the project is to improve farmers' capacity to participate and lead in extension activities. The main principle is farmer-first in which methods used are based upon participatory approach. This project promotes social and gender program in its implementation.

The extension system administration in Indonesia starts from central to the village level. The project approach used and system developed that are influenced by several conditions. The DAFEP emphasizes agribusiness, environmental, and gender concerns. In this paper, emphasis is put on gender orientation that is incorporated in the project cycle starting from planning process, implementation, reporting, and monitoring and evaluation of the extension activities. The first part of the DAFEP concerns the program activities that incorporate socio-economic and gender considerations in equity, efficiency, and sustainability through the three project's components, i.e., farmers' capacity building, strengthening of district extension system and extension policy and project management support. The second part pertains to the strategy to promote the program by establishing a team called Gender in Extension Core Team (GENEX CT).

In conclusion, the paper emphasized that development program needs to accommodate the aspiration of all parties involved.

Islamic Republic of Iran (1)

Mr. Ghahderijani relates the country's rural life improvement program, rural road construction, rural electrification, rural safe drinking water and rural improvement projects. The basic policy of the rural life improvement program pertains to the information prior to the revolution of 1979 which had a reversal in thinking after the revolution. Before the revolution the villages were faced with serious structural problems such as migration, lack of income opportunities, lack of necessary facilities, and weak terms of trade. After the revolution, which was probably the greatest example of active popular participation, was a direct response to modernization of the country. The revolution succeeded in mobilizing and strengthening the social structures and needs of the people.

The results of a field evaluation of the rural improvement and renovation projects show that the main problem is that the projects are not part of a comprehensive national plan or regional planning-base program on community development program.

Islamic Republic of Iran (2)

Generally, development experts and professionals believe that the human being is the key factor and focal point of development. That is why the training and enhancement of human resources are considered the foundation for integrated community development. It is essential for a society striving for sustainable development to consider the prerequisites of development. The determination of the role and share of the various sections in the community in the development process is important. Valuing this diversity in macro plans

and policies will assist in the enrichment of potentially productive, but deprived sectors. One of these productive, albeit deprived and neglected groups are rural and nomad women, who constitute 39 percent of the total women population. Despite their substantial contribution to the GNP, this 12 million women population are still not considered as employed producers in the country's official statistics.

The Ministry of Jihad-e-Agriculture (MOJA) started focusing on independent and specific planning for the growth and development of rural and nomad women by designating the Rural and Nomad Women Affairs Bureau (RNWAB). The various activities of RNWAB, in particular its training programs, include the implementation process of micro-credit fund for rural women.

Republic of Korea (1)

The *Saemaul Undong* (New Community Movement) of the Republic of Korea has been recognized as a successful model of rural community development, especially for the underdeveloped and developing countries. The modernization project of the nation was an offshoot of movement. The *Saemaul Undong* first emphasized projects for improving the farmers' immediate living environments, followed by projects to create an economic infrastructure and by projects to increase family income.

The *Saemaul Undong* can be characterized by several features. First, it was started without a well-defined formal or theoretical framework. Second, the approach employed in the process of executing the *Saemaul Undong* was purely Korean idea. Third, it was initiated by the political will of the top national leadership, government interventions and citizen support as the most crucial factors of success. Fourth, pursuing the *Saemaul Undong* means a challenge to the poverty of rural communities. Finally, the spiritual enlightenment program was unique and successful in drawing the people's hard-working spirit and cooperation. The Korean Government established formal organizations at every level of government administration for the *Saemaul Undong*, and provided various services and resources.

The *Saemaul Undong* achieved several things. First it had been very successful in changing the people's values, attitudes, and behavior. Second, the living conditions in the rural communities has been much improved and changed. Third, the *Saemaul Undong* made the rural communities escape from poverty and contributed to income increase. However, upon the death of the then President Chung-Hee Park, initiator and supporter of the *Saemaul Undong*, it started to lose its driving force. The review of the *Saemaul Undong* as a rural community development project suggests several implications, such as the package of government interventions and support are critical at the initial and developing stages of a community development project.

However, the *Saemaul Undong* shows that government-driven program is very difficult to transfer to private or non-government agencies. The spiritual enlightenment program must have been very useful in inspiring the Koreans to get together in undertaking a nationwide community development effort.

Republic of Korea (2)

Dr. Song's paper reviewed the past and present programs and policies for the improvement of the physical environment in rural areas of the country. The 1960s and 1970s were characterized as the decades of the bottom-up approach and independence, and those of the 1980s and 1990s, as the top-down approach and dependence. Benefits are various improvements in physical environment of, and living conditions in the villages. However,

costs are sometimes large that offset the benefits of improvements: (1) destruction of rural environment and ecology; (2) elimination of distinctive characteristics, landscapes and way of life native to the villages; and (3) disappearance of the spirit of independence and willingness to manage own affairs.

The Korean Government came to grips with these problems and recognized the changes in expectations and demands toward the villages. The people started to recognize the multi-functionality of agriculture and rural areas. Responding to these changes, various public authorities came up with competing programs and projects such as the “Green Village for Tourism” Program by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (MAF), the “*Areum* Village” Program by the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs (MOGAHA), the “Tourism Development for Fishing Villages” Project by the Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Fisheries (MMAF), the “Development of Mountain Villages” Program by the Korea Forest Service (KFS), the “Theme Village for Traditional Way of Life” Project by the Rural Development Association (RDA), and the “New Rural and Fishing Village” Project by the Kang Won province. While competing with each other, all programs and projects emphasize the villagers’ own initiatives and willingness to manage their own affairs.

Malaysia (1)

The plan, strategy, and approach to rural development in Malaysia, which were incorporated in the Outline Perspective Plan (OPP).

The paper touched on the incidence of rural poverty in Malaysia. Rural development is essential for the provision of infrastructure facilities in achieving rural development, improving quality of life as well as fulfilling the basic needs of the people. In addition, the Malaysian Government provides an important foundation to nurture a competitive, progressive, caring and a respected society. The paper highlights the improvement among farmer’s community in Muda area since Muda Agricultural Development Authority (MADA) has been set up, where certain programs have been implemented.

In conclusion, the paper emphasized that any approaches to uplift the living standard in rural communities are achievable.

Malaysia (2)

The Malaysian Government spent a lot of public resources and effort to help the people develop rural communities. However, the results are still far from the target. This country paper provides possible help for rural communities to develop both social and economic conditions of the people. The Effective Model of Community and Rural Improvement Programs designed in 2001 was presented in detail by Dr. Sabran.

Mongolia

The Comprehensive Agriculture and Agricultural Community Development Plan in Mongolia was the theme of this country paper. This plan has been prepared with the aim of contributing to the overall development of agriculture and agricultural communities in the central part of the country, which is the core of the country’s economy. This development is a necessary step for contributing to the early establishment of a market economy in the country.

The rapid transformation of the economy of Mongolia from a planned economy to a market economy was accompanied with serious confusion as well as the social and economic deterioration of the country, challenging its leaders to find solution to the problems. Food

security, rural employment, income generation, natural resource conservation and environmental protection are the essential goals of the plan. To achieve these goals, the following are pursued: 1) privatization of land enabling the stock-breeders (nomads) and land cultivators (farmers) to live and work in harmony; 2) organization of small and integrated farms; 3) organization of processing facilities of agricultural raw materials; 4) organization of agricultural products marketing; 5) financial subsidies and loans; and 6) import protection and export promotion. The concept of Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development (SARD) should be adapted to Mongolian specific conditions.

Nepal

Mr. Katuwal assessed that due to high population growth and low economic activities, the country is considered as one of the poorest countries in the world. Against such difficult conditions, the Government of Nepal tries to put the best effort for rural community development. The priorities of the effort are: 1) agriculture and forestry development; 2) water resource improvement; 3) human resource and social development; 4) industrialization, tourism, and international trade; and 5) physical infrastructure development. Rural life improvement is also one of the priorities in rural development to alleviate poverty in rural areas. The paper cited one success story of rural credit and several foreign-assisted agricultural extension and rural life improvement programs.

Sri Lanka

The majority of the poor in the country are engaged in agriculture and live in rural communities. To uplift the living conditions of the rural poor, the government introduced the Samurdhi Program in 1995 replacing its original form of the Janasaviya Program. The government estimated to spend Rs.32 billion, about 18 percent of the total welfare expenditure for the Samurdhi Program. The Program has three components: 1) income supplement; 2) rural infrastructure development; and 3) Samurdhi savings and credit. The paper details the Program and the role of central as well as local governments for the program implementation. Besides the Samurdhi Program, Special Program for Vulnerable Groups, Youth Employment Program and Sports Program are also cited as rural life improvement program in the country.

Thailand (1)

The Population and Community Development Association (PDA) is reported as one of the largest NGOs in Thailand which has operated almost 28 years. During this time, rural life has improved considerably with regard to average income, availability of water, electricity, roads, consumers' goods, etc. This is partly due to the successful and world renowned family planning campaigns that were initiated by PDA in the 1970s and brought down the high birth rate of that time of around 3.2 percent to around 1.0 percent nowadays.

The PDA operates a wide variety of programs designed to serve and assist the rural poor of Thailand covering such diverse activities as free vasectomies, income generation programs at village level, forest replanting schemes, vegetable banks, industry relocation into rural areas, mobile health clinics, environmental education programs, and a democracy project.

Thailand (2)

The country paper discusses a rural life improvement project of the Department of Public Welfare (DPW). Thailand aims that rural women's quality of life be improved by providing vocational training programs, various courses of occupational, financial and marketing support after the completion of the courses. The DPW's responsibilities are for services for Thai people, especially for the disadvantaged groups. The Occupational Assistance Division, for example, provides services to the disadvantaged and rural women in three training sectors. There are seven welfare and vocational centers, four welfare protection and vocational development centers and welfare and vocational training center in rural areas. To provide training for rural women, the central government provides the budget for the local administrations, i.e., Creating New Life for the Rural Women Project (CNLRW). This project was provided to five local administrative offices. The paper also examines the policies for women and rural development, agriculture and rural development in the Eighth and Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plans (1997-2006).

The CNLRW Project under the DPW provides a short-term training course (88 days) for rural women, disadvantaged and young women. The objective of the project is to develop women's quality of life in rural areas by promoting occupation, so they will be able to earn income to support themselves and families. Each participant is provided with B50 of daily allowance during the training. After the completion of the training course, the graduates are encouraged to form occupational groups. The DPW supports them by ordering and buying their products as well as providing an initial fund. The extension system and practice for rural life improvement are also reviewed in the paper.

Vietnam

The poverty incidence in the country is estimated at about 30 percent and its per capita income is about US\$400/year. In the rural communities, people suffer from low income, insufficient education, large numbers of children, small-sized farms, inadequate agricultural extension services, and frequent natural calamities. Against such harsh conditions in rural areas, the Government of Vietnam puts priority on rural life improvement program. The strategy of rural life improvement in the country has three dimensions: 1) economic development through agricultural productivity enhancement; 2) poverty reduction; and 3) rural infrastructure development.

FIELD VISITS

The seminar provided the participants with an opportunity to visit the agricultural cooperative in Maebashi, Gunma prefecture to observe the first-hand rural conditions and rural life improvement activities for a day on 25 April. The first stop of visit was a small-scale food processing center called "Keyaki-Kobo" that produces bread, cakes, and several types of lunch boxes. The center contributes to the productivity of local agriculture and employment creation for the community. The center belongs to the Japan Agricultural Cooperative (JA) Maebashi, but interestingly run by 23 woman members who plan to expand business further by producing several varieties of food products.

The second visit was to a cooperative (direct-sale market) called "Yuai-Kan". About 500 members bring and sell their products for direct sale in the market labeled with the Yuai-Kan logo and name of producers who pay 10 percent commission for the market operation. The direct-sale market sells only fresh and quality products harvested in the morning of the

selling day. In this way, the market could establish the brand-image and build a good relationship with urban population. The operation of the market not only brings about extra income to the farmers but also functions as a means of promoting a mutual understanding and good relationship between rural and urban populations.

After the visit to the cooperative the participants were briefed by the President of the Women's Department of the JA Maebashi about their activities commencing in 1993 when the Department was established with close to 1,000 members, including non-farmer members. The Department then defined its objectives and program of operation with the amalgamation of the then existing 12 community level agricultural cooperatives. The central aim of the establishment was to rally the village residents into improving their environment hence their welfare through such activities as organizing training courses for handicraft making, undertaking study tours to progressive villages thereby learning some useful information, and mounting seminars on various relevant topics to their operation.

It is noteworthy that they had established a cooperative network with various organizations, including cooperatives in Mongolia. Equally noteworthy has been the changing and active role of women in managing the cooperative considering that four of the board members are women.

The last visit for the day was the Chubu Agriculture Center where the participants were welcomed and entertained by officers of the Center. Among other things, they were informed that the agenda of the Center is aimed at strengthening the activities on rural life improvement extension program by promoting the following: 1) active participation of women in project planning and implementation; 2) interaction between residents of rural and urban areas; 3) harmony among family members on the management of farming; 4) the importance of women in agricultural pursuits; and 5) looking ahead for women successors in the farming business.

SUMMARY OF MINI-WORKSHOPS

Orientation Session

In an effort on the part of the APO Agriculture Department staff to render the seminar worth its while, and then later, to gauge its usefulness to the participants, an APO Consultant, Mr. Mohan Damotharan, presided over a brief orientation session prior to the presentation by the resource speakers' papers on the first day of the seminar.

The session served, as it did, an "ice breaker" of sorts in preconditioning the participants, setting them up in a relaxed learning mood that enabled the Consultant to elicit their expectations from, and impressions on, the spot about the seminar. The participants were visibly enthused, hence cooperated willingly during the session in sharing their views and answering questions. Briefly, the participants expected the seminar to be: a sharing of experiences among themselves; an active participation by both participants and resource speakers; identifying the strengths and weaknesses of community development programs; learning strategies for sustainable development; ample time for discussions; clear presentation of resource speakers; learning lessons from success and failure stories; and defining key concepts and analysis.

After the presentation of country papers on 23 April, the participants selected three successful initiatives on rural life improvement for further discussion: the *Baitul Hamdi* in Indonesia, *Saemaul Undong* in the Rep. of Korea and the PDA in Thailand (the latter has no summary report, hence only case studies 1 and 2 follow:)

Case Study 1

Case Study 1 represented lessons derived from one of the two country papers from Indonesia, with particular emphasis on the *Baitul Hamdi*, an integrated Islamic educational institution which is very concerned with community development. The lessons are: a committed leadership that commands the respect of the members of the institution; the involvement of the community in development process is worthy of emulation; mutual trust among the leaders and followers that breeds fellowship; the identification of basic local needs is an important key to the success of a project; the operation of self-help finance concept, homogeneous grouping of institution membership brings about ease of project operation; an integration of local needs of communities systematizes the successful project; and a combination of individual as well as collective need sustains the organization.

Case Study 2

The lessons learned from Case Study 2 (*Saemaul Undong*), the theme of one of the two country papers from the Rep. of Korea, are as follows: a strong leadership shown by the then President Park is essential to making a project succeed; participation of the Korean villagers in the projects of the movement ensures the success of projects; identification of the felt needs of the community is a big step in providing the right needs; and frequency of meetings kept the village leaders working with the villagers.

Final Mini-workshop

The participants organized the final mini-workshop on the last day of the seminar breaking them into three groups to discuss three important issues as follows: Group 1 on Actor-oriented Approach and Community Development; Group 2 on Rural Life Improvement in Japan; and Group 3 on Reflections of the Field Visits.

Most of the members of Group 1 found the concept of actor-oriented approach and community development somewhat highly academic for them to fully comprehend in the short time that they had. Nevertheless they recognized the need to get the message of the theme by reading and researching the two resource papers.

On Group 2, the participants found it interesting that the main actors in rural life improvement are women (farm housewives) with strong commitment to cooperate with the female extension workers in improving rural communities. Rural development practitioners can learn useful lessons from the experience of Japanese women.

On Group 3, the members felt that the field visits were worth their time as they shared the lessons they learned as follows: dedicated and committed leaderships; individual and collective interests of community members; women's role as effective motivators; centralized activities; active employees' support; transparency in business dealings; employment generation; and the changing roles of Japanese women in society.

CONCLUSION

The participants felt strongly that their expectations of the seminar were achieved, that the seminar objectives were realized and that they came away happy in the thought that they learned many things of value to their respective professions. The resource papers presented by the Japanese resource speakers provided a clear picture of the past and current efforts at rural life improvement. No less admired by many participants are the resource papers of Dr. Long that added a new dimension on participatory rural development which needs to be fully

“digested” by the participants. Through the country paper presentation by the participants, the sharing of experiences on rural life improvement will be long remembered by them.

As the seminar ended, the participants voiced as one their thanks to, and appreciation of, the hospitality of the APO staff in organizing the seminar and to the officers they encountered during the field visits.

1. RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT MOVEMENT IN CONTEMPORARY JAPAN*

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THE RISE OF RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT MOVEMENT IN CONTEMPORARY JAPAN

In rural regions of Japan, movements of rural life improvement containing the elements of rural life improvement (hereafter collectively referred to as “rural life improvement movement”) have been carried out in a wide variety of content and format. This dates back to the end of the Edo period and early Meiji era to Taisho and prewar Showa eras, and then up to the rapid economic growth period after World War II up to the time of enactment of the Agricultural Basic Law in 1961. The term “rural life improvement” was not necessarily used in all of these movements. Typical examples among them are listed as follows:

- 1) *Houtokusha* movement (end of Edo period through Meiji era);
- 2) *Chosonze* (township and village planning) movement (1890s and 1900s);
- 3) *Jikata Kairyō* (local improvement) movement (1910s onward);
- 4) Rural economy rehabilitation movement (during the Showa Depression in 1930s);
- 5) Rural life improvement under the wartime mobilization (wartime in 1940s); and
- 6) Post-war rural life improvement movement (post-war recovery period).

These rural life improvement movements have the following five characteristics:

First Characteristic

First of all, rural life improvement movements were developed in villages during the periods of social turmoil and instability. For instance, the *Houtokusha* movement expanded during the major transition period of the Japanese society, including the end of Shogunate reign and Meiji Restoration. In the case of Ihara village in Shizuoka prefecture (present Ihara town of Shizuoka city) which is one of the most famous *Houtoku* villages, the *Houtoku* method was introduced in the rural economy recovery movement at the end of Edo period. The effects of trade liberalization based on unequal trade after the Meiji Restoration resulted

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in depression during the early years of Meiji. *Chosonze* (township and village planning) movement and *Jikata Kairyo* (local improvement) movement had the characteristics of industrial promotion and local development against the backdrop of reconstruction of a national system and infrastructure strengthening after the Satsuma Rebellion and Russo-Japanese War, respectively. The rural economic rehabilitation movement that continued for nearly nine years from 1932 to 1941 and rural life improvement on a war footing that followed were literally movements that took place during the period of ravage and confusion for the rural economy caused by the Showa Depression and wartime national mobilization. The post-war rural life improvement endeavor was also a movement that was launched as part of the three major agricultural reforms after the war. Its initial stage was implemented during the period of post-war social turmoil and economic recovery.

Second Characteristic

The second characteristic concerns the relationship between production and rural life improvements or elements thereof in all the movements as in the *Houtokusha* movement, which is based on the principle of *Houtoku* village development method that was developed by Sontoku Ninomiya. Production and livelihood cannot be understood if taken separately, hence rural life improvement has been incorporated comprehensively with all other related activities. Movements 2 and 3 above were strongly inclined towards agricultural improvement (i.e., promotion of economic programs) because of the emphasis of industrial movement, rural autonomy and farmers' association activities. For this reason, the elements of rural life improvement had a strong tinge of psychological movements such as the correction of public morals (improvement), diligence, frugality and economizing. Hygiene programs had been incorporated since the Meiji era as measures against contagious diseases. In general, they were positioned as rural life improvement for securing and increasing production and elements such as diligence, frugality, economizing, moral science, moral behavior and ethics were brought to the forefront. This is particularly notable in rural life improvement under the rural economic rehabilitation movement and wartime mobilization system.

Third Characteristic

The third characteristic is related to the characteristic as a movement. In the *Houtokusha* movement of the Meiji era, the method of *Houtoku* life appears to have been generally introduced by the leaders of rural villages (landowners). Otherwise, it was mandated as a government policy. For this reason, the organization for delivering the policies that were brought down from the top, receiving them from the bottom and translating them to their own needs became important. In addition, human life has individual and group aspects, and the fact that satisfying the livelihood needs related to the latter aspects requires greater resources, external skills, capital and collective action which is another reason why such a receiving mechanism is needed. The above-mentioned rural life improvements must have acquired their characteristics as a social movement.

Fourth Characteristic

The fourth characteristic is the succession of various elements of rural life improvement activities that had been considered as part of the movement. Rural life improvement in the nationwide economic rehabilitation movement and the rural life improvement during the war had as their elements activities such as day nursing, collective

cooking, public baths, public entertainment, cooking stove improvement, preserved food, nutrition, maternal and child health and simplification of ceremonies. All of them were incorporated into the post-war rural life improvement as part of the activity menu. However, attention must be given to the fact that although activity menus have the same name, naturally there were great differences according to time and place.

Fifth Characteristic

The fifth characteristic involves the long-term effect of the movement's experience on rural villages and farmers. The Ihara village, which is known as a *Houtoku* village, is said to have succeeded in the results of the movement over a period of more than one century. In addition, the villages that took part in the *Houtokusha* movement in various regions later became the parent body for industrial cooperatives. Many of them also expanded to become agricultural cooperatives after the war. Nishime village (present Nishime town), which was known as a model village of the rural economy rehabilitation movement, thoroughly utilizes its past experience in today's rural development. The post-war rural life improvement movement has already acquired a history of half a century. The group of farm household homemakers that had been formed through this movement and its members were directly responsible for carrying on the movement itself and are active as central figures in today's village economy boosting endeavors to the extent that revitalization, sustainability and the future of rural Japan is inconceivable without these women. It is a feat made possible by human and social capital that has been formed and strengthened through the experiences of township and village economy promotion.

RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT IN RURAL ECONOMY REHABILITATION MOVEMENT

Rural life improvements in rural economy rehabilitation movement that were developed on a national scale in pre-war rural Japan is summarized in this section as they are considered indispensable in understanding the post-war rural life improvement movement. The rural economy rehabilitation movement was set out by the then Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry during the Showa Depression in the 1930s and carried out based on the Villages Economic Rehabilitation Plan for Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries along with the Agricultural Civil Engineering Project for Rescuing the Country and the Temporary Rice Marketing Control Measures. The plan required the township and village governments designated for economic recovery to formulate an economic rehabilitation plan for their own region.

Positioned alongside the economic improvement as elements of this rehabilitation plan were rural education, hygiene, and rural life improvement. Rural life improvement included rural hygiene, collective water service, medical facilities, kitchen improvement and improvement of toilets in the rural hygiene field, and residence improvement, assembly halls, small libraries, consolation facilities and setting up rural public holidays in the rural livelihood field. However, the state policy of rural life improvement in the rehabilitation movement was to give top priority to measures relating to the battered rural economy. For this reason, it was merely a pillar of expenditure cutback on the other end of the major proposition of increasing rural income. In other words, it sought to achieve liquidation of farm household debts and rural relief by means of economizing based on rural life

improvement and maximizing the difference with an increase in income, including non-agricultural activities and small businesses.

Therefore, rural life improvement in the rehabilitation movement called for economizing and self-discipline based on the standard lifestyle. As a result, ceremonial occasions became the perfect target of economizing and savings were achieved by setting standards for simplified formalities. One can also argue that rural life improvement proposed by the policy-makers during this period intrinsically lacked the considerations for basic human factors such as qualitative improvement of life, formation of livelihood identity and enjoying life itself.

POST-WAR RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT MOVEMENT

Origin of Rural Life Improvement Program

The policy that was implemented toward Japanese agriculture under the instruction of the General Headquarters (GHQ) immediately after World War II was promoted under the name of rural democratization and consisted of resolute execution of agrarian reform, establishment of agricultural cooperatives, and introduction of the agricultural extension system. The agricultural extension aimed at the dissemination of scientific skills and knowledge in agriculture and agrarian life based on the Agricultural Improvement Promotion Law (1948). On the other hand, the fostering of rural youth clubs became one of the three main pillars of the extension programs along with agricultural technological improvement and rural life improvement. The purpose of rural life improvement for farm households was to “improve the lives of farm households and foster thinking farmers” through the improvement of livelihood skills of farm households. At the backdrop of this was the notion that “improvement of production and improvement of livelihood are on equal footing and that solutions of livelihood problems and upliftment of rural livelihood would lead to the advancement of production activities” in contrast to the production-oriented approach which argued that “improving the existing production would automatically improve the quality of life”.

The Agricultural Improvement Promotion Law (partially revised in 1952) provided that “as for the duty of improvement extension workers who are posted on the front lines of rural villages, such extension workers shall be strongly instructed to take every opportunity to make visits to farm households in the district assigned to them to convey the knowledge and skills necessary for making improvements in farm activities as well as knowledge and skills that are needed for rural life improvement in addition to offering consultation”. This is an indication that “the conventional unilateral provision of agricultural technical guidance from the government based on subsidies in a top-down manner has been reconsidered and that the spirit of this program lies in fostering independent farmers and farmer education through technical guidance”. Thus, extension programs were implemented by making a clear distinction from the then compulsory food delivery scheme. The extension of the program was attempted through a more educational manner, including radio broadcasts and distribution of printed materials.

Rural life improvement programs of the then Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry were positioned as a part of agricultural improvement extension programs. However, agricultural improvement extension experienced more expansion and enhancement in terms of organizational systems, relevance with agricultural policy, and close coordination with agricultural research as it dealt with the national issue of increasing food production. In

contrast, rural life improvement required much time to prepare its organizational system partly due to its being a new system and coordination with agricultural research institutions and universities was extremely inadequate compared to the agricultural improvement extension.

Development of Post-war Rural Life Improvement Campaign/Programs

The process of organizational development for rural life improvement can be divided into three periods based on phases of system consolidation, i.e., 1) small district period (1951-57), 2) intermediate district period (1958-64), and 3) broad district period (1965-68).

The name “small district period” was given because agricultural extension workers were posted in each municipality. The number of livelihood extension workers remained at an average of 33 per prefecture in fiscal year 1957 despite efforts to increase their number, with each worker being responsible for 2.5 municipalities or 4,000 farm households. It was a period in which livelihood extension workers themselves were exploring the definition of rural life improvement in their process of probing in the dark and they struggled as they formulated their activities. It was in this process of probing in the dark that the intensive guidance method was devised. This method fosters the formation of groups and concentrates guidance on these groups instead of focusing on individual farm households, and the exchange of experiences between livelihood extension workers became one of the important sources of information for rural life improvement activities. The main areas of activities that were extensively approached included improvement of cooking stoves, kitchens, water supply facilities and baths in improvement of residential facilities, preserved foods in busy farming seasons, promotion of wheat flour consumption, and raising small livestock in improvement of protein intake, and improvement of work clothes and command eradication of flies and mosquitoes.

Expert technical staff supporting livelihood extension workers from the technical side had been assigned since the year following the inauguration of the extension program in 1949. Their number was gradually increased and reached two in every prefecture in 1954 and they shared the extension work with the livelihood skills (later changed to extension guidance activities).

The name “intermediate district period” originated from the establishment of 1,586 extension stations throughout the country following the revision of the Agricultural Improvement Promotion Law in 1958. These stations served as the base for advancement of extension activities. This period also overlaps with the launching of the so-called Agricultural Basic Law Administration. Inclinations towards part-time farming, a high percentage of women and elderly among farm labor, and the outflow of rural youth to urban areas resulted in a reduction in the farm labor force and the expansion of the income gap between industry and agriculture. With this as the basic element, excessive labor, health disorders and declining level of livelihood quality among homemakers of farm households became a serious problem, causing rural life improvement activities to shift toward “securing of nutrition for farmers with emphasis on their health level” in large scale. The number of home living improvement practice groups increased during this period, reaching 14,927 groups in 1964 participated in by a total of 300,000 people. The Farm Household Life Improvement Fund was established within the agricultural improvement fund system (founded in 1951) on the final year of this period to open the way for offering interest-free loans to farmers and their groups.

The “broad district period” saw an advancement in adaptation of extension organizations to wide areas in response to expansion of rural economic zones. The health of

household members in agriculture, forestry and fisheries industries, excessive labor by women in farm households, delays in rural living infrastructure investment, and enhancement of the appeal of rural life were pointed out because of the outflow of the rural population, urbanization of rural villages, increase in part-time farming, continuation of migrant labor, and the emergence of the farm successor shortage issue. Upgrading the infrastructure to a level comparable to cities, including roads, water supply and sewage systems, public facilities, and the construction of health, welfare and cultural facilities were sought as rural life improvement programs while introducing Special Programs for Management of Health Lives for Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries Households and Special Programs for Optimization of Family Labor. Moreover, betterment of rural life was included as the subject of the program in addition to that of individual farm households.

Results of Initial Post-war Rural Life Improvement Programs

To take a general view of the initial results of rural life improvement programs, there were 5,461 home living improvement practice groups (with membership of 130,992) as of the end of March 1956. The most common content of improvement the groups were working on in terms of number of groups was cooking stove improvement, followed by the preparation of preserved foods and the making of improved work clothes.

According to the results of a 1956 national survey on cooking stove improvement, 2.2 million households (38 percent of all farm households) had already improved their cooking stoves, 1.58 million households (27 percent) had improved their cooking stove after the introduction of the rural life improvement movement, and 1.47 million households (25 percent) were planning to improve their cooking stove within one year. Regional differences also existed in the rate of improved cooking stove installment with the rate being low in Tohoku, Kanto and Hokuriku regions (20 percent mark), highest in Tokai (70 percent) and on the 50-percent mark in Chugoku and Shikoku regions. Prefectures in which the number of farm households placed in charge of each livelihood extension worker was smaller had a higher rate of cooking stove improvement. In addition, the percentage of farm households that had made improvements to their cooking stove by 1948 was high in Tokai and parts of Shikoku (a little over 40 percent of Tokai's average).

The educational effects of rural life improvement extension activities on the group members has attracted considerable attention. In other words, changing attitudes such as the following were observed among the participating farm households: few people come to the meeting with clear purpose; they attend meetings only because they were told or asked to by others and because of social obligation in some cases; they want new and sophisticated things in their homes, regardless of whether they need them or not; they do not try to practice the skills they learned at home; they make improvements to show off as though in competition; they are constrained by the presence of a leader or mother-in-law; few people express their opinions and it is only a certain few who do; they want to keep useful information to themselves; and money is needed to make the improvements. As the degree of participation in rural life improvement extension activities advanced, however, all of these turned into positive attitudes such as: inclination to learn skills that are needed or appropriate for one's home; always applying the learnt skills at home; teaching each other the skills they have; increased variety and degree of skills; having confidence in one's skills; becoming better communicators; fewer rumors and less gossip; less attachment to position in society and family lineage; making one's own judgements; identifying problems in one's own life; making attempts to solve everything through group cooperation; and increased interest in the

issues of groups and villages. It appears that we can get a glimpse of what post-war rural democratization aspired for and attained through rural life improvement.

CHARACTERISTICS OF POST-WAR RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT MOVEMENTS

The long history of rural life improvement in post-war Japan has been mentioned earlier. However, post-war rural life improvement differs from other rural life improvement movements that were discussed in the first section of this paper in that it was originally introduced as a part of the GHQ occupation policy hence based on an imported exotic policy. In this sense, it had a very unique characteristic, although assimilation of imported policy into local regions, i.e. Japanization, occurred in the process of being propagated in the rural communities of Japan. From the viewpoint of rural villages and farmers, however it was easy to accept without much preconception because they had previous experience of rural life improvement prior to the war. Then what were the characteristics of this rural life improvement movement, especially in the early period of the first 10 years or so? Several indications that follow are made in connection with the present rural development issues in the developing countries:

- C First, the post-war rural life improvement movement owes much to the activities and efforts of livelihood extension workers. Until recently, all livelihood extension workers were women. They jumped into the rural villages in the post-war recovery period with an extremely high sense of mission and explored the new horizon of the rural life improvement movement as they probed in the dark. Supported by new ideas, livelihood skills and information, they played the role of facilitator in rural life improvement in an extremely creative manner;
- C Second, programs and activities employed in this rural life improvement movement were conceived in the field of uncompromising rural life and were utilized based on the studies conducted to grasp the real conditions of farm household life and their results. In other words, it was based on a thorough field-oriented principle;
- C Third, the approach of placing emphasis on accumulation of concrete improvements and attaining them in a systematic manner was taken. This utilitarianism not only increased understanding and support from the homemakers that participated and their family members, particularly their husband and parents-in-law, about the rural life improvement activities but also urged the approval of the homemakers in home living improvement practice group activities;
- C Fourth, the post-war rural life improvement movement was strongly inclined towards solving the livelihood issues of farm households through improvement of things that already exist, rather than replacing them through external means, which is a fortunate outcome of lack of the so-called subsidy system in the early stages of the movement;
- C Fifth, it offered an opportunity for creative problem-solving experience to the homemakers of farm households by placing emphasis on the process of concrete activities in the rural life improvement movement and introducing the techniques. Homemakers of farm households who grew up with and have inherited this process and blossom in their activity experience until today and have become the central figures of town and village development activities throughout the country;

- C Sixth, the post-war rural life improvement movement was carried out by seeing farm household homemakers as individuals and organizing them into small groups. The activities of these small groups called home living improvement practice groups supported not only the continuation of the rural life improvement activity itself but also the personal growth of group members and the growth of livelihood extension workers;
- C Seventh, the post-war rural life improvement movement created, devised, improved and disseminated various participatory rural development methods. Among them were many techniques that anticipated various participatory rural development techniques that are extensively discussed in recent development studies for developing countries; and
- C Eighth, the post-war rural life improvement movement realized long-term involvement of the policies of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and acquired brilliant female personnel among the bureaucratic structures of central government and prefectures that could become the main leaders on the administration end of such policies. It is no exaggeration to say that dissemination and establishment of the post-war rural life improvement movement would not have been possible had it not been for the creative efforts made by these competent female bureaucrats.

IMPLICATIONS IN THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

While rural life improvement in post-war Japan already has a history of 50 years, it is rather a halfway length of time in terms of history. And yet it is already far off from today's daily life, which makes it difficult to obtain information aside from relying mainly on memory of the persons concerned. In addition, farming and rural life have great regional differences, which requires us to collect, sort and analyze information and materials by taking regional characteristics into consideration. For this reason, it is necessary to continue the accumulation of research and studies on the post-war rural life improvement movement into the future.

The implications of the experience of the post-war rural life improvement movement for today's rural development issues on the part of developing countries can be seen from a strong demand for learning from the Japanese experience and dispatching the results on an international scale as may be gleaned from the following accounts:

Image of the New Rural Community and Its Formation

It is necessary to sublimate this experience of rural life improvement to the extent that it can propose the future direction of development assistance for the developing countries. The significance of the close connection between the agricultural improvement extension programs and rural life improvement extension programs have been approached as an important implication to the developing countries today. For instance, while increasing agricultural production and expansion of production activities are proposed as solutions to the poverty problem in rural regions, the reality is that they alone do not necessarily offer sufficient conditions for solving the problem. In view of the emphasis currently placed on the establishment of a sustainable livelihood in rural regions, Japan's experience in rural life improvement (at least that in the early days of the movement) seems to have a large role in drawing the blueprint for the future of rural areas in developing countries.

The experience in development from the rapid economic growth in 1960s onward and the lessons derived from it will be important for sectors of relatively developed among

developing countries in which socio-economic advancement has already taken place. Meanwhile, least developed among developing countries will benefit from Japan's experience of economic development before the war and the experience of development assistance Japan has been offering to developing countries to date. The focus of the issue will, therefore, be the method of offering development aid to the underdeveloped sectors that have been left out from the development that has taken place up to now. While various attempts, including participatory development, development activities through NGOs, micro-finance, gender and development, and development and environment are being made in the present development efforts for these sectors, the experience and lessons of rural life improvement suggest the importance and possibility of addressing the matter by combining them in a comprehensive and synergetic manner according to the actual and concrete local situation.

Sharing of Village Development Experience

Rural development in Japan has a long history and tradition of village development. It is not possible to apply the Japanese experience to rural societies with socio-cultural systems quite different from those of Japan. However, the future of rural communities is currently placed in an extremely uncertain condition, be they in developed or developing countries. It shall suffice to cite an example of the relationship between Agenda 21 and Local Agenda 21 to point out the need for local approach in a global age. Prefectural and municipal governments in Japan are experiencing rapid internationalization in addition to aging, reduced birth rate, depopulation and decline of the rural economy in recent decades. An observation of the details of the stages of internationalization reveals a tendency towards successive development of forming a sister-city affiliation in the first stage, further advancing exchange in the second stage through technical cooperation and acceptance of trainees, and moving on to the third stage in which coexistence, mutual exchange of information and mutual village and regional development scheme are used as leverage. The number of municipalities in the first stage referred to was 1,373 (in the year 2000), although those that have reached the second and third stages are still limited. However, it is also true that many municipalities are finding themselves in such a difficult situation that they are compelled to seek regional development by incorporating these elements. Considering the fact that only 406 municipalities in the first stage had sister-city affiliations with developing countries in Asia in 2000, the viewpoint and mechanism for approaching village development in developing countries and village development in Japan is needed at the same time. The experience in rural life improvement should prove useful for this purpose and would offer an effective mode of cooperation from Japan.

Organization of Farmers and Development Policy

Japan's agricultural development experience illustrates the efforts made by the government in infiltrating the agricultural development policy through organizing farmers. For instance, agricultural associations that were organized in accordance with the establishment and enforcement of Dai Nippon Agricultural Association in the Meiji era (1881), National Agricultural Association (1896), Agricultural Association Law (1899) and Industrial Union Law (1900) reflected the interests of the landowners that were gaining power at the time, although they served as a channel for development communication that connected the (upper class) farmers and the government while enabling the local (upper class) farmers to participate in agricultural development by being organized. Affiliated agricultural associations (named after the three-stage organization of government, prefecture and

municipality) and industrial associations were in charge of agricultural technology dissemination and economic projects, respectively. The industrial cooperatives expansion movement was developed and farmer organizations on the scale of today's agricultural cooperatives were formed during the transitional period to the war regime from the 1930s onward. The government built an organizational system for controlling the people from the top through the former Ministry of Interior affiliations and police authority but had not formed an effective communication channel in the economic and industrial sectors, including agriculture. For this reason, the government had been making efforts for many years to build a mechanism for dealing with the agricultural development policies. Farmers (mostly landowners and upper class farmers) also responded positively to such efforts as long as it was beneficial for them.

In other words, an effective communication channel for agricultural development (through which agricultural development policies are communicated, accepted by farmers after translating them into their local conditions and the demands from the farmers are sent to the government) did not exist originally between the farmers and the government in the initial stage of economic development in Japan. That is, the development of such communication and the mechanism for accepting policies in the region have been created through government policy (i.e., intentionally) in the process of economic development. As mentioned earlier, the importance of this point is also obvious in the rural life improvement movement. It appears that the importance of such communication channels has not been fully recognized in the present assistance policy of Japan towards the developing countries. In other words, it is teaching us the need to transmit Japan's experience in such lessons.

2. RURAL LIFE AND EXTENSION SERVICE IN JAPAN*

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INTRODUCTION

The present abbreviated resource paper comes in two parts. The first part is a brief presentation of the traditional characteristics of rural communities in Japan serving as it does a backdrop of the second part. The intention is to provide a benchmark or setting that the latter discusses and hence add a direction and meaning to the latter. As a useful setting, the first part also reviews the revolutionary changes in rural communities in Japan during the post-World War II era, the rural life improvement in the country and the extension system that launched the present-day farm and home extension services. It is to be recognized that the agricultural extension service as it is known today in Japan is an implant from the United States as part of the democratization imposed by the then U.S. occupation forces. The first part properly concluded with a brief sketch of the roles of the livelihood workers in Ehime prefecture where the author is a lecturer on the subject of this seminar.

On the other hand, the second part of the paper is a much more detailed discussion on the extension skills and techniques used by contemporary livelihood extension workers that draws in large measure from case reports or studies in Ehime. At the same time, the second part reviews some relevant concepts that lend meaning on some useful lessons of a common experience in successful efforts of several extensionists in several locations/communities in the prefecture, in many cases, prior to the 1900s. The second part, for purposes of this report, makes no attempt to reiterate line-by-line the 43-page long original paper that was discussed during the seminar, copies of which were given to each of the participants and observers in the seminar.

TRADITIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPAN'S RURAL COMMUNITIES

Country Profile in Brief

Japan is an island nation that lies in the Asian monsoon climate zone. Its four distinct temperature seasons of spring, summer, fall, and winter provide a beautiful change in atmosphere and scenery four times a year. Summers are warm with abundant rain which, therefore, coincides with the planting of rice – the staple food of the Japanese. Seventy percent of the land is forest and mountains. Almost all agricultural crops are grown in relatively small patches of lowlands, the average farm size being barely a hectare each.

* Original paper was prepared for the Research on the Life Improvement Program in Rural Japan (LIP-RuJ) and the Prospects for Japan's Rural Development Cooperation undertaken by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in March 2002.

The traditional rural communities still show in many parts of the country a farming community consisting of families doing farming as a family business. The patriarchal system in the country respects the oldest child in a family. Japan consists of almost one ethnic group who speaks and writes a common language and shares the same culture by and large. The people are related to each other through water and land. They share the same production and life by being engaged in rice cultivation.

In the traditional family-oriented society, women were expected to work as a labor force which is considered as a virtue. There used to be invisible rules that prevented them from attending public meetings and participating in public activities which promoted male chauvinism. Much of these prohibitions, however, are gradually becoming “a thing of the past” as democratization in the country advances.

Rural Life Improvement Extension System

The basic objective of Japan’s extension system is to support farmers in their efforts at operating meaningful agricultural management and manage their lives through the dissemination of technical information. By nature, the system has the shades of cooperativism. Its basic concept is to respect farmers’ voluntary spirits to bring out their latent talents and strengthen ties with experiments and research. The four characteristics of extension services in the country are: 1) management; 2) focus of instruction was the people; 3) improvement of life of farming households; and 4) nurturing of youth in farming communities. Extension workers are responsible for extension services. The number of livelihood extension workers in Japan as a 1995 target averaged 15 workers per prefecture or a total of 2,010. In 1991, however, there were only 1,195 – just a little over half of the target number.

The extension system may be grouped into: 1) livelihood extension workers of prefectures (block level, regional bureaus and national level); and 2) subject-matter specialists and voluntary training, including distance learning and self-development training.

Looking back over the last 25 years in Japan, the formative years of the extension program was a time “to fill up the stomach”. The second period was a time to fill them up with goods in an era of economic growth; and the third period was a time to fill up the people’s mind with spiritual satisfaction.

EXTENSION SKILLS/TECHNIQUES AND APPROACHES

Extension workers do not always undertake similar activities even if they were dealing with the same problem not only because their target groups differ but also because extension workers use varying approaches depending upon equally varying conditions and available materials or co-workers. The concept of variability in this particular case is “buried” in one or all of extension skills, namely; 1) draw attention; 2) raise interest; 3) expand interest; 4) recognize necessities; and 5) take action.

Extension skills used by workers later become tools for research and learning when farmers or housewives solve problems by themselves. When farmers or housewives reach this point, they themselves acquire skills to talk effectively, conduct surveys, obtain statistical data and report to their fellow farmers. Basic to these extension skills are the use of audio-visual materials, verbal extension skills, extension skills by action, personal contact, and contact media. These skills are available to extensionists either singly or in combination. In one study case sometime ago in Ehime on life planning seminar, the skills that were actually

used were: 1) distribution of printed matter to all households in Ose community; 2) broadcasting in the community; and 3) selection of participants in a seminar.

Another significant case report earlier in Ikatacho community, also in Ehime prefecture, featured a cooperation between agricultural extensionists and livelihood extension workers. The former switched orange production from mandarin oranges to semi-late maturing varieties while the latter organized 46 households in joint cooking. The households cooked 180 meals a day for 35 days which not only triggered the activities of the eight members of a farmers' organization but led people to being aware of problems of works, particularly the wives of farmers who were invited to their meetings. In the year that followed, the women formed a home living improvement group. Further down, in the community, two other groups played a key role in activities for creating a new Ohama community. Clearly then, involvement was the common "thread" that moved people to contribute their shares in a common endeavor.

Although the menfolk were the heads of the farming households who appeared in public as those who conducted the activities, it was apparent that the change in the cultivation cycle which led to the dispersion of labor was actually a reflection of the womenfolks' voice and efforts.

CONCLUSION

Even as extensionists learned many skills in the roles that they played for and in the communities cited in the few case studies cited above, one outstanding issue was "to whom to appeal". As the womenfolk were the direct target of the life or home improvement projects, they worked to encourage the "through children's eyes" or "communicate through men's voices". According to the extension workers who were involved in the improvement of life in the community and their targets of instructions were women, they approached both women and everyone else in the community. The logic was that people or residents in the entire community should be involved in more ways than one in various community projects.

In previous other case studies, activities aimed at "rationalization of life and better efficiency in household duties" emphasized in early rural life improvement movement were described. Although it was the main goal in rural life improvement services that was introduced from the United States, what was very important for farming communities was 'ways of conducting joint activities that match the community and the idea of voluntary rehabilitation'. They sought not only economic affluence, but also ways of creating a farming community based on the "supportive spirit" that had originally existed in traditional communities by nurturing "an eye to look at life comprehensively".

3. RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT EXPERIENCE IN JAPAN FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES¹

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SIGNIFICANCE AND CHALLENGES IN RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT STUDIES

Life Improvement Program in Rural Japan as a Successful Example of Rural Development

Japan is the only major aid giving country that has a history of “having received aid” and “having struggled as a developing country”.² The fundamental concern of this paper lies in how Japan can contribute as an aid donor to the developing countries, particularly towards the improvement of rural life under a unique experience of “having been a developing country”.

Among the experiences in development that Japan has gone through, the most amazing fact is that the country succeeded in accelerating her economic development in the 1960s and eventually enabled many of the people to enjoy unprecedented economic benefits. This Japanese “miracle” became possible only after a struggling period of 20 years that started with the end of World War II in 1945 while the nation was in a state of starvation and extreme poverty. What path did Japan follow in this 20-year period to accomplish her “escape from poverty”?

We believe that it is incorrect to say that this Japanese miracle came simply through the success of a macro-economic policy. We have witnessed many instances where a country succeeded in rapid economic development over the past 20 years in East Asia to explain the difference between Japan and East Asian experiences but such development did not automatically lead to the eradication of poverty. Then what is the key?

Our hypothesis is that the process of economic and social development in post-war Japan was not possible without the scheme of “social development”, particularly through the

¹ Original paper was prepared for the Research on the Life Improvement Program in Rural Japan (LIP-RuJ) and the Prospects for Japan’s Rural Development Cooperation undertaken by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) in March 2002.

² In terms of mere economic assistance, the post-World War II Marshall Plan was the aid offered from the United States to the European countries. However, it was a reconstruction fund and, therefore, treated as different from development aid *per se*.

accumulation of various rural life improvements in rural areas. And the keyword for social development in rural areas of Japan at that time was “life improvement” (*seikatsu-kaizen*).

The national goals immediately after World War II consisted of securing food, improving sanitary conditions and building a “democratic state” to replace the collapsed militarist system. We may say that the concerted efforts by the entire population towards these goals from the central government to local governments (prefectural administrations) and rural communities came to fruition in the form of rapid economic growth. Of course, we should admit that the process was accompanied by side effects such as the swelling of urban population, pollution, environmental destruction and rural depopulation. However, it is an obvious fact that the common people of Japan succeeded in escaping from poverty and gained access to a life in which they can live without worrying about food, clothing and shelter.

Then what kind of lesson can the Japanese experience offer to today’s site of development aid that has set its goal on “eradication of poverty” but has been unsuccessful in producing the expected results? It is, of course, far-fetched to think that the experience in Japan with a different historical background and culture can be applied to the present rural development efforts in developing countries. It is true that, despite the economic devastation, Japan in those days had obvious advantages over today’s developing countries such as human resources, administrative skills, history of modernization up to that time, and the degree of technical disparity with the then developed countries. However, Japan at that time and present day developing countries also have many points in common. In particular, the sudden assignment of “democratization of rural areas and farmers”, under the instruction of the General Headquarters (GHQ), which had no relevance to Japan’s social situation nor introduction of a system called “Rural Life Improvement Extension Service”, also under the instruction of the GHQ. These were events having extremely similar structure to “rural development through intervention of an outsider” that is connected with the present day international cooperation (some call this “Induced Development”). Moreover, Japan would not have been able to survive had it not been for emergency food imports and commodity assistance such as clothing and milk from overseas, especially during the first several years after the war. At the time, Japan was receiving aid from foreign NGOs, UN organizations such as UNICEF and the World Bank.³ Recognizing that these matters should reveal the meaning of reflecting on the experience of rural development in “Japan as a once aid-receiving country”, the experience of “rural life improvement” should offer many hints for “rural development” which is being attempted in various ways in the developing countries of today.

IMPORT OF EXTENSION PROGRAM AND ITS OUTLINE

Starting from Below-zero Position

The landscape of Japan in the summer of 1945 when she accepted defeat in war consisted of rural areas with declined productivity. This was a result of not having been able to secure sufficient labor force to maintain the farms after the men were called to the army. Also, urban areas whose industrial production capacity and social infrastructure had been

³ Aside from this, there was the GARIOA (Government Appropriation for Relief in Occupied Areas) Fund which was mainly used for food import and the EROA (Economic Rehabilitation in Occupied Area) Fund which was mainly used for industrial machinery. However, these aids were not donations but had to be repaid afterwards (Yasuhiko Kishi, *Post-war History of Food and Agriculture*, p. 26).

destroyed by the repeated air raids and the atomic bombings during the last days of the war, hence needed labor force. And the masses of people tormented by poverty and starvation were all that was left on farm lands.

Japan in those days was faced with almost the entire array of problems faced by many of the developing countries today such as food shortage, malnutrition, health deterioration and poor sanitary conditions in addition to the sense of humiliation the people were feeling from being defeated in war and the occupation.

One after another, demobilized soldiers and repatriates were returning from the battlefronts and former colonies to this shattered country. The population increased rapidly as the post-war marriage boom was added on top of all this. Meanwhile, the increase in agricultural production was slow owing to the lack of agricultural implements, agricultural machinery and fertilizers. Also aggravated by unseasonable weather, a serious food shortage hit the whole country in 1945 and 1946 which was extremely severe with many dying of starvation.⁴ The infant mortality rate at the time was very high in both urban and rural areas. Making matters worse, many were victimized by the typhoons that came every summer for the first 10 years or so after the war owing to neglect of investment in flood control and disaster prevention. In addition, epidemic of infectious diseases brought over from tropical regions by repatriates claimed many lives.

Rural Democratization as an Imposed Ideal

Amid these circumstances, Japan came under the occupation of the Allied Forces led by the United States and started off the seven years of General Headquarters of the Allied Forces (GHQ) reigning as the authority above the Japanese Government. The purpose of the American occupation policy was to convert Japan in such a way that she would not become a threat to the United States in the future, and the means for attaining this goal was to democratize the Japanese society by modeling it after the United States. Toward this objective, a series of policies for the democratization of the Japanese society were set out one after another, including constitutional amendment, disbanding of the military, disarmament, enfranchisement of women, dissolution of financial combine (*Zaibatsu*), and education reform. However, the GHQ thought that this wave of democratization had to reach the rural areas (where 70 percent of the population lived at that time) for Japan to become a truly democratic society. Thus the three major reforms were implemented in rapid succession in post-war rural areas consisting of “agricultural land reform”, “establishment of agricultural cooperatives”,⁵ and “commencement of agricultural improvement and extension programs”.

⁴ Rice was rationed but short of the required amount and its delivery was often delayed or cancelled. “Black-market rice” did exist at this time of food shortage, and urban residents were bringing their clothing and assets to rural areas to exchange them for “black-market rice” (farmers were required to deliver to the government all the rice they produced for rationing). However, there were people who were too proud to consume such black-market rice and, consequently, died of malnutrition. The well-known cases are of a high school teacher in 1945 and the Tokyo District Court Judge Tadayoshi Yamaguchi in 1947. Yamaguchi’s incident was reported as “tragedy of a guardian of law” (*Post-war History of Food and Agriculture*, p. 17, Asahi Shimbun, 5 November 1947).

⁵ The Second Land Reform (Special Measures Law for Independent Farming, revision of the Farmland Adjustment Law) and the Agricultural Cooperative Law were enacted in 1946 and 1947, respectively. Based on the understanding that existence of independent farmers is essential for democratization of rural areas, the three major reforms shared the common goal (continued...)

In response to the enforcement of the Agricultural Improvement Promotion Law (1948), prefectural governments created agricultural improvement extension offices and allocated two types of extension workers, i.e., agricultural extension workers (mainly men, in charge of offering guidance on agricultural techniques and agricultural production) and livelihood extension workers (all women, in charge of improvement of rural life). The hiring of extension workers and extension activities actually started in April 1949. And it was this newly created group of female livelihood extension workers that played a central role in the post-war rural life improvement activities.

CONCEPT OF RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT EXTENSION SERVICE

The then General MacArthur of the GHQ who ruled occupied Japan gave top priority to democratization as the means of reconstructing Japan and considered it necessary for the democratization drive to permeate every nook and corner of rural Japan. Thinking that conventional methods would not work in rural areas where tradition and old social structures were retained, the GHQ narrowed the target to women who had been severely oppressed and tried to redirect their emancipative energy towards social reform. The system of livelihood extension work for rural women was introduced as the most well-defined means for attaining this goal.

In those days, democratization was the “voice of heaven” and no one was able to refute this slogan squarely. For this reason, the slogan was granted a no-questions-asked legitimacy when reaching out to women.

Nevertheless, changing the awareness of women and of rural areas was not a task that could be carried out overnight. A rationale for carrying out rural life improvement other than the democratization ideology was needed. And increasing food production was the undisputed national goal in those days. Increasing food production, particularly rice, was of utmost importance in overcoming the food shortage. At that time many people were dying of malnutrition and trains were packed with people traveling from cities to the countryside to obtain food.

“Farm labor is indispensable in increasing food production and the health of such farm labor is the key to increasing production. And, therefore, creating a cheerful and healthy rural life is of vital importance for the agriculture of Japan.” This rationale offered the logic supporting the need for “livelihood extension workers” in addition to the “agricultural extension workers” who support production skills, leading to frequent reference to the “inseparability of production and livelihood”.

Disparity in livelihood between urban and rural areas was also apparent from the viewpoint of social welfare. People in rural areas in those days may have had some access

⁵ (...continued)

of carrying out emancipation of farmlands in order to create independent farmers, creating agricultural cooperatives so that these independent farmers could support each other and thus prevent them from falling in independent management and having to sell their farm, and setting up an extension program to teach the required knowledge and skills to individual farmers.

to electricity, but hardly any running water or gas. This meant that women were placed in a poor environment for doing housework, as they had to go to rivers and springs to draw water and cook on stoves that required the collection of firewood. Seeking to improve the lives of these women was, therefore, also justifiable from the viewpoint of social equity. However, there were insufficient economic resources for this purpose.

For this reason, economic self-sustenance of the rural economy was included among the goals of rural life improvement. “Awakening self-reliance” in the moral realm and “economic self-sustenance” in the economic realm were slogans that were on the same track as “democratization” in the political realm.

This “awakening self-reliance” in the moral realm is expressed by the phrase that was set as the target for the entire agricultural improvement extension program, “creating farmers who think”. This is based on the same concept as “creating students who think” in the educational reforms that were also put forward by the GHQ. In this sense, rural life improvement programs had the same position as adult education and social education.⁶

STRATEGY OF RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM

Livelihood Extension Workers

The greatest factor behind the success of the rural life improvement program was the dedicated activities of the women who became livelihood extension workers. Rural life improvement would not have been achieved had it not been for these women who visited one isolated village after another and tried to encourage rural women by sometimes staying overnight at these villages. While women who studied home economics were able to work as livelihood extension workers under the original U.S. system, early livelihood extension workers that were recruited when the extension program started in 1949 were mostly qualified teachers and nutritionists, because institutions of higher education for home economics was almost non-existent in Japan at the time. The livelihood extension workers (also called “Home Advisor”), who were women, worked in extension programs together with agricultural extension workers (also called “Farm Advisor”), who were men. Compared to agricultural extension workers who had actual skills and knowledge about agriculture, livelihood extension workers had no specific skills and were seriously lost as to how they should approach the extension program. It was also difficult to obtain an understanding of the term “agricultural extension workers” on the part of the women.

It was the combination of lack of teaching skills among livelihood extension workers and the goal of “creating farmers who think” that led to the quite intentional adoption of the bottom-up method. Democracy meant that everyone expressing opinions and certain actions should be taken according to the consensus of many people. Extension workers often called “*sensei*” (teacher) were relatively highly educated compared to the village women. However, the women were strictly instructed to refrain from taking high-handed and instructor-like attitudes and made efforts to build relationships of trust with the villagers by staying over at farms when visiting remote villages. For this reason, they were concentrating on activities that could be described as original form of fieldwork in which they went around the village

⁶ Matsuyo Yamamoto, the first manager of the Rural Life Improvement Division said, “... after the American ideology came in, the GHQ’s idea in a broad sense was to incorporate agriculture and livelihood into the adult education program” (Kiyoko Nishi, *Lives of Japanese Women Under Occupation*, p. 187).

on foot, talked to the women and gained an understanding of real life in the village (village development extension workers of today's Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers may be going through the same experience).

The role of livelihood extension workers was by no means to become women's leaders. Extension workers were expected to play the role of facilitators who enabled women to become aware of numerous problems that existed in daily life and recognize them as problems. They did introduce new contrivances such as improved cooking stoves, improved work clothes and nutritious food. However, it was not until village women became aware of the problems of the cooking stoves they were using, inconveniences of their work clothes and problems of their daily diet that they started exploring the direction of improvement. In other words, the extension workers did not impose the improved cooking stoves from the outset.

In addition, since extension workers did not necessarily know everything about life, they also played the role of an intermediary who introduced required knowledge and skills from agricultural extension workers and concerned administrative agencies, and introduced rural life improvement practice made in other villages. Although in the field of agricultural knowledge, people performing such functions and possessing agricultural skills did exist,⁷ information on livelihood skills was not easily conveyed when the free movement of women was limited in rural communities. Livelihood extension workers, who were provided with the modern tool (the bicycle), may have been seen as butterflies that flew freely from one village to another.

Subject-matter specialists were posted in each prefecture for the purpose of providing logistical support to livelihood extension workers in an effort to establish a system in which people having expertise in food, clothing and shelter offered advice to livelihood extension workers. These subject-matter specialists regularly received training in Tokyo. It was the Rural Life Improvement Division in the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries that issued instructions on the method of dissemination for the entire country. Matsuyo Yamamoto (maiden name, Ohmori), who had studied home economics at the State University of Washington before the war, was appointed as the first manager of the Rural Life Improvement Division which was created in 1948 under the instruction of the GHQ Natural Resources Bureau. What the GHQ expected from Yamamoto was to introduce the American style educative extension program to Japan. Yamamoto offered unique guidance by hammering American lifestyle into the newly-appointed extension workers, and the managers of the Rural Life Improvement Division who took office after Yamamoto (all women) strived to develop extension methods suited to the Japanese circumstances by mobilizing scholars of pedagogy and sociology.⁸

⁷ Tsuneichi Miyamoto, a folklorist from a farm household in Yamaguchi prefecture spent some time during and after the war teaching agricultural skills to farmers in various places. Miyamoto has remarked about his experience as follows: *"It was fun to learn new skills and I learned so much. And I would convey those skills to people who did not practice such skills. They really appreciated it. My role was like that of carrier pigeon"* (Tsuneichi Miyamoto, *Folklore Travels*, p. 128, Kodansha Academic Library).

⁸ People such as Satoru Umene of Tokyo University of Education in pedagogy as well as Kazuo Aoi and Jiro Matsubara of Tokyo University in sociology were also invited as lecturers in such training and they cooperated in preparing the teaching materials for the extension workers.

It must have been unthinkable to ask scholars outside of the technical field to assist in programs implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries prior to this. The division may have become a sort of sanctuary in the Ministry after it took in an unknown field of “livelihood”.

However, the end extension workers did not follow blindly a centrally unified guidance program. In the Japanese archipelago, elongated in the north-south direction, the content of agriculture varied accordingly with the climate, and rural villages in western and eastern parts of the country had a different history. For this reason, livelihood extension workers introduced self-modified methods to suit the situation in each location while taking into consideration the instructions from the central government on the prefectural and field levels.⁹

Administrative Support

Extension programs were carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and the expenses were split with the respective prefectural governments. For this reason, unified instructions were issued from the central body, but programs unique to each prefecture were also carried out to the extent permitted by the prefectural budget. Extension workers (both agricultural extension workers and livelihood extension workers) were affiliated with the agriculture and forestry section of the prefectural governments and were transferred every few years from one extension office to another within the prefecture. There were far more agricultural extension workers at first, with one being posted at every natural village (villages prior to the administrative consolidation of 1953). They stayed at facilities called resident centers or they simply rented private homes in villages where there was no extension office. On the other hand, there were only several livelihood extension workers in each prefecture and one or two in each extension office at the beginning. It was, therefore, difficult just to visit every village regularly.

For this reason, the livelihood extension workers started by meeting the main figures in the village through connections and information from the agricultural extension worker stationed in the village and participated in male-dominated agricultural discussion meetings to familiarize the men in the village with livelihood extension workers. Village and town offices were generally cooperative and offered many kinds of support.

Green bicycles (the same kind as provided to agricultural extension workers) were initially provided as their means of transportation. Since it was rare for women to ride bicycles in rural areas those days, they spearheaded the introduction of modernization to rural areas along with public health nurses who rode on white bicycles. Bicycles were later replaced by motor scooters and became the object of admiration for women in the village (gasoline was paid for out of public funds and it is said that extension workers rarely used these scooters for private purposes).

When the prospects for increased food production became bright and the fiscal situation of prefectural governments stabilized after entering the 1960s, improvements in the living environment made quantum leap advancements through the establishment of a scheme whereby the prefecture offered interest-free loans towards construction of village community centers and individual kitchen improvements. Such support from the prefectural administrations played a role in furthering the results of rural life improvement activities. At any rate, one can safely conclude that the active commitment of the administrations that

⁹ See, for instance, an interview record of Kishie Kato, who served many terms as a home advisor/subject-matter specialist (see the appendices of Outline of Review Section).

offered training, provided bicycles and motor scooters, and accommodated the rural life improvement funds contributed considerably to the success of the rural life improvement movement.

CONCEPT OF IMPROVEMENT

“Minimizing the amount spent” and “making the best of the resources available” were among the characteristics of the rural life improvement extension. This was because if new materials and additional expenditures were required for the new attempts being made amidst the fund shortage in the rural communities at the time (not to mention the Japanese society as a whole), they would be given the cold shoulder by many of the poor farmers as unfeasible undertakings.

“Stove improvement” was selected as an entry point for rural life improvement programs in many regions because it was an energy-conserving facility improvement that could be built with clay and a few bricks. Livelihood extension workers were also taught the skill of daubing oven walls by studying under professional plasterers to save costs. They also underwent practical training in planning so that they could install cooking stoves and kitchen sinks on their own. These handmade cooking stoves also had a benefit of being tailored to the physique of each housewife at farm households.

The stove improvement project offers a sharp contrast to rural development projects implemented in developing countries today in the sense that improved cooking stoves that have been standardized as part of the package are brought in by the donors.

Improvement of work clothes was based on unseaming old clothes and sewing them back together again. Meanwhile, the new menus introduced for nutritional improvement were contrived to make the most of the vegetables that were locally available.

There were also various contrivances for improvement of dwellings. It may be an attribute of the light-handed Japanese, but the concept of “*Kaizen*”, or improving life by utilizing things that are available and at hand is an interesting idea that led to the improvement of the Japanese-style factory management system thereafter (TQC, etc.)

PARTICIPATORY MULTI-SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT

Studies on rural life improvement should not be misconstrued to be the same as Rural Life Improvement Programs undertaken by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. It is true that the main approaches in rural life improvement were carried out by female livelihood extension workers posted throughout the country by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and respective prefectural governments. However, the subject of our study is the “rural life improvement movement” which is referred to as a “movement” because the movements of “improvement” and “development” that were actually carried out in rural villages at the time included not only those that spawned from the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries programs. Rather, the subject includes also nutritional improvement, birth control, and maternal and child health care (under the jurisdiction of the then Ministry of Health and Welfare), social education and new livelihood movement (under the jurisdiction of the then Ministry of Education). Environmental health was promoted mainly by local municipalities, so the “rural life improvement” was a kind of a national slogan.

Moreover, each of these activities had their leaders: nutritionists in the health center and nutrition improvement promoter selected from the villagers (working as volunteers), team members of Mother and Child Parenting Teams in birth control (also volunteers), public health nurses in maternal and child health care, and 4-H Clubs¹⁰ and livelihood classes in juvenile activities. These activities based on the free initiative of the villagers were practiced all over the place. Furthermore, livelihood extension workers worked with public health nurses in some activities, rode on so-called “kitchen cars” (nutrition improvement vehicles) with nutritionists to offer cooking lessons, raised issues at social classes by obtaining help from social education secretaries, and participated in 4-H Club camps.

It was indeed an experiment of comprehensive rural development and an exploration for participatory development that attempted to attain the goal through community participation within the confines of limited funds and resources available to the government and people alike.¹¹

The results of these rural life improvement practices were reported through various channels and groups that participated in national level competitions through recommendation. Successful groups and villages were commended by the Prime Minister, Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, and mass media such as newspapers.¹²

GROUP-ORIENTED ACTIVITIES

Another characteristic feature that contributed to the success of the rural life improvement program was the encouragement from group activities. The empirical rule of “group action is more effective than individual action” naturally existed when approaching various rural life improvement activities. Aside from this, opinions such as “what one person alone cannot accomplish becomes possible when people work together in groups” and “encouragement from just getting together and talking” were heard with one accord from group members at the time.

Actual attempts that were often made after passing the individual-oriented entry point activities such as cooking stove improvement were collective cooking and collective

¹⁰ A regional club for fostering rural juveniles that originated in the United States. “4-H” stands for “Head”, “Hand”, “Heart” and “Health”. For some reason, guidance and fostering of the 4-H Club was placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, and both livelihood extension workers and agricultural extension workers worked as leaders of local 4-H Clubs.

¹¹ There were also environmental health activities such as the “Movement for Eliminating Flies and Mosquitoes” in which women’s associations and youth organizations played the central role under the guidance of public health centers.

¹² Aside from these, the then Ministry of Health and Welfare commended programs in health areas, the then Ministry of Labor commended villages that produced outstanding results in collaboration, and the New Life Association gave similar commendations to villagers who attained remarkable results in awareness transformation. Although this strategy of offering encouragement and honor to people engaged in these activities was effective, it may have been closer to a Japanese pre-war tradition than to an American practice (a system of domain lords rewarding his samurais who attained good academic results and shoguns offering [*aozashi ikkanmon*] to children who were famous for their filial piety that existed since the Edo period).

childcare centers during the busy farming seasons. Homemakers of farm households in busy farming seasons were not only required to engage in heavier labor than usual, but also had to prepare meals for the additional number of people who came to assist with the work. However, lack of time and energy to do so resulted in a simple assortment of rice, miso soup and pickles, which frequently caused weight loss and malnutrition. In addition, an increase in the number of accidents involving infants that were left in the fields due to lack of parental attention during busy farming seasons were reported to proper authorities. Asking women of non-farming household to work together and prepare meals for a large number of people made it possible for farm household women not only to concentrate on the farm work but also to enjoy nutritious well-prepared food. Similarly, they were able to concentrate on their farm work by having members of the female youth group look after their children during busy farming days. Livelihood extension workers took the initiative of carrying out these plans and conditions.

Aside from the women's association whose participation was mandatory for all households, increasing numbers of people formed home living improvement practice groups with their friends and engaged themselves in activities such as cooking classes, food processing, and work clothes making under the guidance of livelihood extension workers.

Meanwhile, as kitchen improvements required considerable expenses, people often formed groups to perform mutual loan association, raised poultry together for what they called "egg savings" and took on part-time jobs such as carrying firewood in an attempt to raise the required funds collectively. It can be interpreted as a joint surviving strategy of rural women who were short of money that they could spend at their own discretion.

From the viewpoint of livelihood extension workers, grouping the target women had a ripple effect whereby proper guidance given to the group leader would reach the other group members. Grouping was promoted because of its merit to reach out to a greater range of people with the same effort. Such systems as "conveyance guidance" and "*fukuden*" are worthy of attention in this regard. This corresponds to a rule requiring group leaders to always communicate to the group members the results of cooking classes and nutrition seminars held in other towns that they attended on behalf of the group. Visiting towns that are located some distance away require a certain amount of travel cost in addition to loss of opportunity costs from taking time off from their farm work. On the other hand, going to town is a privileged even for rural women who had little access to entertainment. In contrast to developing countries where group leaders monopolize information and knowledge and do not pass them on to ordinary members, it is interesting to note that this "*fukuden*" was part of the obligation of group leaders in rural Japan. Even if the opportunity to attend courses and study tours were concentrated upon a certain person, other members in some cases made the rational choice that such person can bring back information better than any other member in the group and, therefore, is better suited for the job. It appears that this is one of the reasons why one cannot determine whether a group is being managed democratically or not by its outward "equity".

Incidentally, livelihood extension workers promoted the formation of home living improvement practice groups but faced resistance from existing women's organizations (e.g., women's associations, women's section of agricultural cooperatives). These organizations were usually controlled by elder women and tended to resist new attempts and activities aimed at changing the village traditions. For this reason, livelihood extension workers sometimes had to pour their energy into convincing these existing female leaders. However,

after some time, there were common cases when the same female leaders/elders served as both leader of a women's association and of home living improvement practice group.

UTILIZATION OF EXTERNAL RESOURCES

Another point worthy of note in the life improvement movement in post-war rural Japan is the effective utilization of external resources such as foreign aid. The first ship carrying the Licensed Agency for Relief of Asia (LARA) consisted of 13 U.S. NGOs relief goods that were being sent in from the United States and other countries for emergency relief mainly in the turbulent period immediately after the war arrived Yokohama in November 1946. At Christmas time of the same year, this food was utilized effectively for supplying nutrition to children. It was used for the school lunch pilot program at Nagata National Elementary School in Tokyo.¹³

In addition, relief goods from UNICEF were supplied for a period of 15 years from September 1949 to 1964. In particular, the distribution of skimmed milk powder in various parts of the country as UNICEF Milk for furnishing nutrition has been recorded in many film archives. The distribution rationing was conducted through resident groups such as Mother and Child Parenting Team. Since there was not enough milk to go around, the method of distribution was entrusted to resident groups through discussions and a mechanism of distribution that gave priority to those in need appears to have been quite prevalent.

Also, the capital for purchasing "kitchen cars" that proved effective in nutritional improvement originally came from the funds that were reserved by the Japanese Government in Japanese yen in respect of surplus wheat from the United States that was offered to Japan as aid in the form of food aid (Farm Produce Trading Promotion Assistance Law of 1954). This Law is referred to as PL480 and was the prototype of the "domestic currency reserve" required of the aid-receiving country in the aid for increased food production (KR2) which Japan is currently offering to developing countries.

At the time, the then Ministry of Health and Welfare was feeling the need for nutritional improvement on a national scale and already had the ideas for the nutrition improvement vehicle needed for that purpose. However, the Ministry of Finance would not appropriate any budget for this on the grounds of fiscal difficulties. For this reason, the then Ministry of Health and Welfare accepted the offer from the wheat growers' association of Oregon, U.S.A. that made the approach in search of an outlet for their surplus wheat. It was not possible to spend the domestic currency reserve without the involvement of an American organization. In this manner, the Japanese Government did its best to utilize to the fullest extent the foreign aid that was being offered to the country. However, there was no intervention of any kind from the United States regarding the operation of the kitchen cars, and an organization consigned by the then Ministry of Health and Welfare called the Japan Nutrition Association managed the renting of 12 kitchen cars to the prefectures throughout the country.

FUTURE RESEARCH SUBJECT

Various rural life improvement movements that took place over the 20-year period from immediately after the defeat in World War II (1945) to the dawn of the rapid economic growth era (around 1965) consisted of poverty eradication, rural development and

¹³ *History of Food and Agriculture*, pp. 27-29.

participatory development. Many of these movements are aspects that are being approached in the developing countries today.

This is not the only reason we are focusing on the rural life improvement movements of this period. Japan experienced seven years of occupation from 1945 to 1952, and the target of democratization had been set by the GHQ irrespective of the will of the Japanese people. The extension system that was selected as the means for attaining this target was also transplanted nearly compulsorily by imitating the system in the United States.

In respect of this “setting of development targets by an outsider” and “a system introduced by an outsider”, the situation in Japan at the time had some factors in common with the developing countries that are receiving assistance today. Moreover, democratization is the very task that is currently being placed upon the developing countries.

What is the reason behind Japan succeeding in this task of “attaining the target that has been set by an outsider” by utilizing the “system brought in by an outsider” that present day developing countries are having difficulty in succeeding? What is the difference between the reality of the developing countries and the experience of Japan? Answering these questions is a task that has been placed upon us as follows:

First Hypothesis: Proper Use of Foreign Aid

Our hypothesis at this point in time is that Japan came out successful by “interpreting” the tasks that had been placed upon her by an outsider in a manner that was convenient for herself, thereby “adopting” the system that was brought in from outside. If these were the case, we need to reveal the process by which Japan managed to adopt the system that was brought in by an outsider. Finding an answer to this question would make a practical contribution to rural development in the future. One may be able to find a lesson that today’s developing countries could learn in adapting alien systems.

Development is a process of incorporating an alien system that does not come into existence simply through imitation of technology or a system. We believe that Japan’s success involves many hints for revealing this process, and feel the need to reconsider the current development studies in which Japan’s case has not been fully studied.

Second Hypothesis: Economic Development and Life Improvement in Post-war Japan

Another significance of redefining the rural life improvement movement in the context of social development is its relationship with economic development. The theory of social development may appear to have a tendency to undermine economic development. However, we do not think that economic development always makes an inadequate goal. Instead, we feel that the cause of economic development not contributing to the eradication of poverty lies in the fact that the fruits of economic development are distributed unequally among the people. For example, the Miracle of East Asia in the 1980s represented the success of economic development modeled after the rapid growth of Japan. But why did the gap between rich and poor expand all the while but welfare did not advance for the society as a whole? Our second hypothesis argues that Japan was able to rapidly distribute the fruits of her rapid growth to a considerable degree because the social development called “rural life improvement movement” had prepared its groundwork during the 20-year period prior to rapid growth.

Thus the life improvement program in post-war rural Japan offers a wide array of clues for solving the problems faced by the developing countries of today, including breaking out of poverty, rural development and participatory development. Our future study will be focused on extraction of universal factors in life improvement program in post-war rural

Japan conducted as part of a comprehensive rural development, analysis of factors unique to Japan, and exploration of their reproducibility in today's developing countries.

4. AN ACTOR-ORIENTED APPROACH TO DEVELOPMENT INTERVENTION

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INTRODUCTION

This paper argues the case for an actor-oriented analysis of development policy and intervention. In so doing, I aim to clarify a number of critical issues concerning how actors organizing practices, and institutional/structural constraints are conceptualized within this framework of analysis.

At the heart of an actor-oriented sociology of development is the characterization of social action as implying both social meaning and social practice. Its intellectual roots lie in theories of symbolic interaction and social exchange current in the 1960s. Later, in the late 1970s, they formed the basis for a strong critique of structural and institutional types of explanations, such as those offered by modernization, political economy and neo-Marxist analysis; in short, with grand theories and hegemonic explanations in general.

Already in 1977, in *An Introduction to the Sociology of Rural Development*, I had stressed the importance of what I called an actor-oriented analysis of development, and in the early 1980s, I set about challenging certain ‘received wisdoms’ current in development theory and research. The main task, as I saw it, was to advance a more sophisticated treatment of social change and development that emphasized the central significance of ‘human agency’ and self-organizing processes, and the mutual determination of so-called ‘internal’ and ‘external’ factors and relationships (Long, 1984). This implied a focus on the lifeworlds and interlocking ‘projects’ of actors, and the development of theoretically grounded methods of social research that allowed for the elucidation of social meanings, purposes and powers. It also required delving more deeply into the social and cultural discontinuities and ambiguities inherent in the ‘battlefields of knowledge’ that shaped the relations between local actors, development practitioners and researchers (Long, 1989; and Long and Long, 1992).

This image of the ‘battlefields of knowledge’ was chosen to convey the idea of contested arenas in which actors’ understandings, interests and values are pitched against each other. It is here – in the field of intervention primarily, though not exclusively since knowledge dilemmas and controversies also shape the writing and analysis of policy documents and reports, as well as research findings – that struggles over social meanings and practices take place. It is here too where we see most clearly the emergence of various kinds of negotiated orders, accommodations, oppositions, separations and contradictions. Such battlefields arise within and across many different institutional domains and arenas of social

action. They are not confined to the local scene or framed by specific institutional settings such as development projects or broader policy programs. Nor do they involve only interactions between so-called 'beneficiaries' and 'implementers'. Indeed they embrace a wide range of social actors committed to different livelihood strategies, cultural interests and political trajectories.

Adopting this stance not only provides a more open-ended way of looking at intervention scenarios and the interlocking of arenas pertinent to development processes, it also provides fresh insights into the so-called 'larger questions' of poverty, inequality and domination within the evolving global political economy. It does this by showing how such macro-phenomena and pressing human problems result (intentionally and unintentionally) from the complex interplay of specific actors' strategies, 'projects', resource endowments (material/technical and social/institutional), discourses and meanings. In this way, it explains how the products of social action such as policy documents, technologies, commodity markets, or socio-demographic patterns are constructed socially and culturally.

The approach implies a clear epistemological standpoint. By acknowledging the existence of 'multiple social realities' (i.e., the coexistence of different understandings and interpretations of experience), it questions the ontological realism of positivist science (i.e., of a 'real world' that is simply 'out there' to be discovered). Hence, it conceptualizes knowledge as involving ways of construing and ordering the world, and not as a simple accumulation of facts or as being unified by some underlying cultural logic, hegemonic order or system of classification. Knowledge emerges out of a complex interplay of social, cognitive, cultural, institutional and situational elements. It is, therefore, always essentially provisional, partial and contextual in nature, and people work with a multiplicity of understandings, beliefs and commitments (Long and Long, 1992: 212-213).

Methodologically this calls for a detailed ethnographic understanding of everyday life and of the processes by which images, identities and social practices are shared, contested, negotiated, and sometimes rejected by the various actors involved. As I show later, the notion of '*social interface*' provides a useful heuristic device for identifying and analyzing the critical points of *intersection* between different fields or levels of social organization, since it is at these interfaces that discrepancies and discontinuities of value, interest, knowledge and power are clearly revealed.

An actor-oriented approach to these issues requires a strong sensitivity to the processes by which the practitioner (and likewise, the researcher) enters the lifeworlds of the other social actors (and *vice versa*), and, therefore, implies a more reflexive type of understanding than is often the case in development research. In simple terms, the crux of this argument is that practitioners and researchers are both involved in activities in which their observations and interpretations are necessarily tacitly shaped by their own biographical and theoretical perspectives. Thus the trick of good development practice and ethnography alike is to learn how to turn such subjectivities to analytical advantage. The utility of an actor-oriented approach is, therefore, that it forces us to inquire into how far specific kinds of knowledge (our own included) are shaped by the power domains and social relations in which they are embedded and generated. This helps us to determine the degree to which specific actors' lifeworlds, organizing practices and cultural perceptions are relatively autonomous of or 'colonized' by wider ideological, institutional and power frames. These dimensions, of course, raise a number of complex issues which I cannot pursue any further here.

CORNERSTONES OF AN ACTOR-ORIENTED ANALYSIS

It is helpful, before moving directly to a discussion of policy intervention issues, to provide a synopsis of the conceptual foundations of an actor-oriented analysis. The following statements capture the key elements:

- C Social life is heterogeneous or polymorphic. That is, it comprises a wide diversity of social forms and cultural repertoires, even under seemingly homogeneous circumstances.
- C It is necessary to study how such differences are produced, reproduced, consolidated and transformed and to identify the social processes involved, not merely the structural outcomes.
- C Such a perspective requires a theory of agency based upon the capacity of actors to process their, and learn from others', experiences and to act upon them. Agency implies a certain knowledgeability, whereby experiences and desires are reflexively accorded meanings and purposes, and the capability to command relevant skills, access resources of various kinds, and engage in particular organizing practices.
- C Social action is never an individual ego-centered pursuit. It takes place within networks of relations (involving human and non-human components), is shaped by both routine and explorative organizing practices, and is bounded by certain social conventions, values and power relations.
- C But it would be misleading to assume that such social and institutional constraints can be reduced to general sociological categories and hierarchies based on class, gender, status, ethnicity etc. Social action and interpretation is context-specific and contextually generated. Boundary markers are specific to particular domains, arenas and fields of social action and should not be prejudged analytically.
- C Meanings, values and interpretations are culturally constructed but they are differentially applied and reinterpreted in accordance with existing behavioral possibilities or changed circumstances, thereby generating 'new' cultural 'standards'.
- C Related to these processes is the question of scale, by which I mean the ways in which 'micro-scale' interactional settings and localized arenas are connected to wider 'macro-scale' phenomena. Rather than seeing the 'local' as shaped by the 'global' or the 'global' as an aggregation of the 'local', an actor perspective aims to elucidate the precise sets of interlocking relationships, actor 'projects' and social practices that interpenetrate various social, symbolic and geographical spaces.
- C In order to examine these interrelations it is useful to work with the concept of 'social interface' which explores how discrepancies of social interest, cultural interpretation, knowledge and power are mediated and perpetuated or transformed at critical points of linkage or confrontation. These interfaces need to be identified ethnographically, not presumed on the basis of predetermined categories.
- C Thus the major challenge is to delineate the contours and contents of diverse social forms, explain their genesis and trace out their implications for strategic action and modes of consciousness. That is, we need to understand how these forms take shape under specific conditions and in relation to past configurations, and with a view to examining their viability, self-generating capacities and wider ramifications.
- C It is not the aim of actor-oriented analysis to formulate a generic theory of society or social change based on universal principles that govern how social orders are

constituted and transformed. Instead it seeks to provide a conceptual and methodological framework for understanding the processes by which particular social forms or arrangements emerge and are consolidated or reworked in the everyday lives of people.

DECONSTRUCTING PLANNED INTERVENTION

An actor-oriented perspective has a number of implications for the study (and the design?) of processes of intervention, whether in the fields of development or organizational change.

In the first place, we need to get behind the myths, models and pretensions of development policy and institutions to uncover ‘the particulars of people’s “lived-in worlds”’ and their strategies for steering themselves through difficult scenarios and turning ‘bad’ into ‘less bad’ circumstances. Despite the many critical analyses now available, development intervention is still often visualized as a discrete set of activities that takes place within a defined time-space setting involving the interaction between so-called ‘intervening’ parties and ‘target’ or ‘recipient’ groups. Such an image isolates intervention from the continuous flow of social life and ongoing relations that evolve between the various social actors, including, of course, though not exclusively, the manifold ways in which local actors (both on- and off-stage) interact with implementing officials and organizations. Development interventions are always part of a chain or flow of events located within the broader framework of the activities of the state, international bodies and the actions of the different interest groups operative in civil society. They are also linked to previous interventions, have consequences for future ones, and more often than not are a focus for intra- and inter-institutional struggles over perceived goals, administrative competencies, resource allocation, and institutional boundaries.

Consequently, intervention processes cannot be confined to the specific ‘spaces’ and functions delimited by official policies and plans. Nor should we assume that so-called beneficiaries reduce or limit their perceptions of reality and its problems simply to those defined for them by the intervening agency as constituting the ‘project’ or ‘program’. People process their own experiences of ‘projects’ and ‘interventions’, alongside their many other experiences and livelihood concerns. They construct their own memory of these experiences, as well as take into account the experiences of other groups within their socio-spatial networks. That is, they may learn from the differential responses, strategies and experiences of others outside the target population or specific action program. And the same holds true for those who work as implementers or facilitators. Hence, for many of the social actors involved, interventions have no clear beginning marked by the formal definition of goals and means, nor any final cut-off point or ‘end-date’ as identified by the writing of final reports or evaluations.

This boxing in of space and time (and, therefore, also of strategies and options) characteristic of development practice is underpinned by various kinds of interventionist discourse which are essentially ‘diagnostic and prescriptive’ (Apthorpe, 1984: 128), and which promote the idea that problems are best solved by dividing up empirical complexity into ‘a series of independently given realities’ based mostly on ‘sectoral’ criteria (such as agriculture, health, housing, and poverty alleviation) and designing appropriate policy solutions. According to Schaffer (1984: 143), such policy discourse encourages the misconception that policy comprises verbal and voluntaristic decisions and authoritative documents, after which something else quite different, called ‘implementation’, takes place.

This image of the administrative discreteness of policy and intervention processes is reinforced by the notion of the 'project cycle' that frames sequentially the various activities that take place (such as setting the policy agenda, defining the problem, formulating alternatives, designing the policy, implementing it and evaluating the results) in a linear and logical order (see Clay and Schaffer, 1984: 3-5; and Palumbo, 1987: 38-41). This encourages the view that project preparation and implementation takes the form of a 'rational' problem-solving process which involves experts (either alone or in consultation with their clients) 'in becoming aware of symptoms, in formulating the problem, in identifying the causes (diagnosis), in generating alternative solutions and in choosing and implementing an appropriate one ... [and] finally, help[ing] evaluate the results' (Röling, 1988: 57). But, as any experienced practitioner will readily acknowledge, these processes are a lot more messy and often overlap. Each and every one of them is entangled in complex sets of evolving social practices, negotiations, and political and epistemological struggles that involve a multiplicity of actors with divergent and sometimes contradictory agendas.

Thus, in order to stand back from ideal-typical conceptions of planned intervention, we must concentrate upon understanding planned intervention as a complex set of historically unfolding social encounters and battles over meanings and resources, in which certain spatial and temporal dimensions play a role as elements linked to particular historical events and processes. There is, as I suggested earlier, on the side of the 'intervened', the accumulated knowledge of previous experiences of interventions of various sorts, and not only those organized by the state. These experiences constitute a kind of historical imprint and template which is both 'collective', in the sense that it shared as a legacy by a particular group of people, and 'individual', in that the biographies of particular persons contain within them a kind of memory bank of various 'intervention' experiences. And the same holds for those groups and institutions depicted as the 'intervening' parties, such as government development agencies or individual bureaucrats. Intervention processes are thus shaped by both collective and personal memories of state-civic society relations, local initiatives and inter-institutional struggles.

Intervention, then, implies the confrontation or inter-penetration of different lifeworlds and socio-political experiences. Looked at from this point of view, the 'unreal' time-space and policy-cycle conceptions contained within orthodox intervention models may become strategic weapons in the hands of intervening agencies who, wittingly or otherwise, make superfluous the significance of memory and learning from the past.¹ This attitude is reinforced by the assumption that, whatever the difficulties of the past and however entrenched the patterns of underdevelopment, a well-designed and well-targeted program of intervention can make the break with the dead-weight of 'traditional' modes of existence, thus stimulating or inaugurating 'development', whatever its specific features.

¹ I do not, of course, exclude the possibility that intervention practices may significantly affect the social organization of time and space of those involved. This is illustrated by irrigation projects in the Andes which, in order to cope with their own goals, introduce wage labor for the construction of canals and other infrastructure, when such work is normally organized by communities through the mobilization of *faenas* (cooperative labor groups). Since the latter mode of organization often entails longer time spans than the typical project cycle of five years, the organization of time, space, labor and material resources are forced into a new and much shorter time frame, with major social implications. For a general discussion of this problem, see van der Ploeg, 1987: 155-8.

These considerations lead to the conclusion that we need to deconstruct the concept of intervention so that it is recognized for what it fundamentally is, namely; an ongoing, socially-constructed and negotiated process, not simply the execution of an already-specified plan or framework for action with expected outcomes. For example, it is usually assumed 'that decision-makers, before they act, identify goals, specify alternative ways of getting there, assess the alternatives against a standard such as costs and benefits, and then select the best alternative'. However, as Palumbo and Nachmias, 1983: 9-11) go on to point out, policy-makers often 'are not looking for the best way or most efficient alternative for solving a problem. They are instead searching for support for action already taken, and for support that serves the interests of various components of the policy shaping community'. It is not enough then to modify or seek refinements of orthodox views on planned intervention. Instead, one must break with conventional models, images and reasoning, and open up the issues to interface analysis.

THE INTERFACE PROBLEMATIC FOR DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH AND POLICY ISSUES²

The notion of *social interface* offers a way of exploring and understanding the issues of diversity and conflict inherent in processes of external intervention. Interfaces typically occur at points where different, and often conflicting, lifeworlds or social fields intersect; or more concretely, in social situations or arenas in which interactions become oriented around problems of bridging, accommodating, segregating or contesting social, evaluative and cognitive standpoints. Social interface analysis aims to elucidate the types and sources of social discontinuity and linkage present in such situations and to identify the organizational and cultural means of reproducing or transforming them. In doing so, we can develop a more adequate analysis of policy transformation processes, since it enables us to understand more fully the differential responses of local groups (including both 'target' and 'non-target' populations) to planned interventions. It forges a theoretical middle ground between so-called micro- and macro-theories of change by showing how interactions between 'intervening' parties and 'local' actors shape the outcomes of particular intervention policies, often with significant repercussions on patterns of change at regional, national and even international levels.

Although the word 'interface' tends to convey the image of some kind of two-sided articulation or face-to-face confrontation, social interface situations are more complex and multiple in nature, containing within them many different interests, relationships and modes of rationality and power. While analysis focuses on points of confrontation and social difference, these must be situated in broader institutional and knowledge/power domains. In addition, it requires a methodology that counterpoises the voices, experiences and practices of all the relevant social actors involved, including the experiential 'learning curves' of policy practitioners and researchers.

² For an account of the precursors of interface analysis and a fuller explication of it in relation to actor-oriented/social constructionist theoretical perspectives, see N. Long, 1989 and 2001; and N. Long and Ann Long, 1992.

KEY ELEMENTS OF AN INTERFACE PERSPECTIVE

Interface as an Organized Entity of Interlocking Relationships and Intentionalities

Interface analysis focuses on the linkages and networks that develop between individuals or parties rather than on individual or group strategies. Continued interaction encourages the development of boundaries and shared expectations that shape the interaction of the participants so that over time the interface itself becomes an organized entity of interlocking relationships and intentionalities.

Interface as a Site for Conflict, Incompatibility and Negotiation

Although interface interactions presuppose some degree of common interest, they also have a propensity to generate conflict due to contradictory interests and objectives or to unequal power relations. Negotiations at the interface are sometimes carried out by individuals who represent particular constituencies, groups or organizations. Their position is inevitably ambivalent since they must respond to the demands of their own groups as well as to the expectations of those with whom they must negotiate.

In analyzing the sources and dynamics of contradiction and ambivalence in interface situations, it is important not to prejudge the case by assuming that certain divisions or loyalties (such as those based on class, ethnicity or gender) are more fundamental than others. One should also not assume that because a particular person 'represents' a specific group or institution, that he or she necessarily acts in the interests or on behalf of his/her fellows. The link between representatives and constituencies (with their differentiated memberships) must be empirically established, not taken for granted.

Interface and the Clash of Cultural Paradigms

The concept of interface helps us to focus on the production and transformation of differences in world views or cultural paradigms. Interface situations often provide the means by which individuals or groups come to define their own cultural or ideological positions vis-à-vis those espousing or typifying opposing views. For example, opinions on agricultural development expressed by technical experts, extension workers and farmers seldom completely coincide; and the same is true for those working for a single government department with a defined policy mandate. Hence agronomists, community development workers, credit officers, irrigation engineers, and the like, often disagree on the problems and priorities of agricultural development. These differences cannot be reduced to personal idiosyncrasies but reflect differences laid down by differential patterns of socialization and professionalization, which often lead to miscommunication or a clash of rationalities. The process is further compounded by the coexistence of several different cultural models or organizing principles within a single population or administrative organization which creates room for maneuver in the interpretation and utilization of these cultural values or standpoints.

It becomes necessary, therefore, to identify the conditions under which particular definitions of reality and visions of the future are upheld, to analyze the interplay of cultural and ideological oppositions, and to map out the ways in which bridging or distancing actions and ideologies make it possible for certain types of interface to reproduce or transform themselves.

The Centrality of Knowledge Processes

Linked to the last point is the importance of knowledge processes. Knowledge is a cognitive and social construction that results from and is constantly shaped by the

experiences, encounters and discontinuities that emerge at the points of intersection between different actors' lifeworlds. Various types of knowledge, including ideas about oneself, other people, and the context and social institutions, are important in understanding social interfaces. Knowledge is present in all social situations and is often entangled with power relations and the distribution of resources. But in intervention situations it assumes special significance since it entails the interplay or confrontation of 'expert' versus 'lay' forms of knowledge, belief and value, and struggles over their legitimization, segregation and communication.

An interface approach then depicts knowledge as arising from 'an encounter of horizons'. The incorporation of new information and new discursive or cultural frames can only take place on the basis of already existing knowledge frames and evaluative modes, which are themselves reshaped through the communicative process. Hence knowledge emerges as a product of interaction, dialogue, reflexivity, and contests of meaning, and involves aspects of control, authority and power.

Power as the Outcome of Struggles over Meanings and Strategic Relationships

Like knowledge, power is not simply possessed, accumulated and unproblematically exercised. Power implies much more than how hierarchies and hegemonic control demarcate social positions and opportunities, and restrict access to resources. It is the outcome of complex struggles and negotiations over authority, status, reputation and resources, and necessitates the enrolment of networks of actors and constituencies. Such struggles are founded upon the extent to which specific actors perceive themselves capable of maneuvering within particular situations and developing effective strategies for doing so. Creating room for maneuver implies a degree of consent, a degree of negotiation and thus a degree of power, as manifested in the possibility of exerting some control, prerogative, authority and capacity for action, be it front- or backstage, for brief moments or for more sustained periods. Thus power inevitably generates resistance, accommodation and strategic compliance as regular components of the politics of everyday life.

Interface as Composed of Multiple Discourses

Interface analysis enables us to comprehend how 'dominant' discourses are endorsed, transformed or challenged. Dominant discourses are characteristically replete with reifications (often of a 'naturalistic' kind) that assume the existence and significance of certain social traits and groupings, pertaining, for example, to 'communities', hierarchical or egalitarian structures, and cultural constructions of ethnicity, gender, and class. Such discourses serve to promote particular political, cultural or moral standpoints, and they are often mobilized in struggles over social meanings and strategic resources. Yet, while some actors 'vernacularize' dominant discourses in order to legitimate their claims upon the state and other authoritative bodies, others choose to reject them by deploying and defending countervailing or 'demotic' (literally 'of the people') discourses that offer alternative, more locally-rooted points of view.³

A major task of interface analysis is to spell out the knowledge and power implication of this interplay and the blending or segregation of opposing discourses. Discursive practices

³ See Baumann, 1996, for further insight into these processes in a multi-ethnic area of London, also Arce and Long, 2000.

and competencies develop primarily within the circumstances of everyday social life and become especially salient at critical points of discontinuity between actors' lifeworlds. It is through the lens of interface that these processes can best be captured conceptually.

THE PARADOX OF 'PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT'

Intervention processes are embedded in, and generate, social processes that imply aspects of power, authority and legitimation; and they are more likely to reflect and exacerbate cultural differences and conflict between social groups than they are to lead to the establishment of common perceptions and shared values. And, if this is the normal state of affairs, then it becomes unreal and foolhardy to imagine that facilitators can gently nudge or induce people and organizations towards more 'participatory' and equitable modes of integration and coordination. This is the paradox of neo-populist discourses and participatory methods aimed at empowering local people.

Although such neo-populist measures emphasize 'listening to the people', understanding the 'reasoning behind local knowledge', strengthening 'local organizational capacity' and promoting 'alternative development strategies', they nevertheless carry with them the connotation of power being injected from outside in order to shift the balance of forces towards forms of local self-determination. In other words, they imply the idea of empowering people through strategic intervention by 'enlightened experts' who make use of 'people's science' and 'local intermediate organizations' to promote development 'from below'. While acknowledging the need to take serious account of local people's solutions to the problems they face, the issues are often presented as involving the substitution of 'blueprint' by 'learning' approaches to the planning and management of projects or in terms of 'new' for 'old' style professionalism geared to promoting participatory management and participatory research and evaluation methods.

Such formulations, however, do not escape the managerialist and interventionist undertones inherent in the idea of 'development'. That is, they tend to evoke the image of more knowledgeable and powerful outsiders helping the powerless and less discerning local folk. Of course, many field practitioners facing the everyday problems of project implementation show an acute awareness of this paradox of participatory strategies. But, no matter how firm the commitment to good intentions, the notion of 'powerful outsiders' assisting 'powerless insiders' is constantly smuggled in. This is the central dilemma of planning and designing the means for engineering change in the first place. It is not removed by stressing the goals of participation and empowerment.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF AN INTERFACE APPROACH

The struggle for space or room for maneuver – at once a battle over images, relationships and resources – and the social transformations and ramifications it entails, can, I believe, be captured best through an interface perspective. Such an approach provides a heuristic device for identifying the sites of social discontinuity, ambiguity and cultural difference, and sensitizes the researcher and practitioner to the importance of exploring how discrepancies of social interest, cultural interpretation, knowledge and power are mediated and perpetuated or transformed at critical points of confrontation and linkage.

In order to get to grips with these contradictory and discontinuous processes, the researcher and practitioner needs to access and learn lessons from the 'autonomous' settings

in which people cope with their own problems, irrespective of whether or not the foci of concern or parameters of action can be linked with outside intervention. This requires the adoption of a rigorous ethnographic stance. One must go to where people are already engaged in interactions, problem-solving activities or routine social practice and negotiate a role or combination of roles for oneself, as participant, observer, active collaborator, adviser. A fundamental principle of actor-oriented research is that it must be based on actor-defined issues or problematic situations, whether defined by policy-makers, researchers, intervening private or public agents or local actors, and whatever the spatial, cultural, institutional and power arenas involved. Such issues or situations are often, of course, perceived, and their implications interpreted, very differently by the various parties or actors involved. Hence, from the outset one faces the dilemma of how to represent problematic situations when confronted with multiple voices and contested 'realities'. Specific social arenas are, of course, discursively constructed and delimited practically by the language use and strategic actions of the actors involved. How far consensus is achieved over the definition of any one situation requires empirical evidence. One should not assume a shared vision or common negotiating platform. Actors must work towards such joint commitments and there are always possibilities for opting out or 'free riding'.

All actors operate – mostly implicitly rather than explicitly – with beliefs about agency, that is, they articulate notions about relevant acting units and the kinds of knowledgeability and capability they have vis-à-vis other social entities. This raises the question of how people's perceptions of the actions and agency of others shape their own behavior. For example, local farmers may have reified views about 'the state' or 'the market' as actors, which, irrespective of their dealings with individual government officials or market traders, can influence their expectations of the outcomes of particular interventions. The same applies to the attribution of motives to authoritative local actors, such as political bosses and village leaders. The central issue here is how actors struggle to give meaning to their experiences through an array of representations, images, cognitive understandings, and emotional responses. Though the repertoire of 'sense-making' filters and antennae will vary considerably, such processes are to a degree framed by 'shared' cultural perceptions, which are subject to reconstitution or transformation. Local cultures are always, as it were, 'put to the test' as they encounter the less familiar or the strange. Analysis must, therefore, address itself to the intricacies and dynamics of relations between differing lifeworlds, and to processes of cultural construction. In this way, one aims, as it were, to map out what we might describe as a cartography of cultural difference, power and authority.

Such interface analysis has a direct bearing on how one looks at policy processes. Policy debates, including policy formulation, implementation and evaluation, are permeated by interface discontinuities and struggles. Indeed the whole process consists of an intricate series of socially-constructed and negotiated transformations relating to different institutional domains and differentially affecting a variety of actors. Hence an awareness of the dynamics of interface encounters and how they shape events and actor interests and identities is critical.

Whatever the precise policy issues and implementing structures, it is essential to avoid framing problems and looking for solutions from within a framework of formal-logical models and rationalistic procedures. Such approaches accord far too much weight to external expert systems and undervalue the practical knowledge and organizing capacities that develop among field level practitioners and local actors. After all it is the day-to-day decisions, routines, and strategies devised for coping with uncertainties, conflicts of interest and cultural difference that make or break policy. Indeed it has been persuasively argued that it is precisely at such implementation interfaces that *de facto* policy is created.

In order to understand these ‘autonomous’ fields of action and the pressures impinging on them, researchers must devise ways of entering the everyday lifeworlds of the variety of actors represented in order to learn how each attempts to deal with the complexities of implementer/client relationships. This requires field strategies based not only on observing and teasing out the meanings of other people’s lifeworlds but also on the willingness of field practitioners and policy-makers to share their experiences and to put them to the test. Hence we must develop types of reflexive ethnography that explore the relationship between actors’ practical-everyday and researchers’ theoretical understandings of problematic situations. The added value of this approach is that it enables us to consider the practitioner (both researcher and field officer) as part of the web of powers, constraints, opportunities and potentialities of specific intervention situations. Interface analysis offers a useful conceptual framework for achieving this.

A WORD OF WARNING

In building a picture of everyday encounters and modes of organization and knowledge, we must be careful not to reify cultural phenomena, even if local people and policy-makers do so themselves by using labeling or classificatory devices. The latter create simplifications or black boxes, like the idea of society being neatly divided into ‘ethnic communities’ or ‘class categories’, or planners’ visions of needy ‘target groups’ or ‘stakeholder categories’, that obscure rather than throw light on the diversity and complexity of social and cultural arrangements. Moreover, such reifications enter into the very process of defining problems for solution, and in this way they may perpetuate existing ideal-typical models of what are ‘normal’ and ‘pathological’ conditions. Instead we must give close attention to the heterogeneity of social practice by focusing on the differential social responses to apparently similar structural conditions: for only in this way can we explain the significance of certain types of strategic agency and knowledge/power constructions. Examples of interface encounters should not then be cited merely to illustrate general principles of cultural polarity, organizational dualism or hierarchy. Rather, they should be visualized as providing a methodological entry point for examining the dynamics and transformation of inter-cultural and inter-institutional relationships and values.

The multiplicity of interfaces associated with development intervention provide a rich field for exploring these issues, since they throw into sharp relief all the ambivalences and complexities of cultural diversity and conflict. They also reveal the paradoxical nature of planned intervention of all kinds – even those promoting ‘participatory’ programs – which simultaneously opens up space for negotiation and initiative for some groups, while blocking the interests, ambitions and political agency of others. What we now urgently need is to convince policy-makers and development practitioners, in search of better project designs and management techniques, to reflect upon and share with us their firsthand experiences of ‘struggling at the interface’. In this way the actor-oriented framework could be further developed in relation to specific policy practices.

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A. KEY PROPOSITIONS OF AN ACTOR-ORIENTED APPROACH

- C Social life is *heterogeneous* or *polymorphic*.
- C We need to know how *social differences* are produced, reproduced and transformed.
- C This requires a *theory of agency* based upon the capacity of actors to process and act upon their experiences and to learn from the experience of others.
- C *Social action* is never an individual ego-centered activity but is *co-produced* and *co-transformed*.
- C Social and institutional *constraints* cannot be reduced to general sociological categories and hierarchies of class, status, gender, ethnicity etc.
- C *Social action* and *interpretation* is *context-specific* and contextually generated.
- C *Boundary markers* are specific to particular domains, arenas and fields of action and *should not be predetermined analytically*.
- C *Meanings*, values and understandings *are culturally constructed* but differentially applied and interpreted.
- C The ‘local’ should not be seen as simply responding to the ‘global’ or the ‘global’ as an aggregation of the ‘local’. Instead we must analyze the interlocking relationships, actor ‘projects’ and social practices that interpenetrate various social, symbolic and geographical spaces.
- C The notion of *social interface* is useful for exploring how discrepancies of social interest, cultural-interpretation, knowledge and power are mediated and perpetuated or transformed.
- C The approach offers a *conceptual and methodological framework* for understanding how particular social forms emerge and are reworked in the everyday lives and lifeworlds of people. It does **not** offer a generic or universal theory of society or social change.

B. CONCEPTS FOR AN ACTOR-ORIENTED ANALYSIS

Agency: the knowledgeability, capability and social embeddedness associated with acts of doing that impact upon or shape others’ actions and interpretations.

Social Actors: appear in a variety of forms: individual persons, informal groups or interpersonal networks, organizations, collective groupings and so-called ‘macro-actors’ such as national governments, churches or international bodies.

Domains: represent the loci of rules, norms and values central to social ordering and creation and defense of social and symbolic boundaries.

Arenas: spaces in which contests over issues, claims, resources, values, meanings and representations take place. That is, they are sites of struggle within and across domains.

Resource Fields: areas of social life in which various resources (material, social and technical etc.) are distributed.

⁴ From: N. Long, 2001.

Networks: sets of direct and indirect relationships and exchanges (characterized by their content, span, density and multiplicity).

Discourses: sets of meanings, metaphors, representations, images, narratives and statements that advance a particular version of ‘the truth’, about specific objected persons and events. Discourses produce ‘texts’ – written and spoken, or even non-verbal such as the meanings embodied in architectural styles or dress styles associated with certain types of status and cultural identity. Policies or arguments about development are framed in different kinds of discourse.

Cultural Repertoires: the differentiated stock of cultural components that relate to differences in lifestyles social values and rationales for living.

Identification: processes by which people identify themselves and others, often contextually defined rather than a fixed identity, for example, being ‘Christian’, or a farmer etc. People have multiple identities.

Knowledge Processes: ways in which actors come to grips with the world around them, cognitively, emotionally and organizationally. They do this on the basis of their own and other people’s experiences and understandings. This we describe as knowledge production or transformation.

Power Configurations: sets of interlocking actor projects where notions of authority and control, domination and subordination come into play. These are sustained by specific patterns of resource distribution and competition. Power cannot simply be possessed or accumulated. It emerges out of social processes.

Interfaces: critical points of intersection among different social systems, fields or levels of social organization which are characterized by social discontinuities based upon differences of values, interests and power.

C. DECONSTRUCTING PLANNED INTERVENTION

- C Intervention processes cannot be confined to the specific spaces and functions delimited by official policies and plans.
- C Beneficiaries do not limit their perceptions of reality and its problems simply to those defined for them as constituting the ‘project’ or ‘program’ by the intervening agency or agencies.
- C People process their own experiences and acquire their own memories of ‘projects’ and ‘interventions’.
- C People also learn from the differential responses, strategies and experiences of others.
- C Interventions have no clear beginning marked by the formal definition of goals and means, nor any final cut-off point or end-date.
- C This boxing in of space and time (and, therefore, also of strategies and options) is underpinned by interventionist discourse that is ‘diagnostic and prescriptive’.
- C Interventionist discourse also segments reality into specialized domains of expertise (like agriculture, health, poverty alleviation, technology etc.)
- C We must stand back from ideal-typical conceptions of planned intervention and concentrate on understanding planned intervention as a complex set of historically unfolding social encounters and battles over meanings and resources.
- C Intervention must be recognized for what it fundamentally is: an ongoing, socially-constructed and negotiated process, not simply the execution of an already-specified plan or framework for action with expected outcomes.

D. THE NOTION OF SOCIAL INTERFACE

Definition

A social interface is a critical point of intersection between different social systems, fields, domains or levels of social order where *social discontinuities*, based upon discrepancies in values, interests, knowledge and power, are most likely to be located.

Implications

Such discontinuities characterize social situations wherein the interactions between actors become oriented around the problem of devising ways of *bridging, accommodating to, or struggling against* each other's different social and cognitive worlds.

Interface analysis aims to elucidate on the types of social discontinuities present in such situations, and to characterize the different kinds of organizational and cultural forms that reproduce or transform them.

Although the word 'interface' tends to convey the image of some kind of two-sided articulation or confrontation, interface situations are complex and multiple in nature.

Interfaces must be analyzed as part of ongoing processes of negotiation, *adaptation and transfer of meaning*.

Knowledge Interface

This involves *discontinuity* rather than *linkage*. It also involves *transformation* rather than *transfer* of meaning. Knowledge emerges as *product* of experience, dialogue and negotiation. It is *multi-layered* and often *fragmented, partial* and *diffuse*. It is *not* unitary and systematized.

Epistemic Communities

- C Composed of those sharing roughly the same sources and modes of knowledge.
- C Differentiated internally in terms of knowledge repertoires and application.
- C Engineering the creation of *single* knowledge system is unattainable.
- C Innovativeness and adaptability to change depends upon the *diversity* and *fluidity* of knowledge rather than on *integration* and *systematization*.

1. FIJI

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INTRODUCTION

Fiji's rural area is important for the economy as it represents over 50 percent of the population which was 775,655 in 1996. Some 359,495 persons live in urban areas and 415,582 in the rural areas. The issue of addressing the needs of the rural dwellers is critical and very important in the country. This paper will attempt to examine and identify the problems faced by the rural dwellers and critically analyze the various policies and programs designed by the central government and NGOs.

Such demographic movement places increasing demand on the equitable creation of wealth and distribution of the same to sustain the rural life economy. The challenge is enormous in a rural set-up given Fiji's inherent geographical fragmentation, remoteness from available markets, vulnerability to natural disasters, high cost of transportation and communication between the different sectors of the urban and rural community. Compelling the above is the traditional mind-set of the rural dwellers and the resistance to adapt to the ever-changing needs of the society. The current system in place to handle the grassroots development has not been readjusted to align itself with the new technology and demands of this age where time, money and talents need further exposure to address the issue on hand. Fiji's rural life development policy needs a focus on structural dimension to arrest the imbalance in the two economy stated, i.e., rural vs. urban economy syndrome. At the outset Fiji's economy was very much focused to the urban life where communication and accessibility to these resources are at the whims of the policy-makers. However, the facts of the day seems to prove to us that the policy which governs rural life development has to be diverted and refocused towards this direction.

Rural development encompasses efforts from a large number of government-supported agencies, as well as those from NGOs. It involves the provision of basic infrastructure, education, health, social welfare, agricultural development, and business enterprise and land reform services. These programs, which require a multidimensional set of skills and serve such a diverse population, cannot be easily implemented by a single administrative entity even for coordinating purposes. Rural development is, therefore, a multi-sectoral concept, which presents very complex challenges of administrative management, including the integration of numerous public and non-public activities. The common goal of government has been to develop and improve the institutional arrangements and processes for effective delivery of public services and to stimulate more active 'people participation' in the development of the rural sector.

In the local administration system, the coordination of rural development services and infrastructure is carried out through the District Administration to provide efficient

administrative and statutory services to the rural people. There are specific duties in this particular area, including the following:

- C Registration of births, deaths and marriages and solemnization of marriage;
- C Issues of business and other licences and collection of revenue from such licences;
- C Administration of government stations and offices throughout the country and on behalf of the Public Service Commission;
- C Advisory services – District Administration being the focal point of government;
- C Provision of protocol service, especially to the President, the Prime Minister and other important dignitaries;
- C Issues of various types of permits under the Gaming Act, Public Order Act and Fisheries Act;
- C Ancillary services like the general elections, Sugarcane Growers Council elections etc.; and
- C Other tasks that are required by government from time to time.

The District Administration is also responsible for coordinating rural development services such as National Disaster Management and Rural Housing Programs and Infrastructure in line with existing policies using the rural development machinery and institutional framework.

The main objective of these policies is to help create necessary economic and social environment, which stimulates and strengthens rural community development efforts. The machinery and its framework are comprised of various councils/committees such as the village, *tikina*, provincial and advisory councils at different levels of the administration.

These have been established to encourage people's participation in decision-making and implementation of these decisions, especially in the types of service and development work that affect them; provides a consultative and coordination machinery framework through the coordination consultative machinery, to ensure the flow of information from the top-down and bottom-up and to monitor delivery of services and infrastructure in respective areas (Figure 1).

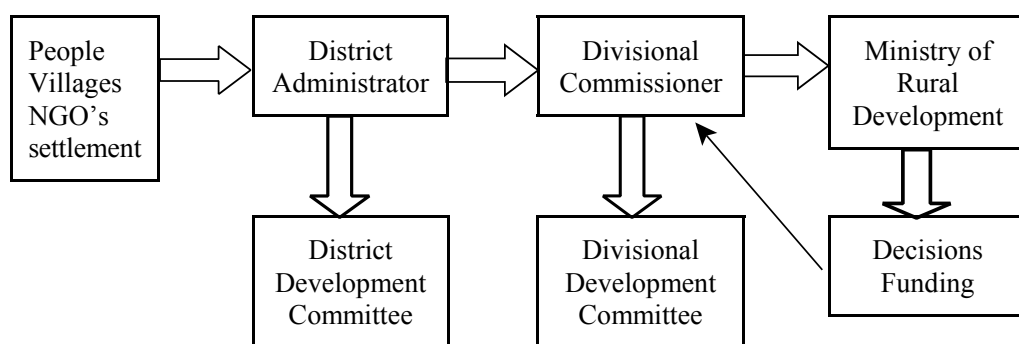


Figure 1. Local Administrative System in Fiji

MAJOR GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

It is recognized that the benefits of development must be shared by all sections of the community. It is vital, therefore, that half of the people who live in the rural areas enjoy these benefits. In the past, significant effort was devoted to improving the level and the delivery of services in areas most likely to contribute to enhancing incomes and living standards in the rural areas. The government plays a very central role in the provision of social services such as health, education and infrastructure. Continued efforts will be made to strengthen the delivery machineries for these services.

Development has been greatly enhanced through joint efforts of the rural population, government and NGOs. This participation assists to reduce the cost of projects to government and also provides the assurance of commitment through greater ownership of projects by the local community. More consultation will be undertaken with the non-governmental sector to ensure increased involvement in the formulation and decision-making process. The 'self-help' and 'small grant' schemes provided through the central government would continue to facilitate the implementation of a wide range of projects which enhance growth in the rural area.

Self-help Scheme

The self-help scheme is a program of assistance funded by the annual appropriation and is utilized at the discretion of the District Administrators and Divisional Commissioners. It is a direct form of assistance to the community and operates on a one-third people's contribution and two-thirds government contribution.

On receipt of any application, the District Administrator will carry out the ground assessment with the community. If it is found that the proposal merits assistance, and fulfils a genuine community need, funds will be provided from the self-help fund source. The District Administrator will be held responsible throughout for funding and purchases. Implementations should take place with the corporation of the community or other technical agencies as soon as funding is available.

Quarterly reports are prepared with specific allocations and headings, i.e., the project title, the amount of fund provided, the balance available and the project status.

Small Grants Schemes

This is a donor-funded form of assistance. The policy states that the project must be rural-based and operative outside the municipal boundaries, generally from areas that have little or no source of income. The concept of community ownership is vital. Community, in this instance, means settlements, village, *Yavuso*, *Mataqali* and other organizations within these communities such as registered youth and women's organizations, registered cooperative societies. Immediate community benefits must result in terms of improvement in income-generating or employment creation or improvement in the quality of rural life (Figure 2).

Projects should have a local input of at least one-third of the total project cost in cash or in kind. Maximum community involvement, self-help contribution and local resources utilization should also be prerequisites for funding consideration. Applications from proven depressed areas with little or no source of cash income may be given special consideration. Projects should fall into the government's overall development plans and should utilize the supervisory services of existing government agencies. Projects must be within the prescribed

ceiling of aid stipulated by the donors for each projects, for example; Japan, US\$100,000 and Australia, US\$40,000.

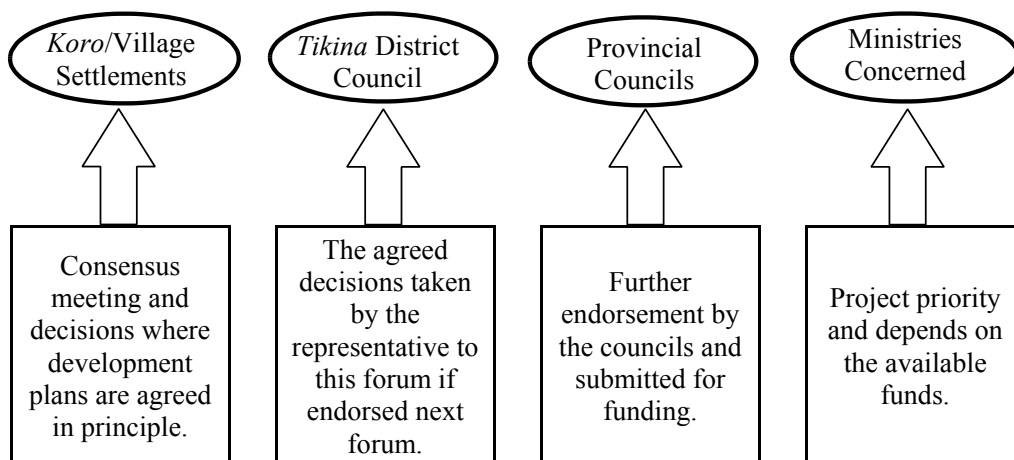


Figure 2. Communal Rural Development and Flow

To simplify the process, the Japanese small-scale grant assistance guidelines follow:

- C Projects may be qualified in so far as such they are considered able to contribute significantly to economic and social development, improvement of public welfare or other like objectives;
- C All applications will be reviewed by their own technical expertise before they are submitted for official recognition. The project background report must contain the technical performance if it has been in operation. Special attention should be given to past management and financial aspects.
- C The application will need to describe the target community and their environment, the market structures, transportation, employment and income-generating opportunities. These comments should be linked to the people's ability to provide funds and assistance for themselves and the reasons why they cannot fund the projects themselves.
- C A certified feasibility study report by the relevant technical authority must be attached which include a cost benefit/cost effective analysis and a future projection analysis. It should be a one of a kind projects which can be implemented within a specified time period (one year project).
- C The District Administrator plays a vital role in the preparation, implementation, monitoring and appraisal of the project.

EXTERNAL AID: THE SYSTEM FOR COORDINATION

The foreign assistance extended to rural development has now become an established practice in the central government for the aid to become an integral part of the budget. This results in the establishment of an Aid Coordinating Committee.

The Committee, within the framework of the National Indicative Plan and the annual budget, sets broad guidelines on the distribution of aid resources before submission to the Cabinet. The Aid Unit, based in the Ministry of Finance, is the secretariat responsible for coordinating the requests for external aid. The functions of the Foreign Affairs and Finance in relation to aid matters and those of the Aid Coordinating Committee are outlined below:

Aid Unit

The current practice is to have all aid-funded projects incorporated in the annual budget. Wherever possible, aid resources are used to fund activities contained in the Budget Division. Other functions of the Aid Unit are to: a) consult representatives of aid donors and to coordinate aid program planning; b) liaise with Ministries, Departments and the Central Planning Office (CPO) for project identification, appraisal and documentation; and c) monitor the progress of aid-funded projects and coordinate activities among the donors and the executing Ministries and Departments.

Public Service Commission

The Public Service Commission is responsible, under the relevant legislation, for approving and reviewing staffing establishments and for acting as the central personnel authority for public service.

Aid personnel may be either fully or partly funded. The appointment of aid personnel has implications for the Fiji Public Service establishment (e.g., the appointment of support staff and counterparts) and often gives rise to problems of personnel administration (e.g., in relation to housing and other provisions).

The Public Service Commission, therefore, has to include all such staff in its general review. All proposals for the appointment of aid personnel should be fully explored before any approach is made to the donor.

CENTRAL PLANNING OFFICE

The role of the CPO with regard to aid documentation is project identification, formulation, evaluation and analysis, documentation and presentation and monitoring and performance analysis. To do this requires a joint effort and consultation with the respective Ministries/Departments requesting aid financing.

The CPO is required to ensure that aid requests are in line with the national development objective and ability of the national budget to carry the recurrent costs of the projects. Moreover, aid must be looked at as supplementing locally available resources rather than replacing them and the general concept must be geared towards achieving greater self-reliance.

The principal role of CPO in the aid financing process is to ensure a total approach based upon meeting the objectives of government. The major roles specified above are geared not only towards attracting aid sources but also to ensure that aid donors are satisfied that their efforts meet government objectives. Moreover, the systematic approach that these roles imply will greatly enhance Fiji's capacity to attract and utilize aid funds.

MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Overseas aid to Fiji is part of Fiji's external relations. Except where specified, all formal communications or correspondence with overseas aid donors should be channeled

through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Civil Aviation as the office which coordinates Fiji's relation with other governments and foreign private and international organizations, with the exclusion of matters relating to EU assistance for which our official link is the National Authorizing Officer (P5 – Finance and Economic Planning). This does not, of course, rule out informal discussion or consultation by any user or requesting Ministry/Department with overseas aid donors. It is important, however, that the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Civil Aviation is informed of such discussion. Overseas aid donors are under clear instructions that only requests for aid sent to them through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Civil Aviation and where applicable, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, are to be regarded as official requests from the Government of Fiji.

A typical example of this ongoing foreign assistance program is provided by the German Regional Forestry Project (PGRFP), a pilot research program on Sustainable Indigenous Forest Management (SIFM) in Fiji. The results from this bilateral Fiji-German forestry project was very promising and the idea of disseminating the knowledge and technologies to other interested Pacific Island emerged.

Accordingly, the new Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC)/GTZ-PGRFP started in 1994 as a regional project, including the countries of Cook Islands, Fiji, Niue, Samoa and Vanuatu. In 1997, the project joined the SPC as a regional partner. The first phase was conceived as an orientation phase and lasted from 1994 to 1997. This was followed by a first implementation phase (1997-2000). This latter phase was examined by the Project Progress Review (PPR) in order to highlight achievements and formulate recommendations accordingly.

The procedure of PPR took place from March 2000. Emphasis was laid on the impact of the ongoing phase. The findings of the PPR are based on project site visits in Fiji, including meetings with partner institutions, stakeholders and resource persons. Based on the Project Planning Matrix (PPM) model the stakeholders, the resources owners, the government agencies and the GTZ team managed to plan and implement this program in a number of phases.

The PPR Mission's Findings and Recommendations

The project's results show that the SIFM concept is valid for the participating Pacific Island countries. There is high interest to expand and proceed with the implementation of SIFM to other countries within the Pacific Community (e.g., Solomon Islands and Papua New Guinea).

There has been significant move towards the achievement of the project purpose and delays were mainly due to political changes (reform process in the Native Land Trust Board [Fiji], Forestry Department [Fiji], new government in Fiji, 1998), adverse climatic conditions in project countries and unanticipated delays in discussions between landowners and logging contractors. The overall approach and implementation of the project have been in line with the project documents and GTZ guidelines.

Documentation and monitoring of project results and activities were regularly conducted. They could be further developed to become a supportive management tool for future progress reviews. However, the project's activities on awareness and the resulting impacts are of a high standard. The SIFM model has yet to be fully integrated into the national systems of participating countries due to different expectations of benefits by stakeholders derived from harvesting of forest products.

Due to the joint efforts of skilled landowners and forestry personnel, there has been an increasing interest for sustainable forest management in other Pacific Island countries. With

additional guidance from the project, successful large-scale implementation of SIFM in the Pacific region may be achieved.

ACTION PLANS

Consolidation and Further Implementation of SIFM

Incomplete activities from Phase 1 should be finalized with regular monitoring and evaluation. The economic, social and ecological viability of SIFM and the market for lesser-known timber species should be made more explicit. Certification under an internationally recognized accreditation body is recommended. The inclusion of the plantation should be seriously considered.

Efforts should be made in the next phase to inform resource owners of the various options open to them, positive and negative, for the development of their forest resources for the benefit of present and future generations.

Planning and Management of Land Resources

The project successfully supported initiatives oriented towards land use planning with focus on rural land use, agro-forestry and soil conservation measures. The relevant authorities and stakeholder should be further supported in achieving land use planning and the adoption of sustainable practices in the management of land-based resources, considering a participatory approach.

Participation, Communication and Mediation

The project has played a useful role as a vehicle for bringing together various stakeholders, resource owners, loggers and government to discuss sustainable forest management and other sustainable land use management (SLUM) system like agro-forestry in the respective projects. The project needs to continue this very useful facilitation and mediation role into the next phase and promote consensus approaches on negotiation and decision-making on the part of the various stakeholders.

The project will be required to place much emphasis in the next phase on community participation awareness and further training. Due to the private land ownership and the different interest groups involved, mediation should be given more attention. Training modules and other training materials should be translated into local languages to assist in enhancing community awareness.

To assist resource owners in gaining a better appreciation of the richness and value of forest, the project should work closer with others such as World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF), and South Pacific Regional Environmental Program (SPREP).

Land Resource Management Policies

As the project achieves rather higher acceptance at the technical level of the SIFM model and SLUM system, the next step would be to formulate the appropriate policy and a legal framework to guarantee sustainability of the innovative approach in land use management.

Given the wide spectrum of the rural life development scene the need for effective planning, good implementation, impacts assessment and review is essential for such programs. Furthermore all actors of developments should be motivated and committed to action-oriented plans in order to accomplish the objectives of this programs.

2. INDIA (1)

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INTRODUCTION

Rural development will have to be essentially geared to the ethos and its relevance to the people whom development plans are intended to benefit. These strategies would have to be innovative, realistic, chiseled and shaped to fine tune the aspirations of the people and preferably be adopted by the local resource persons in tune with the sensibilities of the rural poor.

The approach towards rural development in India has undergone several changes since the Community Development Programme, the first ever nationwide attempt for rural development initiated during 1952. The Community Development Programme was initiated with the all-around development of the countryside through active participation of the villagers.

This paper focuses on the various aspects influencing the Indian economy through a process of activating the rural life. The paper discusses the prevailing scenario of rural India and the various aspects that need to be attended to for uplifting the welfare of the rural poor.

INDIA – A RURAL ECONOMY

India's economy has always been predominantly rural in character as reflected in the very high proportion of India's population living in rural areas. In 1901, 89 percent of its total population lived in villages and almost after 100 years, the proportion is still at a high 70 percent. It is quite likely that by the turn of 21st century also at least 50 percent of India's population would continue to live in rural areas. Furthermore, about two-thirds of its work force is engaged in agriculture and allied activities which contribute about 28 percent of India's GDP.

Since 48 percent of the total population being women, it has been reported that 79.4 percent of all economically active women are engaged in agriculture as compared to 63.33 percent of men. Thus their role in farming and livestock activities is very important. In a predominantly agrarian society like India, rural development is a *sine qua non* of national development.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRUCTURE

The programs of the Ministry of Rural Development are implemented by State governments mainly through the *Panchayat Raj* institutions. In order that the formulation and execution of rural development program reflect the felt needs and aspiration of rural areas, the *Panchayat Raj* institutions must constitute the bedrock of all developmental

programs. Therefore, a predominant role has been envisaged in *Panchayat Raj* institutions in implementation of different programs.

The institution of *Grama Sabha* is vital for efficient functioning of *Panchayat Raj* institutions. The *Grama Sabha* under the chairmanship of village president is an effective forum for increasing awareness as well as to monitor and review the progress of the different schemes.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

By rural development we mean sustainable improvement in the quality of life of rural people. This requires a sustainable increase in the access of each and every individual to the basic necessities of life, i.e., food, clothes, shelter, sanitation and hygiene, basic literacy, primary health care and security of life and property.

In rural areas, food, fuel, fodder and other biomass play a crucial role in meeting daily survival needs. The rural population follows the traditional methods for them, which cause depletion of natural resources and pressure on agricultural lands. Deforestation, desertification, destruction of biomass, overgrazing etc., in rural areas are due to the poor inhabitants which become the agents of their own resources depletion as they struggle to ensure the survival of their own families.

Rural development, therefore, must embrace programs that touch all levels of human living, e.g., related matters, irrigation, communication, education, health, self-employment, housing, training and social welfare. The overall goal of rural development is to bring out the latent energies of the rural people, especially the poor, so that they can realize their full potential and thus improve their capacity as well as commitments to development, organize and govern themselves towards the attainment of a higher quality of life for the individual and for the entire community. The twin major objectives of rural development programs are accelerated economic growth with wider participation and most equitable distribution of its gains.

The objectives of rural development are: a) drawing the entire rural labor force into the mainstream of economic activity; b) check the drift of rural population to cities; c) enhance the participation of women and youths in the development process; and d) improve the quality of life through integration between development and environment.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Agriculture has been the mainstay of India's economy for centuries. Its share in the GDP is estimated at 25 percent in 1999-2000 as against 35 percent even in the 1980s. However, agriculture continues to be the sector which observes the maximum addition to the labor force. It is estimated that more than two-thirds of India's total population is still dependant upon agriculture. Historically, India was a large exporter of agricultural products. Immediately after Independence tea and jute, along with textiles were the principal foreign exchange earners. In agriculture, the important state objective is to attain self-sufficiency in food which has since been more than achieved. In the changed context, Indian agriculture, largely being of sustenance in nature, would not be able to withstand competition from many developed countries where agriculture is commercially run and is highly technology-intensive. During the past four decades, spectacular progress has been achieved in

agricultural production in India, which has been well chronicled and universally recognized, achieving a record production of 209 million mt from 50 million mt during the 1950s.

India now has achieved self-sufficiency in food grains and milk production – the two ingredients of an ideal Indian vegetarian diet. This has been made possible by the “Green Revolution” launched in the late 1960s. The “White Revolution” ushered in the early 1970s. Food grain production which was about 51 million mt in 1950-51 has increased to 206 million mt in 2000-01 and milk production from 17 million mt to 81 million mt over the same period. In fact, by 1988-99, India has emerged as the highest milk producing country in the world leaving behind the United States.

Agro-industries play a vital role in the economic development of the country. More particularly, its role in rural development is significant because of the importance of agriculture in the rural economy. Agro-industries help to improve the State income and lead to equitable distribution of the same, different sectors and regions in the economy. These industries generate employment opportunities on a large scale and contribute significantly to the process of self-sustained growth. The economic prosperity of a developing economy depends on the forward and backward linkages of the development process. “In India where there is more than 76 percent of landholdings are less than 2 ha, 70 percent of the net sown area is under rainfed conditions and most of the farmers rear one or two animals, on an average, are, therefore, resource-poor. At the same time the infrastructure is very weak.” This demands convergence of various services and diversification from agriculture to industries and service sectors.

Rural development has also been seen as bringing harmony in the different strata of the society. It recognizes that there is a need for integrating objectives, namely; more production, more employment and more equitable distribution of income. Rural development also aims at integrating the low income segments with the rest of rural community by ensuring them a better participation in the production process and a more equitable share in the benefits of development.

RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS

Of the total poor in the country, nearly three-fourths live in the rural areas. Therefore, the performance of the rural economy in terms of growth and employment will have strong influence on rural poverty. The organized sector of jobs contribute hardly 10 percent of the work force as against 33.1 percent in the unorganized sector. As many as 56.6 percent labor force is self-employed. The Ministry of Rural Development is engaged in implementing a number of schemes which aim at enabling rural people to improve their living standards. The new initiatives of the government is giving emphasis on rural infrastructure, agriculture and poverty alleviation programs will play a key role in all aspects.

The highlights of some of the major schemes are: rural roads, self-employment, rural godowns, rural housing, rural electrification and rural credit.

1. Rural Roads

Some Rs.25 billion allocation for the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana aims to provide road connectivity through good all-weather roads to all habitations.

2. Rural Employment

The Sampoorna Grameena Rozgar Yojana will provide one billion man-days of employment during the year with an outlay of Rs.50.4 billion. The rural employment will

provide marketing support products of self-help groups (SHGs) setting up of rural produce marketing centers and sub-centers at district and block levels. It will also provide employment guarantee to the unemployed in the most distressed districts of the country.

3. *Self-employment*

The plethora of self-employment programs for the rural poor have been merged into a single holistic program called “Swarna Jayanthi Gram Swarojgar Yojana”. It is conceived as a holistic program of micro-enterprises covering all aspects of self-employment. Some Rs.7.1 billion was allocated for this program.

4. *Rural Godowns*

Additional allocation of Rs.700 million to the Credit Linked Subsidy Scheme for construction of cold storage. The Rural Godown Scheme in 2002-03 seeks help storage of perishable products, thereby enhancing their shelf life and quality.

5. *Rural Housing*

This scheme aims at helping the below-poverty line rural households in the construction of dwelling units and improvement of existing houses. Insurance covers the houses constructed by the poor under the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) in disaster prone areas.

6. *Rural Electrification*

With an outlay of Rs.1.64 billion – new interest subsidy scheme – accelerated rural electrification program.

7. *Rural Credit*

The funds for Rural Infrastructure Development Fund (RIDF) VIII will be enhanced from Rs.50 billion to Rs.55 billion next year, while the rate of interest will be reduced from 10.5 percent to 8.5 percent. Henceforth it will be fixed at the prevailing bank rate of 2 percent. Under the scheme of micro-credit through SHGs, a target will be of 125 thousand additional SHGs is set. Personal insurance package linked to Kissan Credit Cards will be operationalized.

The implementation of the above programs, in addition to the regular rural development and poverty alleviation programs, would get momentum which will generate income for rural people and would make the villages and rural areas at a faster rate than what it is today.

EXTENSION SYSTEM AND PRACTICE FOR RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT

In order to meet the challenges of rural development in this millennium, there is an urgent need to redefine the structure and functions of the extension system. The success or failure of any extension is directly related to its ability to build and maintain the linkages of various types. On research and extension, the beneficiaries’ linkages will act as a backbone for implementing participatory methodologies at the field levels. Besides these linkages, emphasis is also required to develop the linkages with other systems such as NGOs, SHGs, input agencies and other formal and informal knowledge and information systems.

Many of the studies have brought out a weak-to-absence of functional linkage between research and extension. In order to strengthen the mutual and reciprocal interaction between research extension and beneficiaries, there is need to institutionalize a greater number of structural mechanism and simultaneously, their frequency of activity has to be kept regular as well as contingent. Further, the functional interaction among them is required to be

strengthened by encouraging collaborative professional activities, joint planning and decision-making, joint implementation and evaluation and training apart from regular communication between them. Such a functional linkage would enhance the participation of the actors in development for the design and delivery of the appropriate rural technologies.

NEED TO REDEFINE THE EXTENSION APPROACHES

The existing extension system in the country caters mostly to select beneficiaries, and helps the majority of the poor who are yet to catch up with the latest technology. This system focuses on uniformity rather than specify what is required for different target groups. Thus, redefinition in approach should be in terms of involvement of representatives of all groups classified on the basis of their inherent capabilities. The concept of extension approaches in the present scenario tends to become unidirectional on a top-down mode lacking in terms of multidirectional communication process. The proper coordination and linkages among all possible knowledge of production systems, information delivery systems and user systems are to be ensured. The prospective beneficiaries are to be part of the planning and deciding the extension agenda. Not only this, the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of extension programs are to be done jointly by involving the beneficiaries through various steps. In a nutshell, the extension approaches have to be broad-based, target-specific, participatory and bottom-up if the task of sustainable rural development is to be accomplished.

ANDHRA PRADESH – A FORERUNNER IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Andhra Pradesh, one of the Southern States of India, the granary of the South, has been pioneering in a variety of rural life improvement programs aimed at overall community development. It has been a trendsetter in rural development with a number of innovative programs being initiated in the recent past. Some of the successful programs are: Janmabhoomi, Community Development Plan, Clean and Green and Neeru-Meeru.

The Janmabhoomi is a people-centered development process aimed at establishing an ideal society which embodies and cherishes the principles of participation equity, equality, transparency, accountability, innovation and sustainability leading to sustained economic development and excellence in all walks of life.

The Community Development Plan is prepared for the core areas like community works, primary education, health and family welfare, environment conservation and responsive governance taking the habitation as the unit. The Habitation Level Committee with the approval of the *Grama Sabha* prepares such plans. The felt needs of the people relating to community works are identified and prioritized in the *Grama Sabha* and are taken up with 30 percent people's contribution. Some 122,044 community works have already been taken up and successfully completed with an investment of Rs.19,374.7 million during 13 rounds of Janmabhoomi.

The Clean and Green is yet another innovative program taken up with the aim of environment conservation to keep up the ecological balance. Under this program clean and green village, sanitation maintenance, construction of ISLs, planting of trees and popularization of non-conventional energy sources will be taken up on every third Saturday of the month. During the last 24 rounds of Clean and Green Program, nearly 51.7 million trees were planted and 1,811 thousand ISLs were constructed with an investment of Rs.1,262 thousand. It is targeted to achieve a 26-percent increase in green cover by the next year. The

program is administered through community participation at various levels right from the village levels to urban centers.

The Neeru-Meeru is an another innovative program aimed at conservation of water. Already 82,176 water harvesting structures and 70,000 soak pits have been taken up with people's contribution. The important feature of this program is to balance the benefits of economic development with wealthy ecology and environment. By promoting water conservation and efficient water management, the water level in all villages will be recorded every month to plan correction increasing through conservation of water and by recharging the groundwater by constituting water harvesting studying appropriate places, including urban areas. Simultaneously, concerted efforts to revive traditional age-old practices for conservation and management of various water shall be the basis for irrigation, drinking and improving economic standards and quality of life.

The above effort has already benefitted Andhra Pradesh registering a net raise in water level by 400 mm in spite of a 4-percent deficit in the annual rainfall.

3. INDIA (2)

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INTRODUCTION

Historically certain communities were kept from the orbit of mainstream for centuries. An attempt was made by the then philosopher and social reformer, Sri Basaveshwara, to bring all such weaker sections into the mainstream during the 12th century, but that attempt was short lived. The real attempt was started during the British rule in India. The principle of rule of law became a great leveler to some extent. The weaker sections were recruited in the British Army which gave new opportunities of economic independence, at least to some smaller groups.

The pre-Independence days saw many agitations from the weaker section for equality. After Independence, while framing the Constitution, sufficient safeguards were incorporated to uplift these weaker sections educationally, socially, economically and politically.

The Constitution of India provides certain special constitutional safeguards and privileges for the welfare of the weaker sections of society which from time immemorial, were denied education, equal social status and economic development. Keeping the constitutional guarantee in view, the then Mysore State had started certain welfare programs like starting of hostels for the weaker sections' children through the then Depressed Class Welfare Department headed by a Commissioner and Additional Development Commissioner.

During 1957, the nomenclature of the Department was changed as the Department of Social Welfare headed by the Director of Social Welfare. Today the Director of Social Welfare is implementing various schemes for the total development of the weaker sections of people in Karnataka State.

Since these sections were denied educational and economic development, the concept of community development did not generate among them. They did not have property and they did not have anything called trade and commerce. They all depended on the agriculture sector as landless laborers and did other menial jobs. After Independence, both the central and State governments tried their best to bring them into the mainstream through various schemes. Though the government spent huge amount of money on the development of these sections nothing was forthcoming from them. Therefore, there was a strong need to inculcate community development among the weaker sections for their self-development in a speedier way. The State government implemented the land purchase project, irrigation system and self-employment schemes. The landless laborers were provided with two acres of land serviced by irrigation facilities. Those who were not in a position to go for land-based activities were provided with self-employment activities with financial assistance and technical training.

The important schemes implemented by the Department of Social Welfare were: educational programs; economic activities such as providing houses, lands and irrigation facilities; and various self-employment programs.

These schemes are implemented at three different levels:

- 1) At State level by the Social Welfare Commissioner;
- 2) At district level by the *Zilla Panchayats*; and
- 3) Some schemes at the *Taluk Panchayat* level.

ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP

1. *State Level*

At the State level, the Commissioner of Social Welfare is head of the Department. He is assisted by three joint directors, four deputy directors, one chief accounts officer, one assistant statistical officer, one assistant director and one gazetted manager. Another joint director heads the Dr. B. R. Ambedkar Research Institute. A pre-examination training center provides training to the weaker section students who wish to take the All-India Civil Services Examination conducted by the Union Public Commission.

2. *District Level*

All the programs of the State and district sectors are implemented by the *Zilla Panchayats*. The district social welfare officer at the district level assists the chief executive officer of the *Zilla Panchayats* in the implementation of departmental programs.

3. *Taluk Level*

The *Taluk* social welfare officers at the *Taluk* level assist the *Taluk* executive officer in implementing the departmental schemes.

With the above-mentioned administrative set-up the Department implements the following schemes:

Educational Schemes

From the start, the Department's first and foremost importance is given to the educational schemes. The literacy rate among the scheduled castes is as low as 39 percent according to the 1991 census. In order to increase the literacy level and to educate the weaker section people on par with the others, the Department implements several educational schemes as follows: nursery-cum-women welfare centers; residential schools; *Navodaya* and *Morarji Desai* residential schools; admission of scheduled caste students to the *Ramakrishna Ashram* school, Mysore; *Janaseva Vidya Kendra* at Channenahally, Bangalore; and the JSS Residential School at Suttur, Nanjangud *Taluk*, providing hostel facilities to the weaker section students; scholarships to students from primary level to graduate level; financial assistance to the weaker sections' research work; and financial assistance to the weaker section students who go abroad for higher studies.

1. *Nursery-cum-Women Welfare Centers*

In order to inculcate school going habits to the weaker section children, 451 nursery-cum-women welfare centers are being run by the Department in addition to pre-primary education. The children in these centers are provided with mid-day meals every day and two sets of dresses per year. About 20,500 children benefit from these centers.

2. Residential Schools

There are 88 residential schools run by the Department for the benefit of 8,800 scheduled caste children. The children studying from I to V standard are admitted in these schools. Boarding and lodging facilities are provided. Also, they are provided with beddings, uniforms, textbooks and notebooks free of charge. During the year 200-01, Rs.35.75 million was spent for the above program.

3. Morarji Desai Residential Schools

In order to encourage the talented scheduled caste students studying in the residential schools, the Department runs 47 *Morarji Desai* residential schools. During the year 2001-02, 7,010 students were admitted and the amount spent was Rs.444 thousand.

4. Navodaya Model Schools

In order to provide quality education to the talented scheduled caste students, on par with the *Navodaya* schools run by the Government of India, four *Navodaya* model schools were started. Students are admitted from V to X standards in these schools. Students studying in these schools are provided with four sets of uniform per year, Rs.100 per student per month and Rs.400 per month towards food charges. During the year 2001-02, Rs.63,881 thousand were spent for this scheme.

5. Hostels

The Department maintains 1,090 pre-matric hostels that provide boarding and lodging facilities to scheduled caste students studying from V to X standard. In all, 69,900 weaker section students are admitted in these hostels. Twenty-six new pre-matric hostels were started during the year 2001-02.

6. Grant-in-Aid Hostels

Apart from government pre-matric hostels, voluntary organizations have also been encouraged to run hostels for the benefit of the weaker section students studying in the pre-matric level. There are 279 grant-in-aid hostels in the State covering 15,332 students. The government gives grant-in-aid at the rate of Rs.350 per month per student towards boarding charges.

7. Government College Hostels

The Government of Karnataka is very keen in providing higher education to the weaker section students studying in colleges as well as in the professional and technical courses. The Department runs 263 post-matric hostels for the benefit of 18,870 scheduled caste college students with an annual budget outlay of Rs.43,877 thousand. These hostels are managed by either the principals of the respective colleges or the district social welfare officers/*Taluk* social welfare officers. Over and above the scholarship, the students staying in the college hostels get extra boarding and lodging allowance from the State government budget. Also, there are 84 recognized grant-in-aid college hostels run by voluntary organizations for the benefit of 7,040 weaker section college students. The government provides scholarship and extra boarding and lodging allowance for these students also.

8. Scholarships

The weaker section students studying from I to X standard get pre-matric scholarships and merit scholarships. To encourage the weaker section girls, Rs.500 is given them as incentive apart from the regular scholarship. Students studying in the college level get scholarship from the Government of India assistance, provided that their parents' annual incomes exceed Rs.60,625.

Students doing research work are assisted with one-time lump sum grant of Rs.10,000 each.

The weaker section students pursuing studies abroad are assisted in order to meet their travel expenses, course fee and boarding and lodging charges during their stay abroad up to Rs.1 million each.

Of the total budget allocation of Rs.3,248,891 thousand, the Department has spent Rs.1,719,867 thousand towards the educational schemes during the year 2001-02.

Economic Development Scheme

The major portion of the weaker section residents constitutes the landless agricultural laborers. Any improvement in the agriculture sector would indirectly benefit these sections. Prior to the Sixth Five-Year Plan, economic development of weaker section was not the objective of the government. However, in 1980-81, the Government of India introduced a new program called Special Component Plan throughout the country. It is due to this Special Component Plan that an individual weaker section farmer could think of earning his livelihood. The Karnataka State is known as one of the pioneer States in implementing the Special Component Plan for integrated development. Two features of this program are: a) flow of resources to the schemes that benefit the individuals for improving their economic condition; and b) flow of resources to the program that provides infrastructural facilities and services to the weaker section community as a whole. This is why the community development programs like the Ganga Kalyana schemes are in very much demand. The important characteristic of the Special Component Plan is that all the developmental departments were enjoined to spend 15 percent of their total budget allocations pooled for the welfare of weaker section people. Such pooled fund is spent on the priority sector schemes like education, housing, agricultural lands and irrigation, with an idea of bringing an overall economic upliftment and infrastructure development among the weaker section.

The total outlays earmarked in the budget under the Special Component Plan for the year 2001-02 was Rs.6,375,307 thousand. Most of the schemes undertaken consist of subsidy and loan component. The financial institutions are instructed to advance loans at subsidized rate of interest.

Employment and Training

In order to enable the weaker section youths, both educated and uneducated, to get suitable employment, various training programs are being launched. The schemes like Navachetana, centrally-sponsored coaching and allied schemes where the weaker section educated youths are trained to compete in the All-India Civil Service Examination. The weaker section candidates are assisted with stipend to undergo computer training both in software and hardware.

Housing

Since the inception of the First Five-Year Plan, the scheme for providing houses to the homeless were implemented. But the gravity of housing problem faced by the weaker section people is yet to be solved. Knowing the seriousness of the scarcity of houses being faced by the weaker section people, the State government has started the Rajiv Gandhi Housing Corporation. The Ashraya and Ambedkar Housing Schemes are brought under the control of this Corporation. Financial assistance of Rs.20,000 per house is provided to the scheduled caste houseless family.

Taking the multifarious problems faced by the weaker section people of different categories, the Department of Social Welfare is striving hard to reduce the gravity of the seriousness of all broad-based problems of the weaker section.

4. INDONESIA (1)

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INTRODUCTION

One of the globalization effects is that the economy tends to be capitalistic and marginalizes the poor, including farmers in Indonesia. Farmers do not have any appropriate capital as well as access to sources of required capital. They do not have any financial support to procure better/modern technology. Meanwhile, the cultural process of land inheritance from one generation to another has made the land fragmentation of farmers' ownership to be smaller.

In order to overcome the increasing trend in poverty, the Government of Indonesia has taken efforts, one of which is through reformation in many aspects, including governmental administration. The paradigm of centralistic government has been changed to district-based decentralized government with a strong hope that it will stimulate the development of local district economy. In this decentralized system, the central government confines its roles to facilitating the development of the local district, development of standards and regulation, as well as controlling international cooperation and fiscal problems. At the provincial level, the government coordinates local economic resources having competitive advantages to develop its local economy. At the district level, the local government takes a major role in providing direct counseling and supervision on local development.

FARMER EMPOWERMENT

As an agrarian country, the majority of the Indonesian people live in rural areas. The government has continuously helped the farmers to be better farmers, do better business, and enjoy better living.

The agricultural census of 1993 indicates that the number of farmers who owned land of less than 1 ha each numbered 22,856,254 or around 84 percent of the total available agricultural lands. This limited land ownership has forced the farmers to work by utilizing any available resources for farming, animal husbandry and producing handicrafts. In such condition, farmers' agricultural activities tend to be simply subsistence, far from being a market-oriented crop production. Therefore, it is important that the agriculture sector in Indonesia be developed from subsistence farming to a market-oriented business.

If we thoroughly analyze the contributing factors to the weakness of the Indonesian agriculture sector, we will find that the most important factor is the low quality of the Indonesian human resources. Helping farmers to catch up with the development of modern agricultural technology should become the priority in developing the agriculture sector and

strengthen the bargaining position of farmers. This calls for government's commitment and policy to improve the welfare of farmers.

In addition, the government should put the farmers as the subject of the agricultural development programs instead of putting them as the object. In this context, empowering farmers will be the best choice for a rural development program. A number of empowering activities could be developed, among which are:

- a) to improve the function and roles of farmers as the subject of agricultural development, particularly in their freedom to participate in political activities, to take their own decision in determining strategy to improve their income and welfare;
- b) to improve the capability of farmers so that they can have the ability to communally establish a firm organization to realize their aspiration;
- c) to support the involvement of educational institutions, research centers, and other related institutions in developing local specific knowledge and policies;
- d) to establish an institution that can help improve the bargaining position of farmers in marketing their agricultural products. The institution should be able to provide farmers with information concerning market opportunities for their agricultural products with good prices;
- e) to develop and strengthen financial institutions (banking and non-banking) and financial support mechanism that can give wider access for farmers to get loan with low interest rate;
- f) to formulate export-import policies favorable to farmers' interests;
- g) to improve the delivery mechanism of any financial support for farmers to avoid leakage and inappropriate allocation. For better supervision of this delivery mechanism, the government should give much wider chances for NGOs or private institutions to actively participate in these activities;
- h) to establish a network involving all parties with strong concern on the improvement of farmers' welfare;
- i) to provide legal and non-legal protection for farmers' ownership of natural resources such as land and water; and
- j) to develop existing local village institutions to encourage farmers to aspire for better lives.

COMPLEMENTARY SHARE OF ROLES BETWEEN GOVERNMENT AND NGOs

The emerging configuration of social hierarchy in Indonesia shows a modernizing paternalistic society in which the government is at the apex, the private sector in the intermediate level, and the farmers at the bottom of the pyramid. Within the configuration, the government assumes the organizer's role, and the farmers assume the operator's role. One more actor of development with no small contribution is NGOs. Trying to put the latest actor into the hierarchy, it seems that playing as the mediator between the government and the farmers, and/or between the private sectors and farmers is an ideal role.

NGOs

NGOs are non-governmental organizations that enable the private sectors to actively participate in many aspects of development. They are concerned with poverty, environment,

women's rights, human rights and other social concerns. NGOs have been a powerful partner of the government in implementing the development programs in the field. Their sound has been quite loud that affects many government decisions in policy-making. They are involved in many aspects of life: social, political and economics. Primarily, the NGOs play the role of stimulating any process of businesses through activities. Providing guidance, inspiration, advocacy, and other stimulating works are the areas of NGOs' activities.

In agriculture, the role of NGOs is not small. They have been accompanying farmers in designing farm business, writing farm proposals, acquiring farm credit, talking to bank people, encouraging the establishment of farmers' groups and many more. The proper term describing the NGOs involvement is a mediator. The NGOs will be called to assist in the gray area between the government and private sectors; between the farmers and the government; and/or between farmers and private sectors. They would bridge and help communicate the interests among these three stakeholders.

Considering that the government budget is limited, the government encourages the private and NGOs to be involved in the community development drive. The government supports the establishment of self-help community-based institutions to empower the rural community through agribusiness, agro-industry and cottage industry programs. The major type of those institutions is applying religion approach depending on the major community in certain area. There are five religions recognized in Indonesia, namely; Islam, Christian, Catholic, Buddha, and Hindu. More than 80 percent of Indonesians are Islam believers, the so-called Moslems.

PONDOK PESANTREN AS AN ALTERNATIVE OF AGENT OF CHANGE

According to Islam, each believer should always place the truth, justice and fairness as well as prevent various disorders. Islam requires the followers to always consider the harmony of physics and moral, materials-spirituals, individual persons and community and the environment, the existing life in the world and the permanent life after the death.

Since majority of the people are Moslems, Indonesia currently has a large number of *Pondok Pesantren*, indigenous NGO spreading in all parts of the country. Based on the latest data of the Ministry of Religion Affairs, in 2001, there were 11,312 *Pondok Pesantren* in Indonesia. In general, *Pondok Pesantren* can be categorized into traditional and modern *Pondok Pesantrens*, and the combination between the two religious knowledge, pure science, and applied science.

An Islamic boarding school or *Pondok Pesantren* is an indigenous Islamic educational institution promulgated in Indonesia. It grew up in compliance with the emergence of Islam in Indonesia. *Pesantren* was so simple in the beginning. It commences with small circle where Islamic teachings conducted. It produces *santris* (students) who in turn may develop their own *Pondok Pesantren* in other regions or areas, or render *da'wah* (calling to conduct Islamic values) for the presentation and continuation of Islamic teachings and the guiding philosophy for which it stands.

In its development, *Pondok Pesantren* turns to be a social institution that gives a typical characteristic for community development. Its roles cover not only religious matters but also many aspects related to local community development. Besides, *Pondok Pesantren* also takes the roles of community economic empowerment by developing cooperatives and a number of business units such as agribusiness and agro-industry.

The objectives of *Pesantren* are: 1) developing cadres of religious leader who may in turn teach; and 2) spreading Islamic values. To respond to the demand of the society, *Pondok Pesantren* is also concerned with improving the participation of the community in various aspects of life.

The capacity of empowering and transforming the surrounding society is one of the potentials of *Pondok Pesantren*. The reasons behind this are:

- a) the strong bonds of *Pondok Pesantren* with the community make this institution a religious and educational agent;
- b) most of the *Pondok Pesantren* are located in remote villages where the national development is concerned as it is the center of community development;
- c) unlike other formal educational institutions, *Pondok Pesantren* offers a long time for learning, and the students have a lot of time to concentrate on learning and developing themselves; and
- d) *Pondok Pesantren* emphasizes religious education where students are expected to be independent and know how to live together in society.

Pondok Pesantren is regarded as a kind of national education system operated outside schools focusing more on religious education but highly parallel with the objectives of national education, i.e., nurturing devotion to one God, developing the intellect and moral of human beings' love of country.

BANTEN PROVINCE AT A GLANCE

Banten is located in the western part of Java Island. It is a new province established in 2000. This province is famous for Krakatau volcano located in the Sundanese Strait and Ujung Kulon, the peninsula. Nowadays, there are many beach resorts becoming popular in Banten province.

Formerly Banten was a part of the West Java province, and the distance to Bandung, the provincial capital city, is twice that to Jakarta the national capital city. However, this province has been relatively neglected in the past. Banten has limited physical infrastructure with low education of the human resources. Therefore, in order to catch up with the developmental level, the improvement of human resource should be a top priority.

ROLE OF *BAITUL HAMDI* IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN PANDEGLANG

The district of Pandeglang has a very ancient agricultural tradition, although it is only two hours away from Jakarta. When entering the district one sees farmers selling durian, mangosteen and a lot of strange fruits and vegetables. The farming traditions are still alive today among the farmers of indigenous descent.

Recently though, some of small farmers have turned to the organic movement to reinstate respect and dignity into their craft. Many farmers manage small family vegetable plots, and produce organic crops such as durian, mangosteen and bananas. The farmers have formed a marketing group to ensure that their vegetables and fruits reach the weekly markets around the neighboring cities. Organic agriculture has allowed the farmers to plan their harvests and find a growing market for their products.

Baitul Hamdi is an integrated Islamic educational institution established in 2000 in the small village of Menes. This institution is very important since all the residents are Moslems and live close to each other. The management of this institution is fully aware that its success will be influenced by the active participation of the community members.

The establishment of *Baitul Hamdi* is intended to be an integrated Islamic institution that tries to actively participate in the program of community empowerment, particularly within Banten province which is embodied in its vision, mission, goal and targets.

Conceptual Framework

Baitul Hamdi is developed through the following four integrated programs:

- a) Conducting non-formal education through a two-year education program of Islamic Agribusiness College starting in the year 2002 with priority on the improvement of human resource quality in Banten;
- b) Conducting a program of community development focusing on: i) Moslems' welfare improvement program; ii) social-culture and religion counseling program; and iii) socio-economic counseling program;
- c) Establishing a strategic business institution to provide financial support for the operation of *Baitul Hamdi*, for a developed self-financing institution; and
- d) Providing a formal educational program of Integrated Islamic Senior High School (SMUIT) scheduled to start in the year 2003.

Based on the programs, it is expected that *Baitul Hamdi* could be successfully developed as a dynamic and typical Islamic institution that is capable of running well based on interrelationship of the four programs on religious norms and professionalism.

Organization

Baitul Hamdi is under the management of *Baitul Hamdi* Foundation. The management team of *Baitul Hamdi* Foundation consists of Advisory Council, Director, and General Manager. There are also four site managers who are directly responsible for the four activities of the Foundation, i.e., Manager for Formal Education, Manager for Non-formal Education, Manager for Economic Development, and Manager for Social Affairs.

Steps of Program Implementation

The implementation of *Baitul Hamdi* development programs is divided into the following four steps:

- a) Constructing physical infrastructure such as educational building, student dormitory, training facilities, multipurpose building, *Baitul Hamdi* Foundation office, canteen, clinic, agricultural machinery workshop, and promotion and marketing facilities;
- b) Developing agricultural business such as poultry and livestock projects: chicken; duck; and fattening of cow, swamp buffalo and sheep;
- c) Building supporting facilities such as language laboratory (English and Arabic), computer laboratory, agricultural laboratory, greenhouse, library and sport facilities; and
- d) Developing and implementing a non-formal education (Islamic Agribusiness College), formal education (SMUIT), community development through Moslem's welfare improvement, socio-religion and socio-economic counseling.

Institutional Cooperation

In establishing its activities, the *Baitul Hamdi* developed a close collaboration with existing local government and NGOs, which have similar goals such as the Ministry of Religion Affairs, Ministry of National Education, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Manpower, Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Industry and Trade, and State Ministry of Cooperative and Promotion for Small and Medium Entrepreneurs.

Local district institutions involved in the development of *Baitul Hamdi* are district services, institutions for agricultural information and extension, stations of agricultural extension and senior high school for agriculture. Private sectors and NGO involved are: cooperatives, small and medium entrepreneur association, other Islamic boarding schools and Agency for Islamic Boarding School Cooperation.

As an institution located in a new province, *Baitul Hamdi* is expected to help accelerate the development process, particularly in the improvement of human resource quality.

Islamic Agribusiness College

The *Baitul Hamdi* Islamic Agribusiness College was developed based on its vision to establish non-formal Islamic educational institution capable of creating professional and Islamic norm-based businessmen. In line with this, the mission of the institution is establishing a Banten Regional-based Islamic Training Center that integrates the aspects of professionalism, entrepreneurship, independence, and Islamic norm-based attitude.

The objectives of the *Baitul Hamdi* Islamic Agribusiness College are:

- a) creating Moslem youths who have entrepreneurship spirit, independence, and Islamic personality;
- b) developing, disseminating, and socializing entrepreneurship within the communities;
- c) creating an Islamic integrated educational environment;
- d) establishing and improving *Baitul Hamdi*'s business units and developing collaborative business with its alumni;
- e) developing business network between *Baitul Hamdi*'s alumni and businessmen who have strong commitment in the improvement of people's welfare;
- f) preparing human resources who will be assigned to manage *Baitul Hamdi*'s business units and community development; and
- g) developing mutual cooperation with people living in the vicinity to create economic network based on Islamic norms.

Integrated Islamic High School

The vision of *Baitul Hamdi* SMUIT is establishing highly qualified Islamic educational institutions in Indonesia and creating students who have Islamic attitude, comprehensive understanding of science and technology, high academic achievement and ready to compete with other graduates from other educational institutions. Its main mission is developing general high school which integrates the aspects of general science and technology with Islamic norms in the efforts of establishing students with Moslem-based personality.

The *Baitul Hamdi* SMUIT is developed based on boarding school scheme. The age of its students ranges from 16 to 18 years old. Its curriculum is in line with that developed by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Religion Affairs combined with some educational module formulated by *Baitul Hamdi*'s staff.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

In line with its vision, mission, and goal since the first step of its establishment, *Baitul Hamdi* has been directed to develop synergic mutuality between its goals and the community's interest and needs in terms of socio-religion and socio-economy. This has been intended to avoid *Baitul Hamdi* from becoming an exclusively narrow-minded institution.

Objectives

The objectives of the Community Development Program carried out by *Baitul Hamdi* are:

- a) to organize, facilitate, and provide counseling in the community and vicinity in order to improve their capability of developing Islamic economic activities for improving their welfare;
- b) to internalize Islamic norms into the community's daily life; and
- c) to create a good relation between *Baitul Hamdi* and the community and vicinity based on the understanding that the program of *Baitul Hamdi* can only be running well if there is a support from the community. Meanwhile, the community can get both direct and indirect benefit from the establishment of *Baitul Hamdi*, particularly in terms of economic and religious aspects.

Functional Strategy

- a) To develop a feeling of responsibility among *Baitul Hamdi*'s people to empower the community and vicinity in the fields of socio-economic, socio-religion, and Islamic socio-culture;
- b) To develop a sense of belonging to *Baitul Hamdi* among the community and vicinity; and
- c) To create a synergic mutuality between *Baitul Hamdi*'s people and community.

Program Profile

The above-mentioned development strategy has been further grouped into the following three main programs:

1. *Community's Welfare Improvement Program*

The program is directed to optimally improve the function of Mosque and *Pondok Pesantren*, not only a place for praying for Moslem, but also a center of various religion, social and economic activities such as counseling activities for Moslem youths, teaching Al-Qur'an, Islamic study, integrated health services, and other community development activities.

2. *Socio-religion Counseling Program*

The program is directed to internalize Islamic norms into social life and Islamic socio-culture in the community through the following activities: study on Islamic art and culture; Islamic culture and art competition; implanting Islamic norms into local culture; establishing Islamic villages; and incorporating Islamic norms into any aspect of community interaction.

3. *Socio-economic Counseling Program*

The program is directed to empower the community members in order to improve their welfare through the following activities:

- i) To facilitate identification process of local potential and economic problems in the community, and formulate alternative beneficial Islamic business;
- ii) To assist the development of business activities in terms of technical aspects, management, marketing, and capital information access; and
- iii) To develop partnership with the local community in facilitating the supply of food, garment and other daily needs.

Strategic Business Units

The development of *Baitul Hamdi*'s Strategic Business Unit is based on the principle that any business carried out by a Moslem must be in line with Islamic rules. Under the rules, the business is expected to achieve: (i) profit/non-profit targets; (ii) continuous improvement; (iii) sustainability; and (iv) blessings of God.

The vision of *Baitul Hamdi*'s Strategic Business Unit is to develop the institution to be prominent self-financing business that could develop Moslem's economic potentials supported by professional self-financing Moslem entrepreneurs who have Islamic personality.

The objectives of *Baitul Hamdi*'s Strategic Business Unit, among others, are:

- a) to support the program of *Baitul Hamdi* Islamic Educational Institution in creating Moslem entrepreneur;
- b) to develop, disseminate, and socialize people's awareness of the importance of entrepreneurship;
- c) to provide financial support for the operation of *Baitul Hamdi* Islamic Educational Institution;
- d) to accommodate practical activities of the students of *Baitul Hamdi* Integrated Islamic College;
- e) to improve and develop business units of *Baitul Hamdi* to a self-financing business managed by college graduates;
- f) to develop partnership between the business unit of *Baitul Hamdi* Integrated Islamic College and other businessmen who have strong commitment on the improvement of people's welfare; and
- g) to develop synergic mutuality with the community and vicinity in developing Islamic-based economic business.

EXPECTED COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENTS

In line with its mission to improve the quality of human resources and community's economy, the establishment of *Baitul Hamdi* is expected to bring about positive impacts on the lives of local people in Pandeglang district, particularly in the aspects of education, farmer community, agribusiness society, enterprises and cooperatives.

Development of Education and Training

For its students, *Baitul Hamdi* will provide a place for developing their personality, a center for innovation, information and consultation, and a network for developing close collaboration with local people in the vicinity.

Development of Farmer Community

For farmers living in the vicinity, *Baitul Hamdi* will provide a place for training, demonstration plot, apprenticeship, supplying production input and servicing agricultural

tools and machinery. This institution will also be the center of farmer services, particularly in the introduction of new applied technology.

Development of Enterprises

Various productive economic activities and business programs held by this institution will bring economic activities for the private sector, cooperative and small or medium agribusiness enterprise into a synergic mutuality.

Development of Human Resource

The activities of *Baitul Hamdi* are expected to bring about significant improvements in the capability of local human resources to enable them to help the government in conducting its duties and function. This improvement will subsequently result in increased income of the local people and ultimately result in the increased income of the government.

CONCLUSION

Rural community development is crucial in improving the national welfare since more than 70 percent of the Indonesians live in rural areas. The programs of the rural community should be developed comprehensively, involving all players in agricultural and rural development: government, private sector and NGOs. Recently the NGOs have played important roles in many aspects of community development.

In line with the change in the government's role in development, the NGOs have been recognized as important agents of change and it is expected that self-help community-based institutions like the *Pondok Pesantren* will be greatly contributing as mediators among the stakeholders.

As mediators, the NGOs are easily accepted by community they belong to. Therefore, it is a good strategy to improve the quality of NGOs and increase their roles in agricultural and rural development. To strengthen the rural community development toward globalization, a networking program is needed.

5. INDONESIA (2)

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INTRODUCTION

Agricultural extension has been quite an issue for a long time now in the development of agriculture in Indonesia. In order to improve its efficiency in assisting farmers, the extension institution has been recently reorganized in terms of its administration for extension workers and organizational structure at central and district levels. The current institutional framework for extension in Indonesia comprises of central level agencies, i.e., Ministry of Agriculture (MOA), Ministry of Forestry (MF), Ministry of Home Affairs (MOHA), National Center of Agriculture Extension Development (NCAED), National Center of Forestry Extension (NCFE), District Center for Agriculture Information and Extension (DCAIE) and district agricultural technical services offices.

The task of the central level agencies is the formulation of policies and technical guidance as well as monitoring the performance of the agricultural extension services. Within MOA there are the Agency for Agricultural Human Resource Development (AAHRD) that oversees the capacity building of agricultural staff and the Agency for Agricultural Research and Development (AARD) that is in charge of research and development (R&D). The AARD also supervises the regional technology assessment centers. The MOA is complemented by regional offices at the provincial level, including the Agricultural In-service Training Centers (AISTCs/BLPPs), Regional Agricultural Technology Assessment Centers (RATACs or BPTPs/IP2TP), and Regional Plant Protection Centers (RPPCs/BPTPHs).

Under the new decentralized policy, a district has authority to decide its management system for rural and agricultural development. Prior to the launching of the policy, the Minister of Home Affairs together with the Minister of Agriculture issued a circulation letter recommending options for agriculture and forestry extension organization structure in the district level. Yet, current situation shows that the districts have given various responses towards the existence of an extension institution. It was basically agreed that agriculture as well as forestry commodities will provide direct benefits for the districts. However, disagreement was raised upon the need for the extension institution to be maintained separately from the technical agricultural services office. The main reason was that the institution is considered inefficient and costly since it has no direct contribution to local revenue. Referring to this argument, some districts abolished the agricultural extension institution, distributed extension workers to relevant agricultural technical services and shifted their role to technical staff.

For districts that maintain extension services, the institution in charge of extension services subject-matter specialists to farmers is the DCAIE which maintains a network of Rural Extension Centers (RECs) at the subdistrict level staffed with Field Extension Workers (FEWs). Agricultural extension has mainly been provided by the public sector. The dominant approach implemented in the current extension service is the Training and Visit (T&V) system of information transfer.

RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICY AND PROGRAMS

From the standpoint of agricultural development and rural life improvement in Indonesia, rural development policy and programs are aligned upon agribusiness and environmental friendly orientation, which emphasis is basically on agribusiness and food security. This policy and programs are then strengthened by the issuance of the President's Decree (INPRES) No. 9 in 2000 and supported by the National Development Planning Board (BAPPENAS). The concept basically fits in with new paradigm of agriculture development which puts emphasis on the bottom-up planning approach. This implies that agricultural development policy and programs have to facilitate the needs and aspirations for all group members in the rural community which are represented by men, women and youth.

DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY EXTENSION PROJECT (DAFEP)

The DAFEP is a capacity-building project in which the objective is to enhance the farmers' capacity to participate in and to lead in extension activities, and to strengthen the capacity of the district level integrated agricultural and forestry extension system. This World Bank-funded project promotes farming practices that are economically feasible, environmentally sustainable, and socially acceptable which in turn will increase farmers' income. The project includes three main components, i.e., (1) grassroots level – farmers and farmers' groups (field level); (2) subdistrict and district level – extension institution capacity building (DCAIE and REC); and (3) at central level – policy and management project supports (NCAED of MOA and NCFE of MF).

The first component is designed for farmers to participate in and to lead extension activities. There are two main sub-components in this level. First is to strengthen farmer groups, encourage farmer networks, and increase the knowledge of farmers. The other sub-component is to test and promote participatory extension methods and provide technology support to farmers.

The second component seeks to strengthen the district extension system. The strategies used are introducing institutional and management reforms strengthening the capacity of the district extension staff. In addition, the project also strengthens the district extension support and delivery system, including construction and upgrading of facilities. Meanwhile within the third component, the project strengthens the central extension support by providing advice on central level policy formulation, analysis and dialogue, and assists in carrying out special studies. To support the system at this level the project also develops strategy on strengthening the central extension support systems and provides project management support to district information centers (Figure 1).

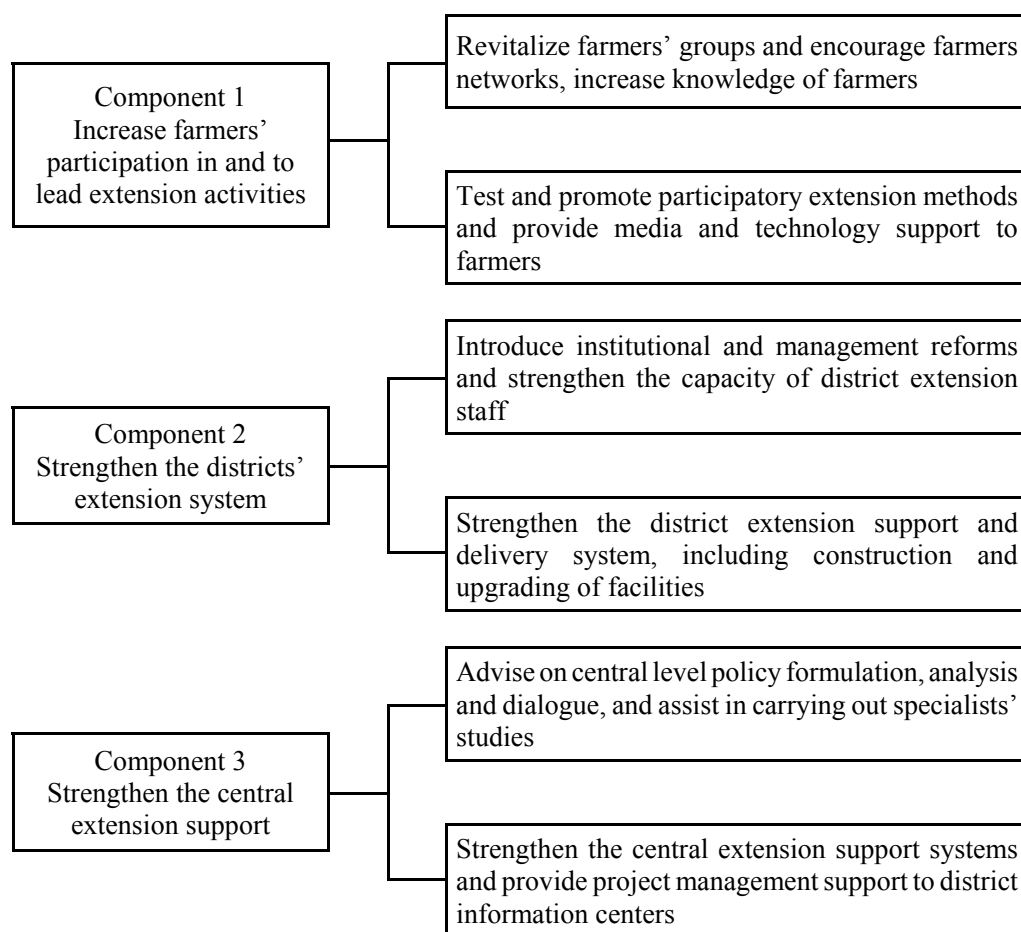


Figure 1. Functions of DAFEP Components

The extension system developed by this project is characterized by: (1) bottom-up planning and policy; (2) socio-culture and indigenous knowledge orientation; (3) collaborative work among government, farmers, and private sectors; (4) interactive relation of farmer-extension worker-researcher in which the farmer's role is an active partner in extension and assessment of technology; (5) extension is developed based on principles, information and methods; (6) learning process is conducted through experience and discovery; and (7) one reliable extension teamwork. The DAFEP conceptual framework and strategy focusing on farmer participatory approach is shown in Figure 2.

The DAFEP operates in nine provinces covering 16 participating districts. Since DAFEP aims to build extension system from central to field level, the project requires one unit of extension institution in its participating district with government commitment to support the implementation of the project. The project strategy is basically focused on farmer participatory approach. This implies that the strategy allows location-specific farming systems as well as local-specific training.

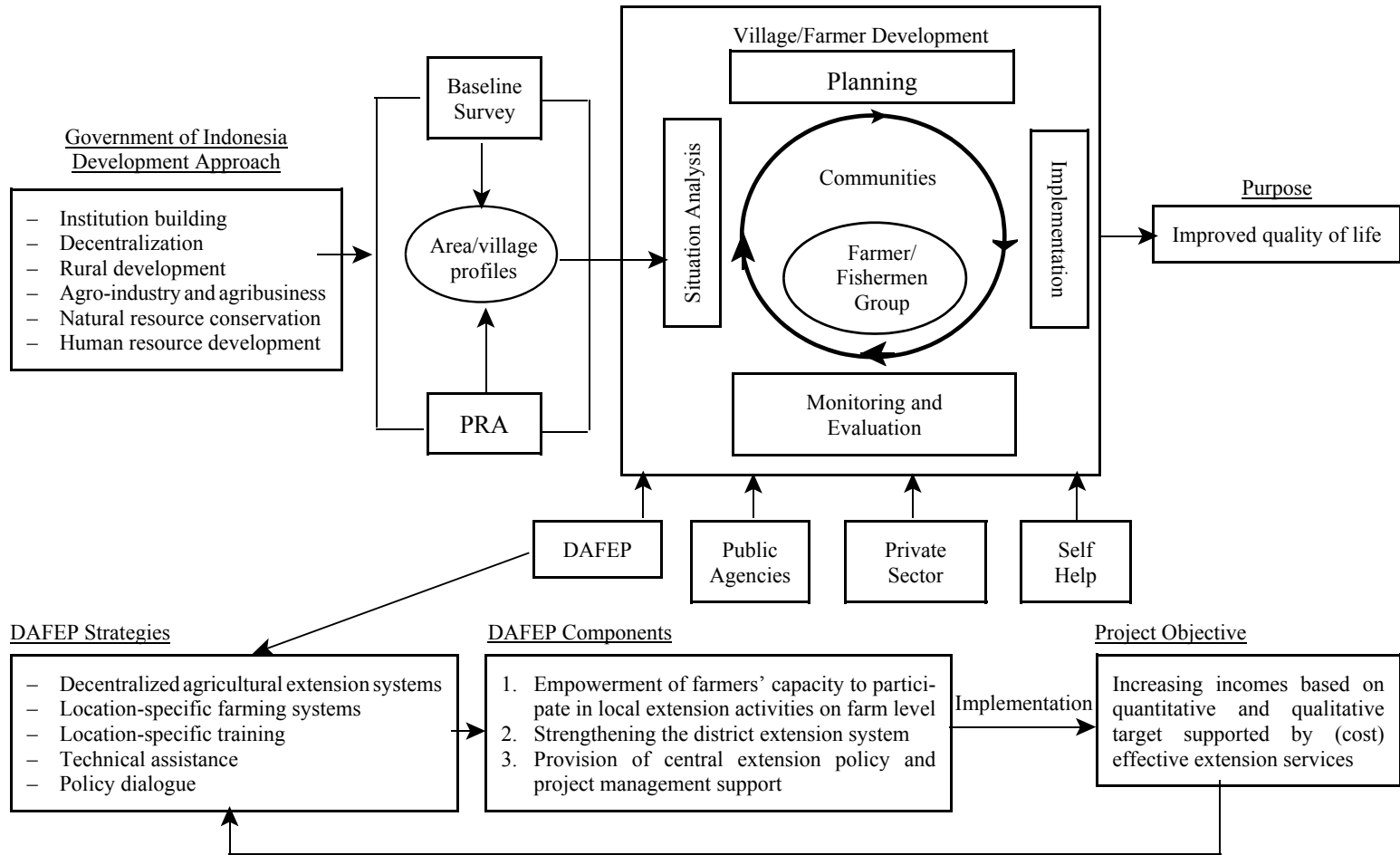


Figure 2. DAFEP Conceptual Framework and Strategy Focusing on Farmer Participatory Approach

Social and gender program in DAFEP concerns the varied and differences in roles between men, women, and other vulnerable groups in agriculture and forestry activities and decision-making, and their access to resources, including extension support, technology and information. The program aims to promote social and gender equity in the delivery of extension support, improve farmers' efficiency and income, and make this development sustainable.

At the very outset of the project preparation (December 1996) a social and gender analysis study was undertaken to provide background information on the social and agricultural profile, and the gender relations in the existing extension support services. The study indicated that women's contributions are important in agricultural production, but they hardly participate in extension activities because they are not socially recognized. Some gender issues identified in the study that may influence the effectiveness of extension delivery are group meetings which were considered men's business; meeting schedule conflicts with women's regular work; women do not talk in mixed groups, etc. Since gender relations and issues are specific depend on society and culture of the community, to promote gender responsive extension, DAFEP is highly recommended to identify its gender-related issues in all the project participating districts.

The study findings is strengthened by the World Bank supervision mission that noted a lack of capacity in the extension system to assess and analyze social and gender issues in the field. That is why the extension programs often fail to address the location- and gender-specific needs and opportunities. The project needs to be strengthened by socio-economic and gender linkages in the design to obtain a clear picture of the practical and strategic needs of men and women farmers, including farm youth in the field.

In order to systematically integrate socio-economic and gender concerns into the functioning of the extension system, an action plan has been developed under DAFEP. The program of socio-economic and gender issues in extension aims to build capacity in the extension system to identify and address social and gender issues in the planning and implementation of programs, and develop a new generation of extension workers who will promote social and gender equality in their work.

Significance of Socio-economic and Gender Issues in DAFEP

The program complements the objective of DAFEP by incorporating socio-economic and gender considerations in terms of adding a new dimension, and that of equality, efficiency, and sustainability. Its contribution in each level of DAFEP activities is as follows:

1. *Farmers' Capacity Building*

The program is to ensure equal and effective participation of men and women farmers in village level planning by incorporating gender in Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) exercises. It will bring into focus the needs of men, women and other vulnerable groups, and enable them to lead the extension activities in market and demand-driven direction. It will help mobilize and strengthen women farmers and mixed farmers' groups and improve farming efficiency and farmer's income.

2. *Strengthening of District Extension System*

The program is to strengthen capacity building in the extension system in order to make it more responsive to social and gender needs by introducing extension workers to the socio-economic and gender analysis tools and methods through a series of training workshops and other activities. The institutionalization of social and gender concerns under the program

will develop a new generation of extension workers who will be able to assess the needs of men and women farmers in the field, analyze the issues that concern the farmers most, and address them in the planning and implementation of extension program. They will also be able to assess the impact of directed interventions and make changes, if needed.

3. *Extension Policy and Project Management Support*

The program seeks to enhance awareness among the policy- and decision-makers in social and gender issues through periodic awareness workshops and campaigns. This will generate interest and help in promoting gender-sensitive policies in extension. It will also gather support and commitment of the decision-makers to address the social and gender needs in extension.

ACTIONS AND STRATEGY OF THE PROGRAM

Long before DAFEP, NCAED has since the 1990s introduced the “gender concept and analysis technique” to extension workers, planners and farmer leaders through developing training modules on gender awareness and training courses. However, it has remained only as a concept and viewed as one option of deriving the program and plan rather than a new recommended approach to be implemented in extension activities. During that period, there was no clear governmental statement that supported the urgency of the ideas. Even so, the concept somehow was accepted with a single meaning to empower women since it was mainly introduced by the Ministry of Women’s Role.

Nevertheless, based upon recommendations of the first World Bank supervision mission, a Gender in Extension Core Team (GENEX CT) was established by the Director of NCAED. The team consists of staff drawn from two DAFEP coordinating agencies, NCAED and NCFE. The program is to develop a GENEX network to link the core team at the center with GENEX focal points in DCAIE (district level), extension workers in REC (subdistrict level), and farmers at grassroots levels for implementation of the social and gender action plan. The team then started its program by introducing its action plan to the project implementers at central and district levels. The team presented and promoted the idea and its benefit for the project either by conducting short presentation in any kind of the project meetings or by requesting a one-day session in the project’s training course.

The project supports the team by providing budget for conducting serial activities starting in 2001. The activities begin with **development of training module** which is basically a work guidance for farmer leaders and emphasis on integration of gender perspective in three levels of farmer activities, i.e., at household, group, and village levels covering activities of planning process, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and follow-up actions. The module was then utilized as the main topic in **a one-week Training for Master Trainers, followed by Training of Trainers and Training of Facilitators at village level**. To develop support from the local government, the team also conducted a **meeting/forum on gender** aiming to build gender awareness among national and district level decision-makers, as well as to socialize gender mainstreaming on agriculture and forestry extension policy and strategy within the frame of agriculture and forestry development. The output of this meeting was an agreement and commitment of the decision-makers on gender mainstreaming in agriculture and forestry development reflected in the integrated gender perspective development program and plan of actions.

In addition, in 2001 the World Bank extended trust funds to the project to promote gender equality among men and women and ensure women’s participation in agricultural and

forestry extension activities. Utilizing the trust fund from Finish, Canadian, Netherlands, and New Zealand, the project conducted a Gender Issues in Household Resource Management (GIHRM) study. This pilot study recommended the use of an instrument to understand gender relation in farmer households and recommendation of its implication based on findings and analysis. To strengthen the implementation of DAFEP by enhancing the project design to mainstream the gender concerns into the services provided by the decentralized district extension system, the World Bank has also extended Japanese trust fund under Policy and Human Resource Development (PHRD) program. Under this program, gender-related activities are developed in linkage with NGOs.

To ensure the implementation of gender concerns integration in the project, there is a continuously monitoring and evaluation conducted by the GENEX team. Within this activity, attention is put on any kind of activities and documents (report, training modules, guidance, booklets, brochures, posters etc.) produced by the project whether or not it reflects the needs and aspiration of male and female farmers. Further important information is monitored and evaluated on who were involved and participated in activities, how are the roles and participation of men, women, and youths and who gets benefits from the activities.

Extension activities plan is drawn from the field using PRA approach. Farmers' needs and aspiration derived from PRA may touch many aspects of community development. From village level, it is then brought into stages of subdistrict and district local government boards. For those plans that are related to agriculture and forestry extension, such as agricultural/forestry training needs, technology application and assessment, media information, etc. actions are taken by DCAIE in collaboration with other relevant institutions.

CONCLUSION

Rural life development program should share its impact to all roles involved. To improve its efficiency, target beneficiaries' stakeholders should support the program. The whole system developed by DAFEP needs strong commitment from all contributing parts. This project has a philosophy that needs paradigm shifting of agriculture and forestry sector stakeholders. Paradigms that are considered tough to be shifted are bottom-up planning, collaboration work, and integration of gender perspective. In particular, since there is much misunderstanding on the use of gender concept, social and gender concerns need a long way to be incorporated into the development program. Learning from NCAED's past experience, rationale for using social and gender concerns in extension should increase the effectiveness of extension delivery system in a frame of human resource development program. To make the idea more acceptable, social and gender perspective should be acknowledged as a means to understand more on who actually are involved in what, who does what, who decides what, and who has access to what, so that the development program could affect those left behind.

6. ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN (1)

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INTRODUCTION

Situated in the South-west of Asia, Iran covers an area of 1,648 thousand m². There are two main mountain ranges, Alborz and Zagros, desert lands, with latitudes ranging from 25° to 40° North in the Northern hemisphere. The mountain ranges and desert are influential factors in the diversified climate of the country. Iran is basically an arid and semiarid country with average rainfall of about 240 mm per annum. With a total population of 65 million (2002), Iran has an average population density of 39 persons/km².

Iran is comprised of multilingual and multi-cultural communities with diversified livelihoods, norms, customs and histories, all of which are heavily influenced by the varied climate, topography and socio-political locations across the country.

A comparison between urban and rural population shows that the proportion of the rural population has changed from 68.6 percent in 1956 to 38.3 percent in 1996 in spite of a consistently high birth rate in rural areas. This decrease indicates migration from rural areas to urban areas over time.

BASIC POLICY AND STRATEGY OF RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT

Policies Prior to the Revolution of 1979

From 1949, the government started five-year economic plans to “mobilize the national resources in order to achieve a consistent level of economic growth”. In 1951, an imperial edict ordered royal estates to be sold to peasant tenants, and in 1958 some public domain land was transferred to the peasant cultivators. The peak of the structural changes to the ownership system in rural areas came with the ‘Land Reform Program’, introduced in three stages from 1962 to 1970. The referendum of 1963 aimed to divide large landholdings among tenant sharecroppers. In the initial stage of this program, villagers were provided with agricultural and rural services. The pilot project included education, health, agricultural extension, credit, farm machinery, markets for farm products and infrastructure improvements.

With the start of the oil boom in 1974, policies moved towards industrialization and rapid modernization and urbanization. After passing a law on ‘the establishment of companies for the utilization of lands downstream of dams’, lands were bought from landlords and landowning peasants and released to agribusinesses created by state, private and foreign investments. The traditional patterns of production were replaced by mechanized plantations.

The increasing lack of attention to the agriculture sector led to its depletion. The result was a dislocation of rural communities, fractions of which were ultimately attracted to urban areas, seeking better wages in industry and the service sector. With the growth of extreme capitalization, constant alienation of the rural population, and with policies that were moving further away from their needs, the government was in fact, paving the way for the climaxing of the people's frustration, coming in the form of the 1979 Islamic Revolution.

A Reversal in Thinking after the Revolution

The villages were faced with serious structural problems such as migration, lack of income opportunities, lack of necessary facilities and weak terms of trade.

The Revolution of 1979, which was probably the greatest example of active popular participation, was a direct response to this modernization. There came a renewed attention aimed towards the traditional social structures and to the needs of the people. The Revolution succeeded in mobilizing and strengthening these structures, and also, in gaining strength from them. There was a genuine desire for the people to participate in the new plans, and this desire was communicated to the people who responded positively to this invitation.

The Revolution, founded on the principles of Islam, made an intentional return to the country's roots, insisting that any development must first extend its benefits to rural areas, and in particular, the rural poor. Based on this principle, the government's activities included health and basic needs, rural infrastructure, economic diversification and job creation, popular participation and cultural development. As a way of achieving these objectives, the government recognized the need to identify and utilize the potential resources that existed in the villages such as natural and human resources.

One of the most significant policies and strategies in development over the first years of the past two decades was decentralization, that is, giving authority to governmental and people's associations for planning and resource allocation at provincial and local levels, and focusing on local community needs, conditions and resources in policy- and decision-making.

It is worth noting that primary activities in rural areas were based on the theory of integrated community development. The aim was to improve the infrastructure of villages and to promote production and productivity, as well as responding to the basic needs of rural areas. Information about activities in rural development and infrastructure that are necessary for rural life improvement in the years after the Revolution that same as years of Jihad activities and comparison to years before the Revolution have important accomplishments: over 70,000 km of rural roads have been paved through government agencies, compared to 8,000 km before the Revolution. The rural electrification program has covered over 28,000 villages, whereas by 1979, only 4,327 villages had access to electricity. The rural safe drinking water has covered over 34,000 villages, whereas by 1979, only 12,000 villages had access to safe drinking water. Access to safe drinking water for the country was 76 percent in 1990. By 1995, this figure had risen to 90 percent, 98 percent in urban areas and 82 percent in rural areas. Rural improvement (or renewal) project as an important strategy for rural life improvement basically started in 1986 both in the Ministry of Jihad and the Housing Foundation now cover over 5,000 central villages. Over 75 percent of the rural areas now have access to primary health care services. The literacy rate has reached 67 percent, compared to 37 percent 20 years earlier. Female literacy now stands at 44 percent, compared to 26 percent in 1972.

Table 1. Comparative Rural Improvement Projects Pre- and Post-1979 Revolution

Project	Item	Before the Revolution (till 1979)		After the Revolution (1980-99)		Total
		Amount	Percent	Amount	Percent	
Rural road construction	Km	8,000	10	72,300	90	80,300
Rural electrification	Village	4,327	13	28,405	87	32,732
Rural safe drinking water	Village	12,000	26	34,120	74	46,120
Rural improvement	Village	0	0	5,286	100	5,286

However, despite these figures, which seem to testify for a healthy rehabilitation of rural areas, this sector has experienced a continuing trend of migration of its young labor force. Although the effort and the financial support that have been invested in rural projects are far from negligible, these programs and, ultimately, the policies have once again moved away from the rural people, and away from their needs and reality. In the rush to give every decision, plan and policy a credible result, the Ministry of Jihad has, like most other national organizations, both in Iran and in other developing countries, distanced themselves from their roots. It would have been wiser to service a framework for the valuable work that was already being done.

As a result of this tendency towards 'scientific' methods, statistics, estimations and predictions, the Ministry of Jihad has lost touch with what made it so successful in the first place. People's participation has been limited to financial contributions and manual labor. Projects are still being implemented at a fast rate, but with less and less consideration for the living conditions of rural people.

The rural improvement and renovation projects directly focus on the living condition and improvement of rural life, both in terms of their goals and operational mechanisms. On the other hand, with respect to these projects and their relationship with community development, and the level of rural people's participation in this project there are some important critical views that are explained below.

The general goals of the improvement project are:

1. to establish a center for supporting agricultural activities;
2. to establish a center for building industrial units in rural areas;
3. to establish a center for generating prosperity of commercial services in the rural areas;
4. improvement in rural physical environments;
5. to make proper environmental conditions for the residence of production and service experts in the rural areas;
6. to try to reduce the rate of rural-urban migration; and
7. to establish access to urban services in rural areas.

The rural improvement projects, with their emphasis on the hierarchy of rural settlement and the hinterland of services are categorized as rural center planning. However, in rural center planning the area under study is bigger and, after a comprehensive study the location of the central village is determined based on specific criteria. The boundary is not important in the improvement project, however, the subdistrict boundary is identified as the hinterland and the subdistrict as the center simply based on previous geographical division.

The result of field evaluation and comparison between two types of villages (with/without improved project) in Esfahan province shows that the goals of improvement project are far from real activities, and from the impact of these projects, but the opinion of rural people is very positive and over 80 percent felt satisfaction with these projects and had a great expectation as a result of these projects. In practice, these projects are limited to the proposal of a guide plan for central villages about land use and the modification of the main village road line. A study of rural people traveling for access to agriculture, business and health services shows that central villages do not have enough popularity for the attraction of rural people (specially people in the hinterlands). On the other hand, the main expectation of rural people is that after the improvement project these villages would change to small cities in all aspects, but we know that this is impossible, and this expectation could cause future dissatisfaction regarding life and living conditions.

The main problem of these projects is that they are not part of a comprehensive national plan or regional planning-based programs or community development programs. Furthermore, participation of rural people in different stages of these projects was very limited and in some stages like design, management and maintenance they did not have any participation. Participation was limited to financial contributions and manual labor.

CONCLUSION

Recent changes at the ministry level and the merging of the two ministries (the Ministry of Jihad and the Ministry of Agriculture) show a new horizon for rural development in the country. This is because some past mistakes and problems occurred due to some parallel activities or topics that were divided and broken because of their relation to the scope of responsibilities of both ministries. In the new Ministry we have the opportunity to design projects with systematic approach to rural problems and to view each village as a community.

7. ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN (2)

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INTRODUCTION

Generally, development experts and professionals believe that the human being is the key factor and focal point of development, contributing to the process and living with the eventual consequences. That is why the training and enhancement of human resources are considered the foundation for integrated development. It is essential for a society striving for sustainable development to consider the prerequisites of development. Determination of the role and share of the various sections of the community in the development process is of particular importance. Valuing this diversity in macro-plans and policies will assist in the enrichment of potentially productive, but deprived sectors. One of these productive, albeit deprived and neglected groups are rural and nomad women, who constitute 38.66 percent of the total women population in Iran. Despite their substantial contribution to GNP, this quite considerable 12 million population are still not considered as employed producers in the country's official statistics, and despite their effective contribution to the development trend, these 'hidden producers' have not been afforded proper training programs adopted to their needs, activities and social status. In view of the aforementioned realities, gender planning for rural and urban development has recently gained significance. To this end, the Ministry of Jihad-e-Agriculture (MOJA) focused on independent and specific planning for the growth and development of rural and nomad women by instituting the Rural and Nomad Women Affairs Bureau (RNWAB) in 1993.

RURAL AND NOMAD WOMEN AFFAIRS BUREAU

Based on its doctrinal jurisdiction, the Ministry has placed particular emphasis on rural women. And in line with this priority, the Department of Rural and Nomad Women Affairs was established. After some basic studies and planning regarding the issues faced by rural women, this office was later expanded to a Management first and lately to a Bureau. The line departments of the Management were subsequently established with Extension and Participation Management and Administration at provincial levels and cities in turn, followed by the recruitment of relevant experts. The rural women experts at city level have close relationship with rural women. There are some rural women extensionists in all areas as well. Rural women experts albeit have some visits to villages and communicate with them. So the implementation of development projects of the Bureau is carried out by the experts in provincial city level in cooperation with extensionists. The organizational set-up of the Management took shape in the form of internal administrative organizations for socio-cultural, extension training, support and employment activities.

Objectives

1. Enhancement of the social status of rural and nomad women and distinction of their position within their family and society;
2. Empowerment of rural and nomad women towards the promotion of their livelihood and the alleviation of poverty and deprivation;
3. Mobilizing the participation of rural nomad women in social, economic, cultural and political affairs;
4. Raising rural and nomad women's awareness with respect to socio-economic, cultural and political issues; and
5. Changing people's attitude towards the status and role of rural and nomad women in the country's development.

Strategies

1. The Central Headquarters of the Women Affairs Bureau focuses on policy-making, planning and evaluation, in order to ensure the implementation and achievement of the above objectives; and
2. Provincial offices engaged in the establishment of extension networks are linked to rural women.

Activities

Despite the important role and influence of rural and nomad women in the community's social, economic and cultural affairs, they have, nevertheless, constantly been one of the most deprived sections of society in terms of access to resources and opportunities. And there has been no specific effort at responding to their acute need for vocational training on professional principles and skills, and for social, economic and cultural awareness-building. It is based on these needs that the RNWAB has designed its activities which are in line with life improvement for rural women. The main activities are as follows:

Training

Training is the best tool to increase rural women's knowledge and achieve human development. The RNWAB, in this regard, has held different training courses divided into techno-vocational and extension types.

1. *Techno-vocational Training*

This type is divided into formal and informal training. Formal training is one of the curricula of the Ministry of Education (MOE) and takes years. The MOJA together with the MOE hold the courses of this type of training. The graduated students receive a diploma each which has special value for work. Informal training, however, takes two months and does not have formal aspect for work.

Some examples of these training titles are as follows:

Formal

1. Technology of breeding warm water fishes
2. Mat weaving
3. Sewing skill
4. Training of carpet weaving trainers
5. Needle-weaving training

Informal

1. Carpet weaving improvement
2. Carpet weaving skill improvement
3. Industrial poultry
4. Forestry and planting of young trees
5. Livestock science

2. *Extension Training*

This type of training aims at creating skills and knowledge among rural girls and women for achieving technical knowledge. Some kinds of training are as follows: meat, milk and dairy products hygiene; fossil fuel; apiculture; poultry; and fish cooking.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR RURAL AND NOMAD WOMEN

The following points of educational planning for rural and nomad women were provided in the country's Second Five-Year Economic Development Plan for 1995-99:

1. Implementation of educational planning based on regional needs;
2. Rural women educational needs were measured before training;
3. The Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) method was performed in the selection for the rural extension agents and understanding their training problems;
4. Supervision on training was implemented at provinces by the rural women affairs experts;
5. The percentage of rural women extensionists and organizing them had considerably grown;
6. In-service training sessions for rural women affairs experts were held; and
7. Top-down planning was adapted in the planning process.

A reflection on the extensionists' project using the PRA method utilizing local people in participatory projects has been always the point of attention for the authorities. In the MOJA, therefore, having rural extensionists has proved important since many years back. But during the last decade the number of rural women extensionists was less than the men. Regarding the vast area of activities for rural women development and the women increasing needs, reviewing the extensionist plan seemed necessary. This reviewing changed to a plan called "a reflection on the extensionists' project" on the needs of rural women. Some of the extensionists were elected by the village women. Prior to this plan, they were chosen by one or two village leaders (mostly men). Since extensionists have been elected by village women, they are supposed to be more reliable, accountable and can suitably communicate with the local people. Besides that, local people support them more than before. The participation process, therefore, is essential in regional planning.

Objectives

The objectives of the educational planning process utilizing the PRA method are as follows:

1. To create bilateral communication (between rural authorities and women) through rural women extensionists;
2. To enhance the social status of rural women and devote their attention to the necessities of social activities; and
3. To promote the use of participatory planning in the development of rural communities.

The following process or steps is essential in choosing rural women extensionists: a) visit the villages to be acquainted with women residents; b) organize justification sessions during which the candidates would be presented; and c) undertake an election.

Training Programs

The training programs aim at enhancing rural women's knowledge and professions integrate the extension training with the development programs and hold training courses according their needs. The following topics are suggested:

- a. Participation training (including explanation of the plan, rural women's roles in different areas, village problems, rural women extensionist's roles, how to do need assessment and how to communicate with rural women, etc.);
- b. Extension training (including chick vaccination, poultry, getting familiar with special bank facilities for rural women, etc.); and
- c. Socio-individual training (including socio-individual and environmental hygiene, getting familiar with socio-individual laws, techno-professional training, etc.)

Extensionist's duties according their roles and need assessments are as follows:

1. to attract rural women's participation in the problems and their priorities;
2. to attract rural women's participation in decision-making and planning;
3. to encourage rural women to participate in problem-solving;
4. to evaluate activities (done in participatory manner);
5. to determine potentialities in the villages;
6. to identify powerful and active women in agriculture and rural life improvement;
7. to determine support and utilize rural local knowledge with the participation of rural women; and
8. to gather information on different aspects of agriculture and extension problems.

Measures in Extensionist Support

1. Creating motivation among extensionists;
2. Extending loans to them to improve home-based jobs;
3. Forming saving funds among the villagers;
4. Holding techno-professional training for trainers courses for extensionists;
5. Supplying extensionists with stationary; and
6. Facilitating the setting of farmers' cooperatives.

Self-help Group Plan

Researchers and planners of rural development have studied diverse strategies in order to determine suitable methodologies for attracting people's participation. The self-help group is one of the tested methodologies that is effective in most cultures and areas to create a constant motivation for attracting people's participation. Self-help groups are small local formations in rural areas.

From experience, we made a field visit to the target village for practicing the bilateral participatory approach in a research action together with the local villagers and authorities. We selected the facilitators and held regular training courses and briefing sessions for the women and the regional socio-economic staff. We concluded that the women groups performed well in participatory methods in the village. The groups decided to prepare a calendar of activities and establish a micro-finance fund for themselves. In the village, the women, men, local leaders and facilitators have understood that extension is the art for creating reliable relation and programming is the art of adapting to the needs in the village.

Based on the foregoing brief experience, communities of people can make proper links with local leaders and authorities. Already small groups in a relatively deprived region are women now familiar with various economic enterprises and know how to produce and run agro-animal businesses.

Some attributes or advantage of small groups for beginners are:

- a) local markets require limited production;
- b) poor members do not have access to loan facilities;
- c) small number of members match the limited number tools while the larger groups would face difficulties;
- d) in small group, members can consolidate durable links among each other for high growth and appropriate duties;
- e) the production in the village requires rather simpler technology and workmanship; and
- f) in smaller group, financial management can be easily understood and run even by the most illiterate members.

Formation of Inter-groups' Union

The more the number of self-help groups in a region, the better participation among them. They can unite and create inter-groups' union. This set-up has the power to establish the union fund for individual lending (while the group fund aims at capital raising). This means that the borrowers can also apply for personal purpose. The new fund receives its capitals by collecting 3-4 percent of all members' profit attached to the union.

ESTABLISHMENT OF MICRO-CREDIT FUND

One of the most significant factors in service and productive activities for constant employment-creating and life-improving of rural people is capital. Investigations have indicated that formal credit organizations and institutions in agriculture could not succeed to meet demands of the owners of the capital. This led to the establishment of informal form of such institutions. As there is no supervision on them, capitalists give loans to needed people with high collateral which in turn lead to exclusion from the market.

Rural women are not in a condition of getting loans from formal level nor loans from informal resources. Formation of micro-credit institutions, therefore, will be useful in organizing their employment and increasing the quality and quantity of products. The initiative for the establishment of the fund emerged from a study project conducted in 1998 under the title of "Revision of the Rural Micro-credit Approach". In order to establish micro-credit fund and examine the adaptability of micro-credit system with the economic and cultural aspects, particularly to answer the doubt whether the women can secure independent credits and financial institutions led to the formation of some rural pilot funds. These funds existed through the cooperation of the RNWAB, MOJA in 2000.

Objectives of Fund Formation

1. Empowering the women through participation in common affairs and to solve socio-economic problems;
2. Contributing more towards capital increase and easier access of low-income households;

3. Upgrading the individual and social skills of rural women for gradual commission to the fund management; and
4. Generating income and improving the people's subsistence status through economic activities. The criteria for adoption of the pilot fund regarding the targets and site selection limitations, four components, i.e., poverty, women participation morale for economic businesses, productive impetus and population of 40-100 households were the incorporated criteria.

Procedures Which Led to Formation of the Fund

1. *Creation of Sincere Relation and Mutual Confidence*

To reach this aim, a meeting was held and called some rural trustees and council members to brief the group on the scopes of the project. They reflected a positive sign and evaluation which had outstanding impact on the villagers and could progressively absorb the women confidence to the fund. Over the next two sessions, some men also joined the fund.

2. *Identification of the Socio-economic Status of the Village Using PRA*

Since income generation lies within the strategy of the fund, it signifies an accurate identification of the human and economic resources. To perform this task, the executive team could develop a list of the needed information and adaptable techniques to gather them. The target information of the village is identification of:

- C the economic resources;
- C the natural resources;
- C the different income-having groups;
- C the household income and cost of living;
- C the favorable businesses available;
- C the social resources; and
- C the women community and their analysis of their activities.

3. *Formation of Credit and Savings Groups*

These groups are composed of principal components of 5-7 members each, based on optional request. The groups have a leader and are titled on their specific fields of activities. The groups consider numerous duties which are mainly common discussion to address the bottlenecks and appropriate solutions. Over the last year, regular fortnight meetings for participatory discussions could identify the problems and search for solution.

Administrative Matters

To upgrade the women's capacities in group activities and economic businesses, various courses are lined up within the fund mandate. Before commencing a course, a series of participatory need appraisal are conducted in order to determine the following:

1. *General Training*

The general training consists of discussions on religious subjects, individual and public sanitation and hygiene. Normally one of the members is asked to raise some religious matters to be discussed for 10 minutes in fortnight meetings. The hygiene subjects were also initiated by the health house experts and Women Affairs Bureau.

2. *Training for Group Activities and Entrepreneurship*

An eight-day workshop is conducted in the village to consolidate the group activities, participatory discussions and entrepreneurship promotion. This workshop was convened by

the Rural Research Center of the Ministry of Jihad to assess the women's first participation in such workshops.

3. *Technical Training*

A training program is formulated to enhance the productivity and income of the members. The Extension Office in provincial centers organize training courses on raising livestock and poultry on household or domestic scale. For this purpose loans are provided only for production activities, including projects in animal husbandry, sericulture, poultry, carpet weaving, etc.

Savings is a prerequisite for membership in the Fund. The members are required to deposit some amount every meeting and the amount of deposit depends on the members' ability.

To apply for a loan, a member fills out a form in consultation with his/her family. There he or she specifies the costs and benefits of the activity for which the loan is applied. Then the head of the group confirms the economic justification of the activity. Next, a project officer reviews the case and two visits are paid to the site (one before and one after the loan).

The amount of loan depends on the total deposits collected by each group. The distribution of loans within a group is based on collective agreement. For a member to get the loan, the whole group should endorse the repayment forms. No collateral is required, as there are always some members in a group whose turn for a loan depends on the repayment of other borrowing members.

The maximum amount of the first loan is R1.700,000 (US\$90). Each member is entitled only for one loan a year. The amount of the second loan may increase the next year, provided that the repayment of the first loan has been duly fulfilled.

THE MA'REFAT PLAN

The young women and girls in Iran have progressed in the last decade. Consequently, they face new problems, in particular relation to their needs, specially the cultural needs. The necessity of developing women in cultural areas led to prepare a plan called "Ma'refat". This plan aims at enhancing knowledge, enriching leisure time and developing social participation of rural girls in the use of rural libraries that provincial centers established.

The plan objective is mainly to empower rural women and girls with emphasis on knowledge enhancement and socio/individual status through:

- C increasing necessary knowledge and information to highlight the family status;
- C creating/strengthening the morale of self-believing, incentives and social belonging;
- C ensuring their studying needs and extending book reading habit;
- C developing the scope of social participation;
- C providing them with socio-cultural principles;
- C organizing socio-cultural activities; and
- C reducing the immigration of the rural young to cities.

The basic operations of the Ma'refat Plan revolves around the establishment of libraries throughout the country by purchasing more than 300 titles of needed books for some 7,000 volumes for 110 rural libraries. It is estimated that the ratio of users of each library is about 1,000 girls and women between 12 and 30 years old.

This project is implemented by extensionist whose responsibilities and duties are:

- C cooperating in dialogue/justification sessions preparatory to the start of a plan;
- C enrolling candidates (among the beneficiaries);
- C cooperation in need assessment process (for library activities);
- C full-time and active staff for the libraries;
- C managing and planning for courses;
- C maintaining good working relationship with province/city officers; and
- C preparing monthly report to management.

Special Centers

1. **Cultural Center:** holding dialogue and analysis sessions, book reading, book critic, and press group (mainly focus on social, economy, cultural and family issues of the young);
2. **Literature Center:** holding literature critic sessions and teaching core groups and short story writing;
3. **Koran Center:** interpreting and reading the Koran;
4. **Movie and Theater Center:** teaching how to write scenario, broadcasting movies and raising critical points on movies, etc.;
5. **Law Center:** forming groups of studying women and family law, studying the construction laws, giving learning service;
6. **Consulting Center:** formation of studying groups on mental hygiene, maturity psychology, how to choose a job/spouse, family relationship, child rearing, etc.; and
7. **Extension Center:** holding training courses on agriculture (production, processing, handicrafts, etc.)

8. REPUBLIC OF KOREA (1)

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INTRODUCTION

The *Saemaul Undong* (New Community Movement) of the Republic of Korea has been recognized as a successful model of community development project, especially for underdeveloped and developing countries. It was not only the rural community development project, but also the modernization project of the country. As a result of the successful implementation of the *Saemaul Undong*, Korea could well be transformed into one of the leading developing countries during the 1970s.

The *Saemaul Undong*, launched as a rural community development project, was expanded in scope and program to the urban sector, and became a nationwide movement for nation building and economic prosperity. In addition to Rural *Saemaul Undong*, accordingly, there have been Urban *Saemaul Undong*, Office *Saemaul Undong*, Factory *Saemaul Undong*, School *Saemaul Undong*, and so forth.

In this paper, however, the focus is on the Rural *Saemaul Undong* in the 1970s and the early 1980s. The historical development of the *Saemaul Undong* and its achievements are briefly described first. The basic features of the *Saemaul Undong* are presented to point out its nature and characteristics, followed by the delineation of the role of governments. Finally, implications of the *Saemaul Undong* are drawn for other countries that are pursuing or will start a rural community development project.

THE SAEMAUL UNDONG AND ITS MAJOR ACHIEVEMENTS

The *Saemaul Undong* was initiated in the early 1970s to improve the living conditions of the residents of rural communities. In 1970, then President Chung-Hee Park instructed at a national conference of governors and ministers of the central government to study ways and means of promoting rural self-help efforts based on cooperation among farmers, government agencies concerned, and farm leaders. Based on this instruction, the central government drew up an experimental project, named the *Saemaul Undong*.

Early in 1971, all rural villages in the country were given 335 bags of cement each to build village-piped water supply facilities, community laundry areas, common compost plots, etc. According to statistics, the government provided US\$8.5 million and the projects completed were worth US\$25 million.

The development of the *Saemaul Undong* can be identified by four consecutive stages. The first one is a Foundation Building Stage. From 1971 to 1973, the *Saemaul Undong* focused on the improvement of the farmers' immediate living environment. Included programs are: replacements of straw-thatched roofs of traditional farm houses with concrete

slates or steel tins, widening and strengthening of in-roads or in-alleys, improvements of fences of farm houses, and building foot-bridges. These projects did not immediately increase income, but they benefitted the villagers themselves, and required some sacrifice and cooperation from everyone. For this period, per capita GNP of the nation was increased from the equivalence of US\$289 to US\$396.

Period	Stage	Objectives	Change in GNP
1 1971-73	Foundation Building Stage	Improvement of living environments	Per capita GNP US\$289-396
2 1974-76	Self-help Development Stage	Production and income increase	Per capita GNP US\$541-802
3 1977-79	Achieving Self-support Stage	Spiritual enlightenment	Per capita GNP US\$1,011-1,647
4 1980-86	Autonomous Development Stage	Government-driven to citizen-led	Per capita GNP US\$1,597-2,568

Figure 1. Historical Development of the *Saemaul Undong*

The Foundation Building Stage was followed by the so-called Self-help Development Stage. Having successfully completed the projects for the improvement of living environment, the villagers were encouraged to take up income-generating projects such as joint farming, common seedbeds, off-season vegetable cultivation, pig raising, pasture development, community forestation, building *Saemaul* factories and common marketing facilities. This stage lasted for three years from 1974, and per capita GNP of the nation increased to US\$802 in 1976.

The third stage of the *Saemaul Undong* focused on spiritual enlightenment of the rural people. As a matter of fact, the spiritual enlightenment program had been started since the beginning of the second stage of the movement. However, the spiritual enlightenment program during this period was aimed at inducing and internalizing the development based on innovative motivation. The program purported to infuse the “can-do” spirit with three components of diligence, self-help, and cooperation. In 1979, the last year of the third period, per capita GNP of the nation reached to US\$1,647.

The final stage of the development of the *Saemaul Undong* began in 1980, just after President Chung-Hee Park was suddenly assassinated by one of his men. Under the administration of the successive government, the *Saemaul Undong*, which was previously under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Home Affairs during the 1970s, was taken over by the government-affiliated private administrative body, the Central Headquarters of *Saemaul Undong*. From then on, the activities of the movement were transferred gradually from the direct control of governmental agencies to the hands of private organization and people. The privatization of the movement did not necessarily mean a complete separation from the government. Rather, it meant a division of labor between the government and the private

sector. It can be said, however, that the vitality of the movement was reduced since the end of the third stage. With the rapid economic development of the nation, per capita GNP reached up to US\$2,568 during this period.

The achievements of the movement in the 1970s and mid-1980s are well documented. However, it is not easy to present them here in a comprehensive form. The following are the major achievements of the *Saemaul Undong*:

First: the movement was successfully undertaken as a self-reform project of the individual in rural communities. Physical and social isolation, distance, localistic perspectives and fatalistic values, attitudes and consciousness on self and the world had been greatly changed so as to be dubbed as “Social Revolution of Korean Rural Society”.

Second: the living environment has been so much improved and changed along with some small-scale production infrastructures.

Third: the income of rural households increased sharply with the introduction of modern agricultural technologies and the internalization of hard-working spirit among the rural people.

BASIC FEATURES OF THE *SAEMAU UNDONG*

The *Saemaul Undong* can be characterized with several features. First, it started without a well-defined formal or theoretical framework. No academicians relating to *Saemaul Undong* were utilized at all. Government officials themselves did plan and implement the *Saemaul Undong* without any support from academicians who might have had useful and related technical knowledge.

Second, the approach of the *Saemaul Undong* is a pure Korean way of community development strategy. The mottoes, slogans, and terminology used for the program are based on the Korean way of thinking.

Third, *Saemaul Undong* was initiated by the political will of the top national leadership as a modernization project of the nation as well as a rural development project. Accordingly, one of the most crucial forms of input into the *Saemaul Undong* was the package of government interventions and support. Government support for the *Saemaul Undong* covers various kinds of services and assistance intended to introduce the system to communities.

Fourth, the most important intention to pursue the *Saemaul Undong* is to escape from poverty. At the time of the inception of this movement, there was a strong need to overcome a seasonal problem of hunger. Each year during the months of April through June many farm households suffered from extreme shortage of food. It was then called “the barley hump”. Because poverty was a fact of life, the initiation of the *Saemaul Undong* meant to challenge the situation. The *Saemaul Undong* as a better-living movement emphasized diversification of income sources of farm households that were largely limited to rice production. As a result, the production of main grains (rice and barley) reached sufficiency by 1975. This was considered an overwhelming achievement of the movement.

Fifth, the *Saemaul Undong* was, in a sense, a movement for spiritual reform of the Korean people, and has achieved a lot in this respect. It has been a success in that it changed people’s attitude from laziness to diligence, from dependence to self-reliance, and from individual selfishness to cooperation with others. The drive toward better cooperation was intended to restore Korea’s old tradition of *Doo-re* (a form of community savings and sharing union), *Poomasie* (a system of farm hand-sharing among neighbors), and *Hyang-yack* (community codes of ethics and cooperation).

ROLE OF GOVERNMENT

The strong support and intervention of the government is considered one of the major reasons for the success of *Saemaul Undong*.

Under the strong leadership of the then President Chung-Hee Park, the central government deliberately prepared a plan for the sequential arrangements of various types of support and assistance over a certain period of time. In addition, most government employees were required to play the role of change agents in the process of executing the *Saemaul Undong*. This contributed to building up a certain period of momentum which ultimately enabled the people to achieve a self-reliant community development.

Government Organization for the *Saemaul Undong*

From 1972, the central government defined the *Saemaul Undong* as a movement for nation building and economic development. It established a formal organization to promote it, charged with the overall planning and coordination of all related activities. The *Saemaul Undong* Central Consultative Council* was organized under the chairmanship of the Minister of Home Affairs with the vice-ministers of all the concerned ministries and agencies as members. Similar organizations were established at each successive level, i.e., province, county, township and village. Also, special *Saemaul* divisions were created in the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the Ministry of Education, every provincial government, and county offices. In addition, the *Saemaul* Leaders Training Institute was inaugurated in 1972 to educate rural villagers. Undoubtedly, the *Saemaul* projects received the highest priority of all the projects of the government.

Organizations at Community Level

There were two types of organization at the local community level through which the people can express their interests and needs. The first type of organization included such gatherings as general meetings and neighborhood meetings in which all members of the village took part. General meetings (one per village) and neighborhood meetings (one per 20-25 families) represented the main groupings of people who wished to be directly involved in the activities of the village.

The second type of organization included such entities as the Council of *Saemaul* Leaders and the Council of *Saemaul* Women's Clubs. These entities provide the framework for an indirect, representative form of involvement in community activities. The ostensible purpose of these organizations was to foster cooperation and support among neighbors through the open exchange of ideas and opinions.

Government Interventions and Support

At the initial stage, the government gave incentives for farmers to improve their own homes such as roofs, kitchens and toilets. The materials required were provided by the government, partly as grants and partly as loans, but the recipients had to carry out the work in accordance with a set standard design. What is required was a people's desire to help themselves.

* This Council was replaced by the Central Headquarters of *Saemaul Undong* in 1980.

When the individual farmer's self-help spirit was cultivated, the government encouraged villagers to take up projects to create infrastructures for increased agricultural production and other projects. These included the construction of small foot bridges leading to the villages, opening up farm roads for motor transport, construction of small-scale irrigation facilities, improvement of running water facilities, village beautification, construction of community halls, and establishment of *Saemaul* credit unions. In addition, *Saemaul* leaders were given a small amount of special allowances and were some tax exemption by the central government. The provision of the necessary materials and funds by the governments lasted at every developmental stage of the *Saemaul Undong*.

CONCLUSION: IMPLICATIONS FOR OTHER COUNTRIES

The *Saemaul Undong* was launched in the early 1970s as a Korean version of rural community development program and approach in an integrated manner. It has been understood internationally as a unique and very successful program and approach. No program of any other developing country has mobilized so much social, administrative and popular support, or brought about such a dramatic impact on community development and national integration as the *Saemaul Undong*. However, with the sudden death of President Chung-Hee Park, who initiated the *Saemaul Undong* project and was the most enthusiastic supporter, it had started to lose its vitality. Although the next President Doo-Whan Chun tried to revive the *Saemaul Undong* by transferring its leadership from the government to private or non-government, the *Saemaul Undong* could not gain a driving force again.

At this point, it is important to identify several lessons from the experience of the *Saemaul Undong* which might serve as meaningful lessons for other countries.

First: One of the factors to be pointed out is the package of government interventions and innovations. Government support for the *Saemaul Undong* covered various kinds of services and assistance intended to introduce the system to communities. Some of them were the development community organizations for greater people's participation, spiritual innovation for a self-help movement, people's motivation and commitment, facilitation of developmental roles of financial and other rural institutions, and nationwide mobilization of resources and support. Strong government interventions and support were a crucial factor for the success of the *Saemaul Undong* in the early stage. However, those also became one reason why movement lost the people's interest in the *Saemaul Undong*, i.e., people came to enjoy a certain level of economic wealth.

Second: A particular attention should be given to the program of spiritual enlightenment which was in line with the human resource development endeavor through training and education. The so-called *Saemaul* education may be considered one of the distinguished and unique features of the *Saemaul Undong* approach. It provided rural residents with not only basic and fundamental spiritual development, but also various technical knowledge and skills related to farming. *Saemaul* education infused rural people with the development motivation and will, leading ultimately to changes in values, attitudes, and behaviors, conducive to active participation in *Saemaul Undong* projects.

The *Saemaul* Leaders Training Institute conducted *Saemaul* education for short-term courses of less than two weeks duration with *Saemaul* Lay Leaders from 1972. The promotion of self-identify, motivation and action-oriented will was cultivated for *Saemaul Undong*. And in the evening after dinners, the trainees had what they learnt from day-time

lectures. The short-term courses even provided an opportunity for the trainees to personally and directly observe what exemplary *Saemaul* villages or communities were doing.

Third: The *Saemaul Undong* has the characteristic of cooperative efforts for joint development and joint progress. It provided a ground for people to look for strong ties with other villagers under the concept of “we”, instead of identifying themselves only as individual self. This attitude spread to the point where people would seek better living together at the community level. Although people’s participation at the initial stage was largely by mobilization and enforcement through administrative channels of the government, it evolved as voluntary action on the part of the people.

For example, after the government encouraged the villagers to work together in the Foundation Building Stage, a much higher degree of cooperation and active participation of all the villagers were possible in carrying out income-generating activities in the Self-help Development Stage.

Fourth: The step-by-step approach is considered one of the major reasons for the success of the *Saemaul Undong*. Many government-sponsored development projects failed in other developing countries, because the villagers were asked to do too much too fast.

Fifth: As mentioned above, the *Saemaul Undong* showed well that government-led development program was very difficult to be transferred to the private or non-government sector. Accordingly, it would be required to balance between government support and private leadership in pursuing community development.

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9. REPUBLIC OF KOREA (2)

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INTRODUCTION

This presentation examines the improvement programs and policies of physical environment to secure a better quality of life in rural Korea. The historical development of rural improvement programs and policies from 1960s to 1990s is discussed briefly, concentrating upon their results and limits. Changes on the conditions and surroundings of agriculture and rural Korea are also examined. New breeds of rural improvement programs and policies, which have emerged recently, responding to these changes, are also presented, together with a few examples of rural villagers' own efforts and attempts at the physical improvement of their villages.

RURAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS AND POLICIES: A BRIEF REVIEW

For each decade, from the 1960s and on, there have been major shifts in underpinning philosophy of, and basic approach to, rural improvement programs and policies in the Republic of Korea. These shifts can be summarized as follows:

Beginning of the Bottom-up Approach, 1960s

A social development specialist or counselor did actually stay at each rural village to train and assist the villagers to identify their immediate problems and to come up with own solutions, encouraging the villagers' participation. This approach signaled the very beginning of the bottom-up approach to rural development and improvements. Actually the lack of financial resources after the Korean War forced the government to adopt this bottom-up approach.

New Village Movement, 1970s

This decade of the 1970s experienced the “*Nongchon Saemaul Undong* (Rural New Village Movement)” that epitomized the bottom-up approach. This well-studied movement emphasized villagers' own initiatives for the improvements in physical environment of rural villages, with a meager support of materials and some financial assistance from the central government. The programs mainly focused on improving rural infrastructure and housing units such as widening and paving rural roads and replacing thatched roof. The New Village Movement infused the rural villagers with high spirit of self-support and self-sufficiency and confidence in their ability and capacity to successfully manage their own affairs.

Beginning of the Top-down Approach, 1980s

Rapidly accelerating rural-urban migration and disparities of the 1960s and 1970s forced the government to rethink its past rural improvement programs and policies and to

refocus their orientation. Facing the possible political and social fall-out, the government took matters in its own hands and started to decide contents and target areas of rural improvement programs and policies. Basically these programs were aimed at modernizing the rural infrastructure and providing basic urban services to rural dwellers. For this, the government adopted an integrated comprehensive approach to rural development and improvements, encompassing geographical areas of both rural villages and urban service centers.

Institutionalization of the Top-down Approach, 1990s

In the 1990s, the Korean Government passed “the Special Law for Agricultural and Rural Development”, which mandates the government to develop and execute rural development plans, rural industrialization and development of rural industrial complexes, and creation of non-agricultural income-earning opportunities and potentials. The 1994 Rural Environment Rearrangement Act mandates the government with rural improvements and rural tourism development. Especially, under the various rural settlement development programs and projects, improvements of physical environment, remodeling and refurbishing of rural housing, expansion of community facilities, and extension of social, cultural, welfare, and possibly, urban services were carried out. The top-down approach to rural development and improvements was finally institutionalized, and by then, rural villagers started to look up to the government for any initiative and support rather than managing their own affairs willingly.

LESSONS FROM PAST RURAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS AND POLICIES

The last four decades of various rural improvement programs and policies have brought substantial improvements into the physical environment of rural villages. But they also have caused serious damage to the natural environment and ecology, village landscapes, and the independent spirit of rural villagers.

Benefits

While close to 40 percent of the rural housing units are still 30 years and older, refurbishing, remodeling and renovation of these units and new construction helped the villagers to enjoy modern conveniences, such as modern kitchen facilities and in-house bathrooms with a flushing toilet. In addition, through extension and expansion programs of infrastructure and basic services, electricity and water supply are extended to 100 percent and 45 percent of urban and rural villages, respectively. Some 44 percent of rural roads are now paved, especially all connector roads leading to villages which are widened.

Damage and Costs

The programs and policies of expanding and improving the infrastructure, physical environment and living conditions have caused serious damage to the natural environment in rural areas. For example, trees were cut down and streams were reclaimed to make room for new roads, and subsequently, forest and wetlands have disappeared. Also, modern conveniences such as flushing toilet and running water, have caused a serious increase in water consumption and pollution. Rural ecology and landscapes were destroyed.

Table 1. Summary of Major Rural Improvement Programs and Policies

	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s
Goal	Education of rural villagers	Basic improvements of physical environment	Integrated rural development	Physical improvements in rural villages
Major programs and policy tools	Local social development movement	“ <i>Nongchon Saemaul Undong</i> (Rural New Village Movement)”	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Development of rural and fishing villages – Development of islands and isolated villages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Rural settlement (habitation zone) development projects – Housing improvement programs – Extension and expansion of rural infrastructure, community facilities, and services
Significance	Villager’s own efforts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Very first government effort at physical improvement of rural villages – Emphasis on villagers’ initiatives 	Transition from unit development approach to area-wide comprehensive, integrated development approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Increase in government budget for rural improvement – Subsequent expansion and diversification of the programs
		Decades of the Bottom-up Approach		Decades of the Top-down Approach
Authority	Rural Development Administration	Ministry of Interior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries – Ministry of Interior 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Ministry of Sericulture and Forestry – Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs – Ministry of Environment

In addition, these programs and projects were carried out in a uniform manner, that is, same standards and design were applied to every village, ignoring distinctive characteristics and landscapes native to each village. Therefore, same styles and types of housing units and community facilities and uniform layout of villages are everywhere. All the wonderful distinctive characteristics and landscapes of each village are wiped out.

The last two decades of the top-down approach, especially, has killed not only the spirit among rural villagers of independence but also their capacity and willingness to manage their own affairs. Instead only dependency has been bred. Villagers have become passive recipients of the government programs and policies rather than active participants in their own affairs and decision-making. They only look up to the central government for even problems and affairs they can manage and resolve.

CHANGING CONDITIONS AND SURROUNDS OF AGRICULTURE AND RURAL VILLAGES

Due to the rapid pace of rural-urban migration and widening rural-urban gap, rural areas have been inflicted with the problems of aging population, depressed income and insurmountable debts. Opening up a market for foreign imports of cereal and other agricultural products under the WTO free trade regime will be a severe blow to the already weak agriculture sector, and will exacerbate the situation now that rural areas are trapped in.

However, there have been winds of change. The people and the government start to expect agriculture and rural villages of multiple roles instead of agriculture and rural villages being food production and living space for farmers only. In effect, rural areas are now expected to be a space for rest and leisure activities, for nature and resource preservation, for education, and for preservation of traditions and traditional values and way of life.

These changes in expectation toward agriculture and rural villages correspond to socio-economic changes. Higher urban income, five-workday a week, and changing lifestyle all have contributed to a change in preferences to, and an increase in demand for, diverse leisure activities. This phenomenon is already well reflected in the increasing popularity of alternative tourism, such as nature tracking, rural tourism, green tourism, and others.

While rural areas still suffer from the problems of aging population, depressed income and insurmountable debts, there is a faint ray of hope with the new emerging rural improvement and programs.

NEWLY EMERGING RURAL IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS AND POLICIES

These changes and new demands require a change in the orientation and approach toward rural improvement programs and policies, transcending the limits and weaknesses of past programs and policies. This new orientation and approach is aimed at reviving the spirit of independence and willingness among rural villagers through the utilization of both human and natural resources of villages.

The newly emerging government rural improvement programs are:

- (1) “Green Village for Tourism” program by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry;
- (2) “*Areum* (Beautiful and Communal) Village” program by the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs;

- (3) “Tourism Development for Fishing Villages” project by the Ministry of Maritime Affairs and Fisheries;
- (4) “Development of Mountain Villages” program by the Korea Forest Service;
- (5) “Theme Village for Traditional Way of Life” project by the Rural Development Administration; and
- (6) “New Rural and Fishing Village” project by the Kang Won province.

In order to be eligible for one of these programs and projects, the villagers must prepare and submit a long-term village development plan for a review, and upon selection, they will receive some fund from the government.

There are some important elements common to all these programs and projects. First, rural villagers themselves, assisted by a battery of specialists in the various fields of rural planning, agriculture, tourism, sociology and others, prepare their own long-term village development plan. It is to revive the spirit of independence among villagers and to renew the capacity and willingness of villagers to manage their own affairs. Secondly, major contents of the programs and projects are not to copy and transplant urban way of life everywhere but to preserve and renew distinctive rural way of life and rural resources – nature, ecology, landscapes, traditions and traditional values native to rural areas and to each village. Finally, the most important objective common to all the programs and projects is higher rural income and living standard for rural villagers, and the most frequently mentioned means to achieve this goal is various types of rural and green tourism.

Newly emerging rural improvement programs and projects are definitely trying to amend and transcend the limits of past programs and policies, emphasizing the revival and renewal of the spirit of independence and capacity to manage own affairs and the preservation of distinctive rural way of life and rural resources.

VILLAGERS’ OWN INITIATIVES AND ATTEMPTS AT RURAL IMPROVEMENTS: LESSONS

There have been a number of ongoing efforts and initiatives of villagers to improve the physical environment of their own villages. Three well-known efforts are briefly reviewed as follows:

Mundang-ri Village

The Mundang-ri¹ village is located at Hong Sung county, Chung Chong Nam province. The village is widely known in Korea for its pioneering role in practicing environmentally sustainable agriculture and organic farming, for its environmentally sustainable physical environment, and for its community spirit.

The villagers recognized the fact that organic farming requires environmentally sound rural lifestyle and settlements and environmentally sustainable villages. Therefore, they developed the “100-Year Mundang-ri Village Development Plan”, and put the plan in motion in order to improve and develop the physical environment of the village. In addition, they also recognized the fact that the practice of environmentally sound agriculture and organic farming and development of environmentally sustainable villages require village-wide

¹ The local term “*ri*” affixed to the names of villages refers to a small administrative unit.

community efforts and cooperation. Some of the farm activities and most village activities are community efforts. Villagers participate in every aspect of decision-making regarding farming and village affairs, and once decisions are made, they donate their labor for the activities. For example, they planned and completed a multipurpose community center, a place for village ceremonies and parties, communal meals, and education of city residents on environmentally sound agriculture and organic farming, utilizing their own labor.

However, all these are not done in a day but rather through the efforts of one heroic villager, Mr. Hyong Ro Chu. In the beginning, there was a strong resistance to his attempts at organic farming. However, from the very beginning, Mr. Chu understood that his individual efforts alone would not amount much, and that environmentally sustainable agriculture and organic farming require village-wide efforts and cooperation. He persisted and continuously persuaded his fellow villagers, especially the elders who were finally moved and persuaded by his persistence. In time, most villagers actively participated in every aspect of village affairs and decision-making.

From this a number of important lessons are learned: a need for leadership; an increase in village income from the sale of organically produced crops; outside interests; support and assistance from the government; and a vision of the future of the village that mobilized the villagers. This year, recognizing the efforts by Mr. Chu and villagers, the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs selected the village for its “*Areum* (Beautiful and Communal) Village” program.

Shin Dae-ri Village

The small Shin Dae-ri village is located at Wha Chon county, Kang Won province. The villagers pushed their own physical improvement program forward, hoping that the village would also be selected for the “New Rural and Fishing Village” project planned and funded by the Kang Won province. At the time, the villagers were already practicing and expanding organic farming method for rice growing and ducks.

In June 2001, the villagers held an event of releasing ducks² into the rice paddy. A private tour company named “Greengeo” circulated this event in advance in the mass media. As a result, about 1,200 city folks participated in this small rural village event.

At the same time, the villagers converted abandoned houses to traditional Korean houses with clay walls and thatched roof, paved the village roads, planted trees, and developed programs for fun, such as ox-drawn cart riding, releasing ducks into rice paddy, and so on. What they gained from this experience is that they can do something important to their lives on their own initiative. They realized high income through rural tourism and direct sales of crops to city residents. Pretty soon, some 283 urban households started to participate in the sale of crops as the villagers continued to send each participating household with the progress report on planting monthly as more and more visitors continued to come. Soon they moved one step further, trying to convert an abandoned school building into a lodge and a produce store for visitors.

From the Shin Dae-ri village experience a number of important lessons are learned: a need for dedicated leadership; an increase in village income from the sale of organically produced crops; outside interests; and support and assistance from the government and the private research and support organization called “Research Group on Eco-villages”. These

² Releasing ducks to feed in rice paddy is widespread in Korea’s rice regions.

major elements in the success story of the Shin Dae-ri village are almost similar to those of the Mun Dang-ri village.

Kyo Dong Village

The Kyo Dong village at Po Cheon county, Kyong Gi province, is a typical “farm stay” village, providing overnight lodging and meals for visitors. The farm stay program grew out of a weekend farm program with overnight stay service that started in 1992. When the program started in 1999, only six households out of a total 30 at the village participated that soon grew in number to 10 households in 2000, and to 23 households in 2001. In the latter year alone more than 2,000 city folks visited for farm stay, and the income generated from the program was varied from US\$750 to US\$3,000, at current exchange rate.

In addition to overnight lodging and meals, visitors can enjoy a program of riding ox-drawn cart, preparing rice cake, and visiting nearby historical sites. The visitors’ reaction to the program was favorable.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Several important aspects of rural improvement programs and policies are emphasized. First, any hint of dependence among villagers upon central and local governments for free handouts must be avoided. Instead community spirit and villagers’ own initiatives and willingness to manage own affairs must be encouraged. Second, in order to infuse villagers with a vision of the future and to mobilize them, there must be a dedicated mobilizer (or a number of them) with a strong leadership. This mobilizer will bring in new ideas, infuse villagers with hope and for a better life, and organize and apply their efforts and hard labor to adopting, expanding and developing improvement programs. Third, there must be a system of outside and government support and assistance in place later. Fourth, in order to generate community cooperation and cohesion, fair sharing of the benefits from any improvement programs must be arranged.

No matter how strong rural improvement programs and policies are, a number of problems such as declining rural population and rapid aging, internal discord, mistrust and conflicts, and lacking entrepreneurship and managerial skills must be overcome by the villagers themselves.

10. MALAYSIA (1)

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Muda Agricultural Development

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INTRODUCTION

Malaysia covers an area of about 329,758 km² consisting of Peninsular Malaysia and the state of Sabah and Sarawak. Peninsular Malaysia consists of 11 states and two Federal Territories. The states are Johor, Kedah, Kelantan, Melaka, Negeri Sembilan, Pahang, Pulau Pinang, Perak, Perlis, Selangor, Terengganu and Federal Territories of Kuala Lumpur and Labuan. In the meanwhile, the state of Sabah consists of five divisions, namely; Tawau, Sandakan, Kudat, West Coast and Interior. Sarawak comprises nine divisions, namely; Kuching, Sri Aman, Sibiu, Miri, Sarikei, Limbang, Kapit, Bintulu and Kota Samarahan. Kuala Lumpur is the capital of Malaysia.

Malaysia lies near the Equator between latitudes 1° and 7° North and longitudes 100° and 119° East. Malaysia is subjected to maritime influence and the interplay of the wind system which originates in the Indian Ocean and South China Sea. The year is generally divided in the South-east and the North-east monsoon seasons. The average daily temperature throughout Malaysia varies between 21°C and 32°C. Humidity is high.

Malaysia is a multiracial country. The principal racial groups are the Malays, followed by the Chinese and Indians. The current total population of Malaysia is about 23 million. The base people of the national culture are Malay culture, which is native to this region. Islamic values are embedded in Malay culture. One of the unique features of Malaysia is its multiracial population that practices various religions such as Islam, Buddhism, Taoism, Hinduism and Christianity. Each ethnic group has its own belief. The Malay language is the national language of the country. However, the people are free to use their mother tongue and other languages. English as the second language is widely used in business.

Malaysia is one of the world's major producers of rubber and oil palm. The main principal subsistence crop is paddy (rice). Rice is Malaysia's main staple food. The yield of paddy has increased with the introduction of irrigation and drainage facilities, especially in the Muda Irrigation Scheme. Beside rubber, oil palm and rice, Malaysia also produces cocoa, pineapple, pepper, coconut and coffee for local consumption and export.

STRUCTURE AND INCIDENCE OF RURAL POVERTY

Development plans in agricultural and rural developments have consistently been assigned high priority in the allocation of public expenditures. In the Second Malaysian Plan of 1971-75, 24.2 percent of the total revised planned expenditure was allocated to agriculture and rural development. In the Third Malaysian Plan of 1976-80, this proportion was 23.6 percent and declined slightly to 19.6 percent under the Fourth Malaysian Plan, 1981-85. This sharp decline in line with the new National Agricultural Policy which tends to give top

priority to land development and settlement both of which are essentially a strategy of expansion and replanting within Malaysia's vast rubber and oil palm plantation sector.

The second major component of agricultural and rural development strategy is associated with the policy objective of achieving rice self-sufficiency. Influenced by the technology of the Green Revolution, expensive drainage and irrigation works have been undertaken, financed by the World Bank, as part of an effort to modernize and commercialize paddy cultivation.

Since 1970, following the adoption of National Economic Policy (NEP) trusteeship strategy, the eradication of rural poverty has become an explicit objective of rural development policy by promoting higher incomes and productivity in agriculture which traditionally has been accompanied by high incidence of poverty.

Normally, the poverty incidence always refers to the plantation sector, while the sector is still the backbone of the economy. The highest incidence of poverty in Malaysia is in the rubber smallholding sector (less than 100 acres). In the mid-term review of Malaysian Plan, the total number of rubber smallholders in 1977 was set at 412,600 of whom 198,000 or 48.1 percent were deemed to be below the poverty line of income.

The second largest concentration of poverty in Malaysia is among the paddy farmers in the rice sector. They live mostly in the rural area, which needs assistance/aid in order for them to get higher income. A quarter of a century of Green Revolution technology, along with heavy infrastructural investments and a wide range of subsidy programs and extension services, have all failed to alter this fact.

Demographically, paddy cultivation is the major source of livelihood for approximately one out of every six farm households. In 1980, there were a total of 151,000 paddy-farming households, compared with 140,000 in 1970. It is a heavily Malay activity, with as many as 95 percent of the paddy farmers being Malay. In 1970 no less than 88.1 percent of the paddy-farming households lived in poverty as explained by the uneconomic size of paddy farms.

Despite these structural constraints, the Malaysian Government's rice policy has been shaped by a target of self-sufficiency within the existing system of land ownership. Large-scale investment in irrigation and drainage works, and subsidy and price supplement programs have been justified on the basis of this policy target. During 1970-80, the self-sufficiency ratio was raised significantly from 78 percent to 92 percent, but in 1983 it had fallen to 77.3 percent and now 65 percent.

THE NEW DEVELOPMENT POLICY

Under the new development policy, the Malaysian Government has set up three Outline Perspective Plans (OPPs) which have their own thrusts. The plans are:

- i. First Outline Perspective Plan (OPP1)
- ii. Second Outline Perspective Plan (OPP2)
- iii. Third Outline Perspective Plan (OPP3)

The OPP1 covering the period 1971-90 where four plans have been implemented starting with the Second Malaysian Plan (1971-75) to the Fifth Malaysian Plan (1986-90). These development plans have been implemented within the framework of the NEP which was introduced by the government to promote growth with equity and the objective of fostering national unity among the various races.

The OPP2 covering the period 1991-2000 was formulated based on a policy, which is called the New Development Policy (NDP). The NDP will build upon the achievements during the OPP1 to accelerate the process of eradicating poverty and restricting society so as to correct social and economic imbalances. It covers the Sixth Malaysian Plan (1991-95) and Seventh Malaysian Plan (1996-2000).

Meanwhile, the OPP3 covers the period 2001 up to 2020. This plan has set up the objective of transforming the economy from being input-driven to one which is premised on productivity and quality. Various strategies were formulated to enhance output and increase competitions so as to sustain a rapid growth in order to become a fully developed nation as envisaged in vision 2020. It involves Eighth Malaysian Plan (2001-05), Ninth Malaysian Plan (2006-10), Tenth Malaysian Plan (2011-15) and the Eleventh Malaysian Plan (2016-20).

RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT AMONG FARMERS' COMMUNITY IN MUDA AREA

The Muda Irrigation Scheme was the single largest rural development project initiated during the First Malaysian Plan (1966-70) located in the states of Kedah and Perlis in Peninsular Malaysia. The project made possible the introduction of double cropping through irrigation projects in approximately 96,558 ha of paddy land which had traditionally been grown as a single crop under rainfed condition.

The objectives of the project are twofold. The first was the introduction of double cropping which would contribute towards national self-sufficiency in rice. The second was to increase income and livelihood of the farm families. The development process within the Muda Scheme was entrusted to the Muda Agricultural Development Authority (MADA) in 1970.

To achieve MADA's objective, MADA has adopted four categories of programs, namely:

1. program for construction, expansion, operation and maintenance of infrastructure;
2. program for training, extension and development of agriculture;
3. program for studies and research to yield technical, economic and social information;
and
4. program for the development and progress of the farm family, farm institutions and local industries.

Physical Infrastructure

The physical infrastructure constructed in the early phases, though, on the whole was successful in achieving its stated objectives, is insufficient to solve all the needs of irrigation, drainage, transportation of farm inputs and output, and the movement of farm machinery. Canal density in the Muda region is only 11.2 m/ha, drainage density of 11.7 m/ha, and farm road density of 8.4 m/ha. In response to these limitations, a long-term program to intensify the physical infrastructure was adopted through a program of construction of a tertiary system of canals, drains and farm roads.

The Muda II project was the first phase of this long-term program of infrastructure construction. Its implementation began in 1979 and involved the construction of tertiary canal, drains and farm roads in 38 irrigation blocks covering a total area of 27,400 ha. The direct beneficiaries of the project were 16,000 farm families. The project will enable canal,

drain and farm road density to be increased to 20.7 m/ha, 18.6 m/ha, and 36.3 m/ha, respectively. This will provide the means for most of the field problems to be solved.

The construction of farm crossings and upgrading of existing farm roads constitute the other major efforts to increase the level of field facilities to facilitate field communication and transportation. Emphasis is also placed on operation and maintenance of these infrastructures to ensure a high level of efficiency in water control and in transportation of farm products.

Training and Extension Program

Training and extension are the bases in bringing about changes in knowledge, attitude and skill. It is required to implement other activities. Training is carried out at the training center and extension at the village level.

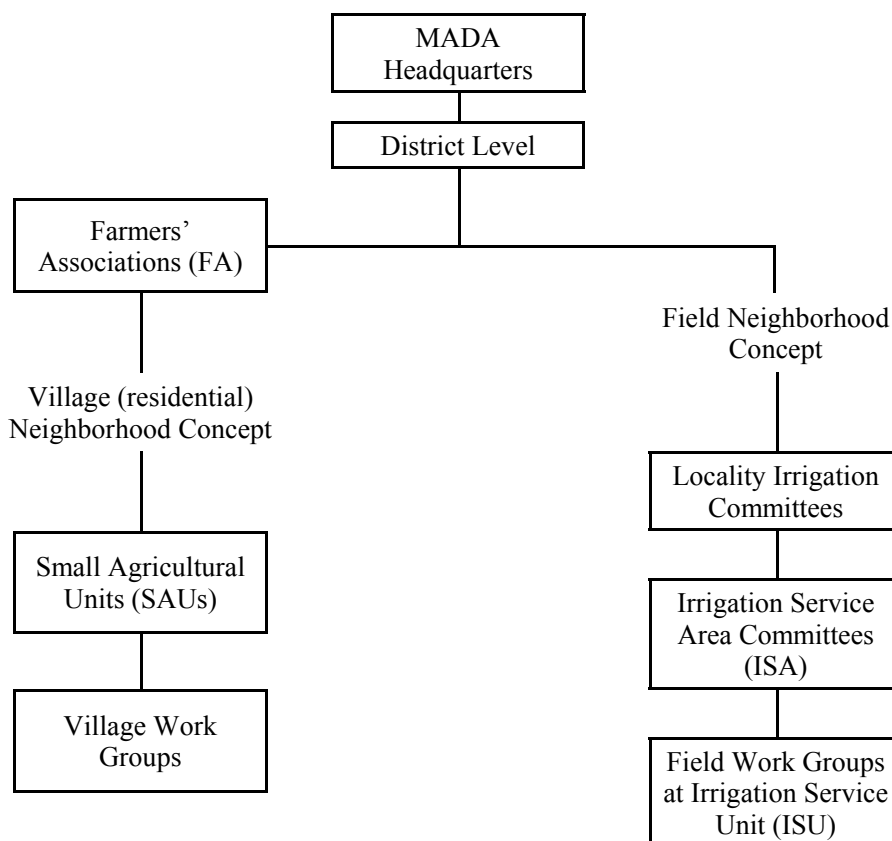


Figure 1. Flow Chart of Extension Program

Training covers the area of leadership training, farmers' organization movements, farm management, paddy technology and other related topics. For the rural womenfolk, specific courses have also been organized for them in the area of home economics, tailoring, food processing and handicraft under the ambit of the Farm Family Development Program.

In addition, special attention has also been given on the youth who form the future modern farmers in the Muda region. On the staff side, courses have continuously been

organized to ensure that they attain a high level of knowledge and skills necessary for their duties.

Extension activities which revolve around the Training and Visit (T&V) system have been implemented focusing on the field units being the small agriculture units, the irrigation service units, the group farming units and the youth groups.

Farmers are encouraged to participate in group farming with emphasis on the spirit of neighborliness and cooperation in the fields. Approximately 221 group farming projects and 160 syndicated group farming projects have been organized to date with a total area of 19,265 ha and participation from 13,577 farmers. Demonstration plots for new paddy varieties and new technologies as well as an integrated pest and disease program are also major activities in the field of agricultural extension and development in the Muda region.

Studies and Research

Studies and research play an important role to assist the Authority to plan effectively for the region. To get all these, MADA obtains the information through a series of pilot projects and also joint research and studies with other agencies.

Cooperative research has been undertaken with other agencies like Japan International Research Center for Agriculture Science (JIRCAS) formerly known as TARC (Tropical Agriculture Research Center), Universiti Pertanian Malaysia and Universiti Sains Malaysia on a wide range of topics, including the rice industry, use of agricultural by-products, performance of farmers' organizations, suitability of farm machinery under local conditions, socio-economic situation of the farm household, and many other topics. Close cooperation is also fostered with Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI) to ensure that research topics undertaken by the agency encompass the needs of the region.

Farmers' Organization Movement

Consolidation of manpower and capital of the farming community into the Farmers' Organization Movement is a major step undertaken to encourage active involvement of farmers in the planning and implementation of development programs. Since the establishment of the first farmers' association in the Muda region at Kubang Sepat on 27 July 1968, the farmers' organization in Muda which now total 27 have achieved outstanding success in both membership, share capital subscription as well as involvement in the local economy. Total membership until September 2001 was 48,736 and the share capital amounts to RM9.07 million while accumulated assets is valued at more than RM67.77 million.

The MADA Farmers' Organization prospered into a strong and established body with the establishment of the *Majlis Perundangan dan Jawatankuasa Penyelaras Pertubuhan Peladang* MADA (the Representative Council of MADA Farmers' Associations). Its venture into the economic field and the successes it enjoyed through the activities of the *Syarikat Perniagaan Peladang* (MADA) Sdn. Bhd. has assured it of a bright future.

In 1963, the *Yayasan Pelajaran Pertubuhan Peladang* MADA (MADA Farmers' Organization Education Foundation) was launched. With this step, the farmers' organization took on a welfare role in the community in addition to its varied activities. This Foundation annually provides scholarship to deserving children of farmers in an effort to assist them in furthering their education.

Output Growth

These investment and technological inputs did indeed, achieve impressive gains in terms of production and yield rates. Total paddy production increased by 52.24 percent since

1969 (before double-crop) up to 2000 and average yield rates improved by 51.64 percent since 1969 to 2000.

Trends in Net Annual Income

There were also significant increases in the average incomes of households in the Muda area. The average income per year has increased from RM1,092 in 1966 to RM9,220 in 1992.

There has been a consistent increase in paddy production since the start of double cropping in the region. Paddy yields which registered a figure of 3.3 mt/ha in 1969 and before, increased to a level above 4 mt/ha in 1973 and onwards.

The high level of production in the region was further boosted since 1979 by the introduction of the Fertilizer Subsidy Scheme, which enabled each farmer to apply appropriate quantities of fertilizer onto his field. An annual quantum of fertilizers worth about RM20 million is provided to farmers in Muda each year under this scheme.

With the doubling of farm production brought about by double cropping and the higher levels of yield enjoyed by farmers, net income has increased. Although yearly incomes fluctuate due to the performances of the crop, net annual incomes per farm family have consistently been above RM3,000. The implementation of the Paddy Subsidy Scheme has helped to stabilize the farm incomes of the farmers.

Incidence of Poverty

The poverty in Muda area was reduced from 72 percent in 1966 to 18 percent in 1992. However, economic growth during 1996-97, coupled with implementation of the Program *Pembangunan Rakyat Termiskin* (PPRT) contributed towards a further reduction in the incidence of hardcore poverty.

The PPRT is a program which emphasizes income-generating projects, including cash crop cultivation, livestock rearing, participation in aquaculture and cottage industries. The program also provided direct welfare assistance, training and improved basic amenities.

RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT

Poverty

In rural areas, the incidence of poverty among Malaysians was reduced from 15.3 percent in 1995 to 10.9 percent in 1997, while the number of poor households declined by about 16 percent from 285,600 to 239,000. About 81 percent of the total poor in 1977 resided in the rural areas compared with 77 percent in 1995 (Table 1).

Income

Household income in the rural areas grew by 13 percent per annum from RM1,307 in 1995 to RM1,699 in 1997.

Health Services

The implementation of preventive and promotive health programs as well as expansion of health facilities was undertaken. The implementation of various programs led to improvement in the health status of the population.

Table 1. Incidence of Poverty and Number of Poor Households, 1995, 1997 and 2000

Item	Unit	1995			1997 ¹			2000		
		Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Malaysian Citizens										
Incidence of poverty	Percent	3.7	15.3	8.9	2.1	10.9	6.1	1.9	9.9	5.5
Number of poor households	Thousand	84.6	285.6	370.2	55.4	239.0	294.4	53.2	222.8	276.0
Incidence of hardcore poverty ²	Percent	0.8	3.7	2.1	0.4	2.5	1.4	0.1	1.0	0.5
Number of hardcore-poor households	Thousand	19.2	69.2	88.4	11.6	55.7	67.3	2.8	22.6	25.4
Total households	Thousand	2,270.3	1,870.3	4,140.6	2,636.4	2,193.1	4,829.5	2,759.7	2,258.0	5,017.7
Overall										
Incidence of poverty	Percent	4.1	16.1	9.6	2.4	11.8	6.8	2.2	10.7	6.0
Number of poor households	Thousand	95.9	321.3	417.2	67.4	278.6	346.0	64.7	259.0	323.7
Incidence of hardcore poverty ²	Percent	0.9	3.7	2.2	0.5	2.4	1.4	0.1	1.0	0.5
Number of hardcore-poor households	Thousand	20.5	73.0	93.5	13.8	56.5	70.3	3.0	24.3	27.3
Total households	Thousand	2,357.0	1,990.8	4,347.8	2,764.3	2,352.8	5,117.1	2,967.5	2,427.9	5,395.4

Notes: ¹ Poverty estimation in 1997 was based on the following poverty line incomes: RM460 per month for a household size of 4.6 in Peninsular Malaysia; RM633 for a household size of 4.9 in Sabah; and RM543 for a household size of 4.8 in Sarawak.

² Hardcore poverty is estimated using half the poverty line income.

CONCLUSION

In the Muda region as well as in other parts of Malaysia, the approaches in promoting rural life improvement set up by the government are well received and are successful. Empirical data show a drastic change in life among the rural/agriculture sector dwellers. Lastly, I would like to say that by attending this seminar, I can render and gain fresh insights and experiences as well as can share the approaches that I know in planning and implementing the rural development projects. Thus, this helps me towards planning several agricultural developments for rural life improvement among farmers in the communities.

11. MALAYSIA (2)

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, many people have talked about and discussed issues related to community and rural development. Such a discussion is taking place both at a higher and lower levels of the society.

One of the elements that has become a main agenda for the discussion is how to help the rural communities to develop, both social and economic conditions of the people in the communities.

In Malaysia, the efforts to help the people in the development of rural communities have taken place since independence in 1957. There are several programs and activities that have been implemented for that purpose. Among them are the Federal Land Development Authority (FELDA) projects, Poverty Eradication Programs (*Program Pembangunan Rakyat Termiskin* or PPRT), Vision Community Movement (GDW), Community Development Programs (KEMAS), Regional Development Authority Programs (Kemubu Agricultural Development Authority [KADA], Muda Agricultural Development Authority [MADA] and JENGKA) and Community-based Human Development Projects (PMAK).

The Government of Malaysia has spent billions and efforts to help the development of the people, especially in rural communities, so that their living condition and standard could be improved together with the development of the country as a whole. Despite the money and efforts that have been spent, the results are still far from target. At present, there are about two million people who are still considered as being poor because their income level is below the poverty line set by the government which is about RM540 a month (US\$216/month) for 5.4 members in a family. What has gone wrong?

Based on the foregoing scenario, the purpose of this paper is to provide possible solutions so that such an incidence would be minimized or even better, could be solved, in the future. The Effective Model for Community and Rural Improvement programs, which was promoted a year ago is believed would be able to help the people in the areas to improve their living quality and standard.

Before any further discussion is made on how the model could improve the living quality of the people in rural communities, it is necessary to understand few basic concepts and elements about community. The basic concepts and elements that have to be understood prior to the discussion on the model are community development, its purposes, and why community development is important.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A wide variety of definitions of community development is available in the literature in the field. It varies from one community to the other. It also varies from one geographical location to the other, yet as in defining what is a community, there are identifiable characteristics which all community developments have in common, whatever the differences which may distinguish one from another.

Ploch (1976) defined community development as the active voluntary involvement of community residents in a process to improve some identifiable aspects of community life. He further added that, normally such action leads to the strengthening of the community's pattern of human and institutional interrelationships.

Hope (1980) viewed community development as a process. According to him, community development involves first and foremost an understanding of the basic social and economic problems of the community. It is a process of social and economic action for solving community problems. It combines the efforts and resources from the government and non-government agencies for effective and purposive change.

Community development is a process available to people of whatever political persuasion, working, and for whatever causes. It can be used alike by people of liberal, conservative or radical ideology. Indeed, community development is even more than a process; it is a movement, a philosophy, a value system, and an orientation. Many people hold the conviction that those at the most fundamental level of social life, the community, are best able to judge what they want and need and that they ought to be considered and included in making the relevant decisions about their lives and properties (Ravitz, 1982). Adding to this definition, Hayes (1981) viewed community development as a process of dynamic change, involving conflict and concerned primarily with changing power relationships.

Sanders (1958) presents community development in four different typologies: (1) process; (2) method; (3) program; and (4) movement. Community development as a process moves by stages from one condition or state to the next. It involves a progression of changes in terms of specific criteria. For example, a change from state where one or two people or a small elite within or without local community make decisions for the rest of the people to the state where people themselves make these decisions about matters of common concern. The emphasis of community development as a process is upon what happens to people, socially and psychologically.

Community development as a method which puts the emphasis on both the process and objectives, is a means to an end; a way of working so that some goal is attained. Sanders suggests that those who subscribe to community development as a method applies centrally advised programs which are inevitably less attentive to the needs of each community than may be desirable, especially if one is to subscribe to the ethos of community self-determination.

A program is the third view of how Sanders defines community development. Community development as a program is stated as a set of procedures and the content as a list of activities. By carrying out the procedures, the activities are supposedly accomplished. It is as a program that community development comes into contact with subject-matter specialties such as health, welfare, agriculture, industry and recreation. Community development as a program emphasizes on the activities.

The final typology of community development illustrated by Sanders is viewed as a movement. According to him, community development is a crusade, a course to which

people become committed. It is not neutral, but carries an emotional charge: one is either for it or against it. It is dedicated to progress, as a philosophic and not a scientific concept, since progress must be viewed with reference to values and goals which differ under different political and social system.

Community development as a movement tends to become institutionalized, building up its own organizational structures, accepted procedures, and professional practitioners. It stresses and promotes the idea of community development as interpreted by its devotees.

The Community Development Academy (CDA) (1997) in its definition of community development stressed the involvement of all parties in the projects. This would include the government, community developers, and the people in the communities. According to this view, community development is the purposeful effort by community people to learn and work together to guide the future development of their communities making full use of their own resources as well as external resources. This Academy further illustrated the importance of community development.

Based on several definitions above, we could conclude that community development is a purposeful effort by community people to learn and work together to guide the future development of their communities making full use of their own resources as well as external resources.

The Purpose of Community Development

Like the definition of community development, its purpose depends on the places and the time it is used. In general, however, the main purpose of a community development is to improve the quality of life of the community residents.

Community development also helps people to improve their social and economic situations. It helps to provide a better framework for the people in the community to work together with a sense of shared mission, clearer roles and responsibilities, and a holistic understanding of community development (Community Development Agenda, 1998). Community development is also helping to develop the capacity on the part of local people to take control of their lives, to bring about equity, and to anticipate future problems (Hayes, 1981).

A more comprehensive purpose of community development is explained by Christenson, Fendley, and Robinson, Jr. (1989). According to them, the primary purpose of community development is to help people improve their social and economic situation. The underlying philosophy is to help people become subjects instead of objects, acting on their situation instead of simply reacting to it. Community development focuses on the humanistic elements involved in change and how such change contributes to social and economic well-being.

Why Is Community Development Important?

There are two basic reasons why community development is important in today's world. These are:

1. community development provides a systematic framework for all development efforts; and
2. community development is necessary for long-term success in today's world.

This is because community development umbrellas several aspects of activities that are related to people such as education, health care, housing, leadership development and so on. Figure 1 illustrates in detail some of the elements that come under the umbrella of community development.

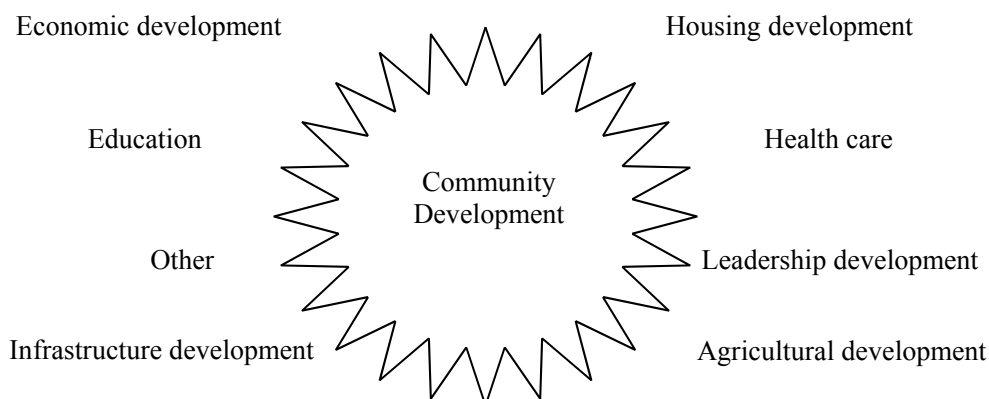


Figure 1. Activities Covered under Community Development

Source: CDA, 1997.

COMMUNITY AND RURAL IMPROVEMENT

Today in many parts of the world, both the developed and less developed countries, community development approach is widely used as one of the main tools to improve and increase the quality of life of many people, especially those who are poor and live in the rural areas. This is done in several different ways or strategies, depending on the objectives and goals that each community is trying to achieve.

There is no standard strategy and meaning that can be used by all the countries to achieve such goals. In Thailand, for example, community development is used in family institutions, community economic development activities, and in natural resources and environmental management activities, to help its people to improve their living standard and quality (Community Development Department [CDD], 2000).

In Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and India, community development through its micro-credit is used to increase the income levels and the living condition of their people. In Malaysia, community development projects, such as PMAK, Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM), and estate farming are used for similar goals. There are many other countries that have similar stories of how community development approach has successfully managed to improve and increase the living quality and standard of the people, especially those who live in rural areas.

However, despite the tremendous efforts and money that have been allocated for that program, the results are not encouraging enough, compared to the amount of money and efforts that have been invested. The question now is what has gone wrong? What can be done to this matter? It is hoped that the model for community and rural development could help us to answer such questions and finally would be able to provide possible solutions to the problems.

A Model for Community Development and Rural Improvement Programs

The Community Development and Rural Improvement Model has been developed after taking several elements and criteria of community development into consideration. This Model has been developed mainly based on results and outcomes of several discussions and presentations from previous APO Community Development Seminars and Study Missions, such as the following:

1. Seminar on Rural Infrastructure Development in Tehran, Iran;
2. A Study Mission on Integrated Community Development, Republic of China;
3. Seminar on Effective Decentralization for Community Development, Sri Lanka;
4. Seminar on Micro-credit in Community Development, Bangladesh;
5. Seminar on Training Course on Facilitation for Community Development, Jakarta, Indonesia;
6. Seminar for Heads of National Training Institute for Integrated Community Development, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia; and
7. Working Party Meeting on Application of Productivity Concepts and Tools for Community Development, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

In addition, information that has been gathered from several community development researches and readings would also contribute to the development of this Model.

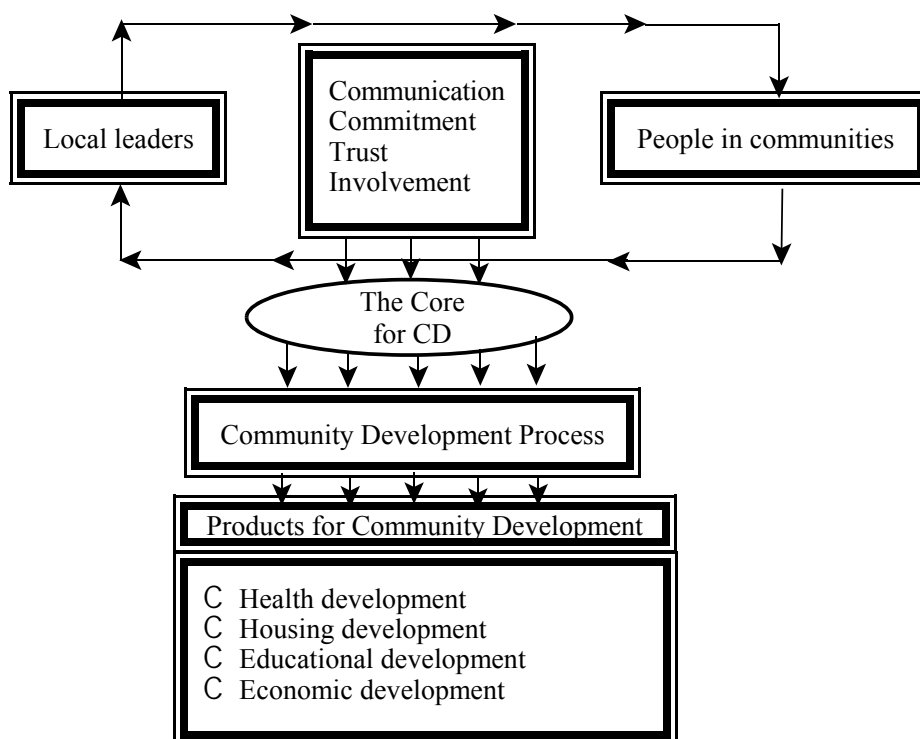


Figure 2. Model for Community Development and Rural Improvement

Source: Sabran, 2001.

The Community Development and Rural Improvement Model consists of five major elements. These are:

- a. community leaders;
- b. local community;
- c. the core of community development;
- d. the community development process; and
- e. community development products.

Each of these compartments are connected to each other. The success in one part will determine a success in the next part. Similarly, a failure in one part will produce a similar failure in another part.

COMMUNITY LEADERS AND LOCAL COMMUNITY

Campbell (1997) defined leadership as the actions of ordinary people to achieve a common goal. In that process, a leader performs a variety of tasks that influence, motivate and facilitate others to work together to reach the desired goal(s). Leaders are important for community development projects because they help the community to organize their community representatives who will continuously response to any community needs (Karam and Killacky, 1993: 112). Leaders are also important for facilitating the natural processes whereby individuals in groups and communities share meanings as a basis for developing both trust and necessary personal commitment (Sorensen and Pfau, 1976: 122).

The CDA has illustrated that a community leader could be defined in three different ways: (1) positional; (2) functional; and (3) influence behind the scene (CDA, 1997). Positional leaders are those who have been appointed to hold certain position in the community, such as the head of the community, the head of the religion, or the head of the culture. This position may be appointed either by the communities themselves or by the government of the country.

Functional leaders are those who are recognized as leaders based on what they are involved in. The economic leader and the social leader are two of the examples. This is because there are some people who are good in certain activity and they tend to become a leader in that particular activity only. Once the activity is ended, they are no longer considered as a leader in the community.

Leaders who are based on the influence behind the scene is based on the assumption that the reputational approach recognizes the potential and likelihood of affecting issues, activities, or decisions as a measurement of leadership. It also assumes that leadership participants are aware of other participants and will acknowledge them as leaders (Spiekerman, 1968). CDA further illustrated that leadership does not mean giving direction or guidance to an inclusive process. It should be inclusive together with the communities. This is what CAD refers to as “web of inclusion” (1997).

To be a successful leader, today’s leadership should recognize three critical pieces: (1) expectations of people, groups, institutions, and communities; (2) perceptions of what is possible for the leaders themselves and others; and (3) concepts and skills of leadership. Among the criteria that can help leaders to achieve the first critical pieces are to create shared vision and a healthy learning environment. Be consistent and organize the work to be done are some of the criteria that can help the leaders to accomplish the second critical pieces of

being successful leaders. Helping people participate, provide opportunities for development, and foster open communication and fairness are some of the characteristics of the concepts and skills of leadership (CAD, 1997).

Local community is the people who live in the community. They are the people who are concerned with what is going on in their communities. This will include both the permanent and temporary residents in the communities.

Both community leaders and local communities have to communicate to each other. They must have a two-way communication between these two groups. Both groups must communicate effectively to one another. In order to achieve effective communication, both groups must include the following elements in their communication process. These are:

1. commitment from both sides to work for the benefit of the whole community.
2. both groups must trust each other. Negative perception to one another should be avoided.
3. every single people from both groups must get involved in the communication process. Nobody is excluded.
4. the success of the communication process must be shared by every member of the community.

Once a consensus is reached successfully between the leaders and people from the communities, then they can move to the next stage of the model, i.e., the core of community development.

The Core of Community Development

The main task of this stage is to ensure both leaders and the people in the communities are ready, mentally and socially, to accept and implement any type of project that they have agreed on. At this stage both groups are given several motivational talks and awareness about the main element that they need to have and aware to ensure success of the project. Four of the elements which are the core of the community development are values and beliefs, assumptions, community development principles, and principles of good practice (Figure 3).

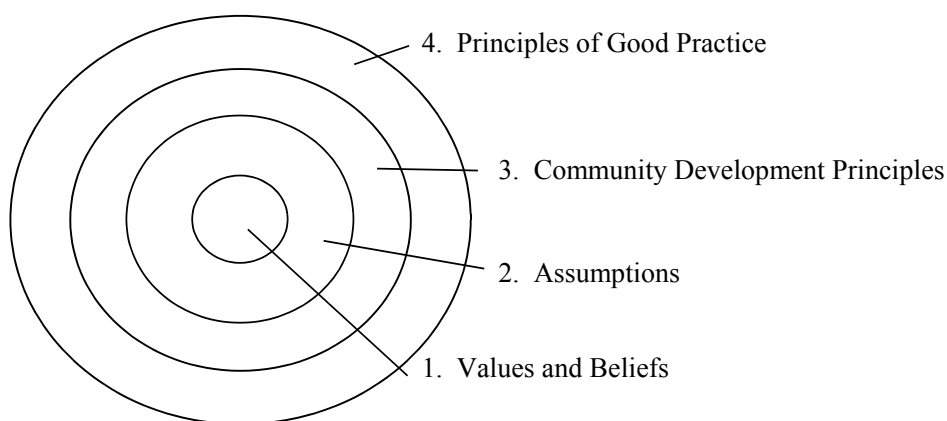


Figure 3. The Core of Community Development

Each of these core has several other elements. All of the elements for each core are illustrated in Figures 4 to 7.

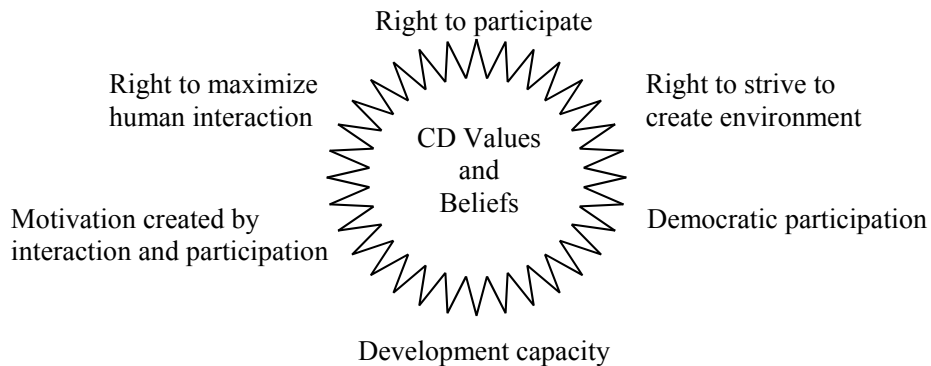


Figure 4. Values and Beliefs of the Core Community Development

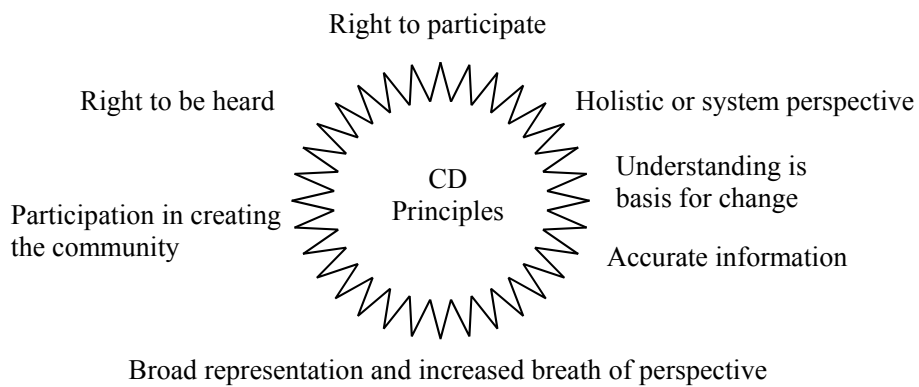


Figure 5. Principles of the Core Community Development

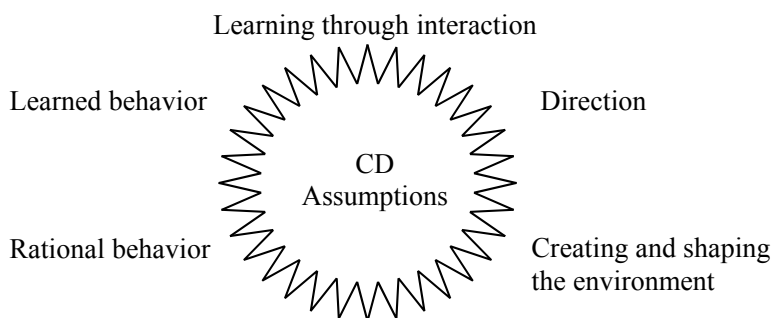


Figure 6. Assumptions of the Core Community Development

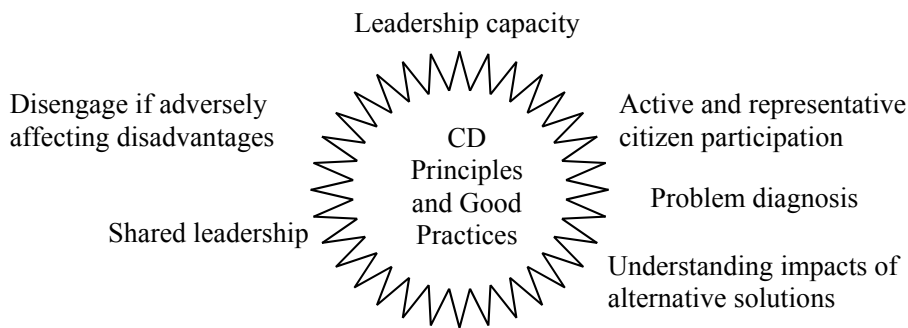


Figure 7. Principles and Good Practice of the Core Community Development

After the completion of the above stage successfully, both the leaders and local communities are ready to the next stage of the Model; the Community Development Process.

Community Development Process

Community development process is a stage wherein the actual implementation of the community development process occurred. This is because at this stage, both community leaders and the people in the communities have a chance to implement and exercise what they have learned from the earlier two stages. Therefore, this stage is considered as the core of the Community Development and Rural Improvement Model.

According to Okafor (1982) there are at least five different steps of community development process.

1. *Building a General Awareness for the Community*

The purpose of this stage is to convince the people in the communities that in addition to the government and its functionaries providing some of the needs of the communities, the communities themselves can initiate their own development programs. Since the priorities of the community development may differ from those of the government or any other external change agencies, the people should be made aware of such divergences in priorities and the need to develop their own communities with their own efforts.

2. *Systematic Analysis of the Community Problems*

Obviously, not all the community problems will be solved at the same time by the same method. Efforts should be made to identify priority problems and relate them to the resources available for meeting them head on.

3. *Training the Project Leaders*

The purpose of this process is to ensure that the selected leaders would be able to execute the projects. Successful execution of most of the community development projects in most of the communities depends on who the organizers are and who the leaders are. In this process of the project execution, project leaders should be democratically elected. Many projects have failed simply because project leaders have been thrust upon the community. Such leaders are denied cooperation which is vital to the success of the community development projects which usually succeed when they are based on the broadest sense of participatory democracy.

4. **People Involvement**

The main purpose of this stage is to make the people in the community realize that their involvement is significant to the success of the projects. It is also helping them to see the need for the consistent support to the projects.

5. **Building Solidarity and Network Support Groups**

Through open public meetings, workshops, etc., leaders of the community development projects should seek ways and means of building support for the projects being handled. Support from the government should also be sought and if necessary lobbied for.

Another similar explanation of community development process is given by Fischer (1989). The process begins with the assessing needs of the community, establishing goals, determining objectives, considering alternatives and deciding on a course of action, implementing action, and documenting and evaluating. All of this process are connected to each other in circle, meaning that the process can go back and forth depending on the scenario that the community is dealing with. The process of community development as explained by Fischer is illustrated in Figure 8.

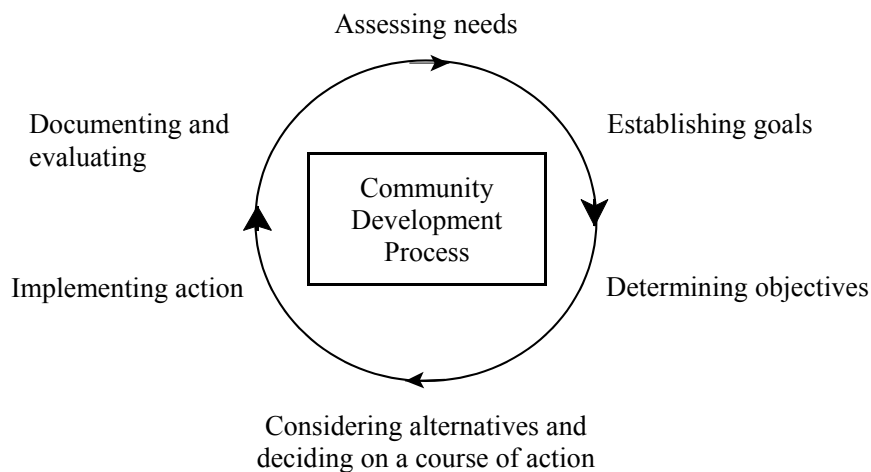


Figure 8. Community Development Process

Source: Fisher, 1989.

It is hoped that once the local leaders and the people in the community have successfully gone through all the previous stages, they could then produce very successful outcomes, depending on the type of activities and projects that they are working on. If the project is about housing, the communities would see improvement in housing, and if they are working on education, they would see some improvement in education. All of these results then would help not only to improve their living standard but at the same time improving the productivity of the communities.

Some of the examples that could be improved by using the model introduced above are community health care, economic development, infrastructures and agricultural development. The successful result at this stage, however, is determined by the success achieved in the previous stages. If the success is not achieved earlier, then it is difficult to ensure success at

the later stage. If this occurs, the increases in quality of life and productivity of the community involved may not be accomplished.

CONCLUSION

Community development which is a well-known approach to help the poor, has proven as a very essential tool to improve the living condition and quality of lives of the people involved. The Community Development and Rural Improvement Model that has been presented earlier has shown and explained how community development approach is employed to accomplish the goal.

The Community Development and Rural Improvement Model which consists of five major elements or stages, was formulated based on the information and knowledge that was gathered from the previous APO Community Development Seminars and Workshops, community development researches and several readings on community development books and articles.

In order to accomplish and experience some improvements and increases in living condition, success must be achieved at every level. The failure at any particular level would result a failure at the ensuing stage. Thus, it is very important to ensure success at any level in this model. Otherwise, the goal to accomplish increases in living condition and quality among the people involved might be difficult.

It is hoped that, the Model that could help the people involved to improve their living condition and living standard. Once these two elements are accomplished the objective to reduce the problem of poverty in any country would be possible to be minimized.

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12. MONGOLIA

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INTRODUCTION

Mongolia occupies a total land area of 1,567 million km² and has an average annual temperature of -1.6°C. The country has a continental dry and cold climate. The annual rainfall varies between 50 mm and 350 mm. The land primarily consists of gently rolling grassland. The population in 2001 was approximate 2.5 million. The population density is the lowest at 1.2 persons/km².

As demonstrated by their traditional nomadic lifestyle in the middle of harsh natural conditions, the Mongolian people are able to adapt to their natural surroundings. Their educational level is high, they willingly help each other in difficult circumstances. The country receives overseas aid equivalent to more than 40 percent of its GDP. These factors mean that Mongolia will have no “difficulty completing the transition to a market economy and overcoming the problems obstructing and accompanying this process.

STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT POLICIES

Since February 1991, when Mongolia joined the ADB, IMF, and World Bank, many nations and international organizations have provided a growing assistance based on structural adjustment policies established in agreement with the government. Table 1 shows those adjustment policies and trends.

The transition to a market economy has been followed by an extremely severe economic slump, seriously affecting the daily lives of the people. The policies consists of reducing unemployment and relieving poverty. In order to achieve these goals, the national government has put top priority on stimulating productivity, improving the production infrastructure, and encouraging investments.

However, the effects of this transition will be felt in all areas of Mongolian society and its economic life, creating conditions which cannot be overlooked.

Industrial Structure and Trade

Under the COMECON (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance) system of industrial classification, Mongolia was classified as a supplier of raw materials and a primary processing country. Since the transition to a market economy, Mongolia's industrial structure has remained overwhelmingly dependent upon agriculture and related industries and mining. Its dependency on agriculture has actually increased. However, the scale of its overall trade has been more than halved, and its CIS dependency rate has dropped from between 70 percent and 80 percent to between 50 percent and 60 percent.

Table 1. Principal Policy Trends

Principal Policy	Year Commenced	Content and Status of Policies
Privatization	May 1991	Some 88 percent complete in terms of asset values at the end of 1993, with the privatization of large corporations and irrigation facilities.
Price liberalization	January 1983	Liberalization largely realized through the complete abolition of the distribution system in August 1983.
Liberalization of exchange rates	July 1993	Abandonment of the rouble-linked system, and a switch to fluctuating exchange rates in May 1993.
Establishment of a legal environment	March 1992	A new foreign investment law, etc. and a new constitution in 1992, the process of establishing a full legal system is still in process.
Trade liberalization	1991	Participation of the private sector and liberalization by partially eliminating export bans and the restricted products list.
Financial system	August 1990	Participation of private banks, control of the money supply and interest rate manipulation.

Most of Mongolia's exports consist of raw materials or agricultural products, which have undergone primary processing, and copper and molybdenum ore. Imported goods, on the other hand, primarily consist of petroleum products, machinery, fertilizer, building and construction materials, and other industrial goods totaling 80 percent with the remaining 20 percent consisting of consumer goods. The reduction in the total volume of trade was a result of a fall in agricultural production, and the direct effects of a slump in other industrial activities.

CHANGES IN FARM MANAGEMENT

Prior to the transition to a market economy, there was a total of 360 state farms producing grains or feed or operating intensive animal husbandry operations, as well as nomadic herding groups called *negdel* (some kind of cooperatives), and their associations and associated factories. As of September 1994, these units had been broken up into 400 agricultural cooperations, many individual nomadic herding families and small vegetable farms. About 70 of the old state farms have been split up into 270 corporate farms or limited companies and other corporate bodies. Many of the irrigation facilities, state farm facilities, storage and processing facilities and other large-scale facilities held by the government were sold.

Agricultural Management since the Transition

The following problems, along with a shortage of materials and funds, have disrupted farm management of corporate farms:

- 1) Inappropriate resources and management because of uneven division of assets of the pre-transition farms;

- 2) Sloppy asset management and the intrusion of the government because of the continued existence of government-owned agricultural property;
- 3) Delays in improving management methods because of the change in the form of agriculture;
- 4) Reluctance of investors to invest because of uncertainty over ownership of land and assets; and
- 5) Weakened management because of the appearance of minor shareholders.

The number of animals reared by nomadic herders has dropped because of the privatization of animal husbandry. The collection and shipping of agricultural products, miscellaneous services, and the provision of information formerly handled by the *negdel* are no longer provided.

AGRICULTURE AND RELATED INDUSTRIES

The decline in agriculture is an important factor leading to adverse macroscopic effects. The transition to a market economy has resulted in an abrupt decline in agricultural production, deterioration of agricultural management, and a decline in related processing industries and the distribution industry. There are closely interdependent fields, and when one deteriorates it affects the others, which adversely affect it in turn.

An escape from this vicious circle requires not only internal improvements to agriculture, but also well-balanced improvements in related external factors. Improvement in agriculture and related industries will not only improve these industries themselves, but will bring big improvements in the rural social and economic life as well as the socio-economic situation of Mongolia on the whole.

FACTORS OBSTRUCTING AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

With the exception of the long-established animal husbandry which mainly consists of traditional nomadic stock-raising, the productivity of cultivators and modern fixed animal husbandry, which was at the embryonic stage of development both declined sharply.

1. *Factors Caused by the Transition Process*

The major causes contributing to the problems described above include declining financial resources of the national and regional governments, elimination of subsidies, lack of clear direction at organizations responsible for the administration and support of agriculture, lack of a financial system, high interest policies, reduction of the money supply, and the collapse of organizations to help producers.

2. *Shortage of Human and Knowledge Resources*

A number of human resources-related challenges are also facing the country. These include such things as shortage of personnel able to deal with a market economy, slow development of high productivity technology, shortage of management know-how and other knowledge resources, lack of organizations involved in the training of personnel and the development of technology needed to overcome these problems, and lack of funding for such organizations.

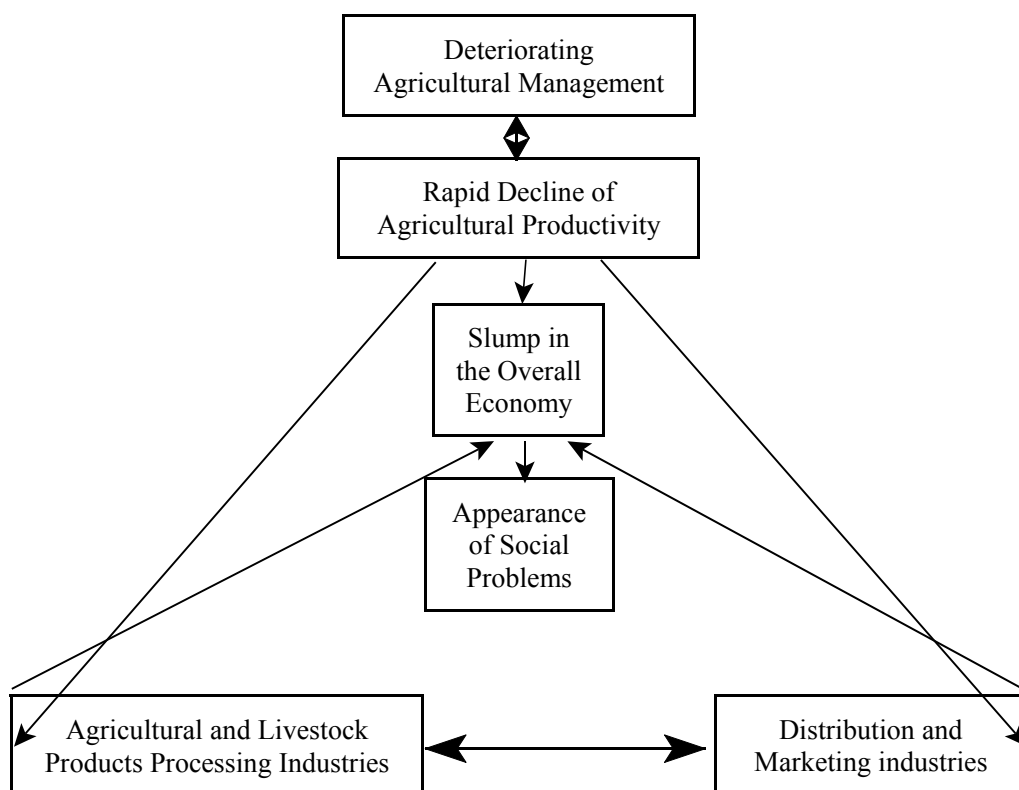


Figure 1. Current Schematic Diagram of Agriculture and Overall Economy

3. *Shortage of Material Resources*

Problems in the area of material resources include a shortage of seeds, fertilizers, fuel, etc. and other input materials because of a shortage of foreign currency and collapse of distribution systems, soaring prices for such input materials, deterioration of machinery and facilities, shortage of spare parts, and the like.

4. *Related Fields: Insufficient Resources and Vulnerability*

Other related areas requiring attention include chaos in the transportation system, soaring transportation costs, falling demand for resources, delays in payments for soaring resources as a result of the weakness of related industries, deterioration of roads, energy, communication, information gathering and dissemination services, and various other aspects of the social and economic infrastructure.

These problems are obstructing the development of agriculture. At the same time they restrict development. Other unchangeable factors such as the cold climate, shortage of rainfall, and other natural conditions, along with the extremely low population density characteristic of this country, reduce the possibility of expanding agriculture by, for example, restricting the choice of crops and the farmers' ability to increase unit yields. These factors also hamper development by limiting the effectiveness of development investments.

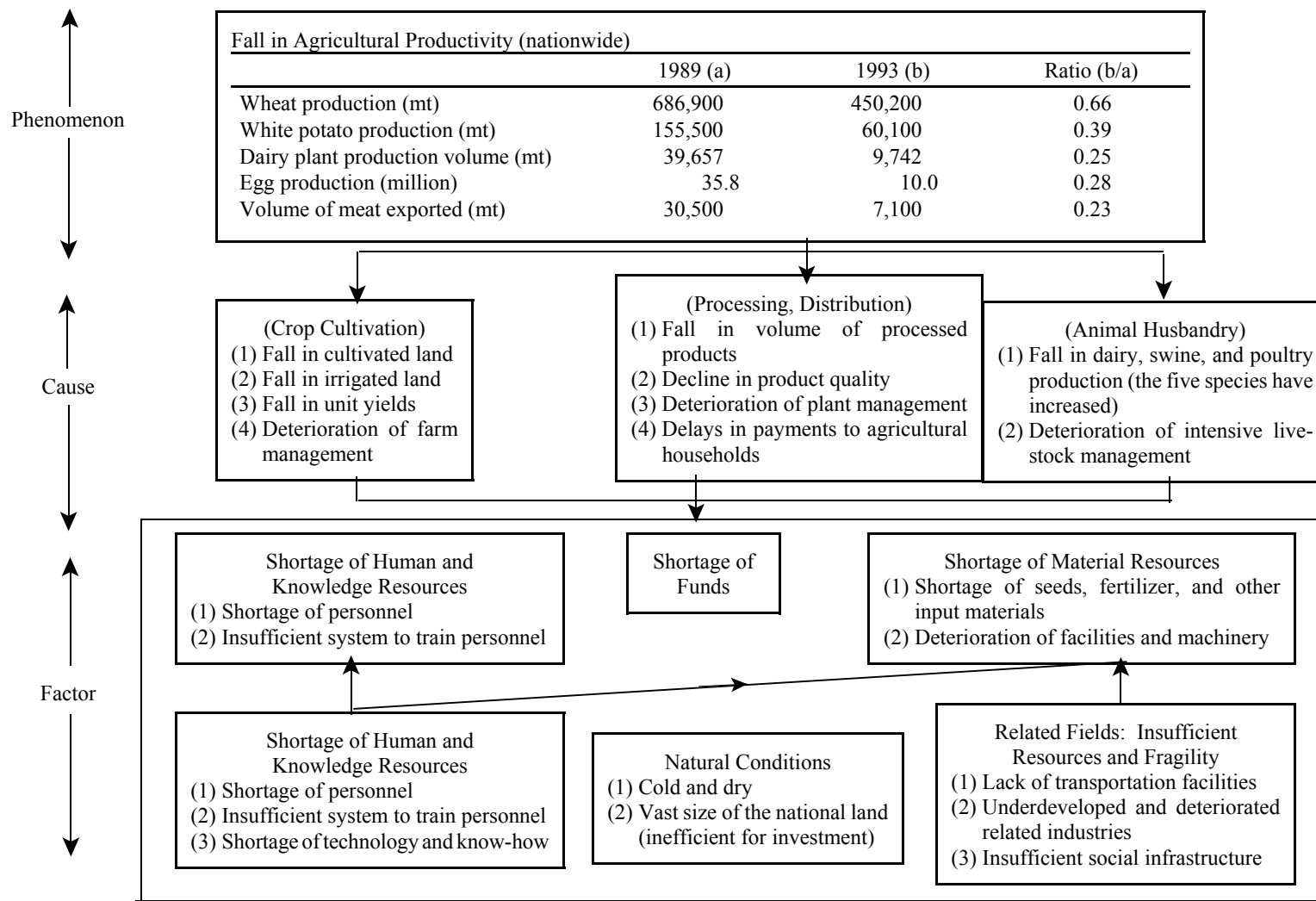


Figure 2. Factors Obstructing the Development and Expansion of Agriculture

COMPREHENSIVE AGRICULTURE AND AGRICULTURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PLAN

Development Objectives and Basic Guidelines

An analysis of the factors causing social and economic stagnation and deterioration in present-day Mongolia reveals that many external and internal factors related in complex ways are contributing to the challenges being faced by the country. In order to find methods and strategies that best address these problems, it will be necessary to implement an approach that looks at the issues from many angles: not simply that of the agriculture sector.

The preceding section outlined the factors obstructing the development and growth of agriculture and agricultural communities. Ultimately many of these problems are systematic and are socio-economic infrastructure problems caused by the introduction of a market economy. They cannot be resolved by internal measures to achieve overall development of agriculture and agricultural communities alone. The purpose of this Plan, therefore, is to present a coordinated strategy to effectively address these challenges.

Consequently, this Plan will focus on internal factors related to agriculture and agricultural communities that can be dealt with subjectively (personnel, knowledge resources and physical resources). Of course, agriculture is the core of this country's productive economy, and the goals of this plan will make a contribution to the resolution of the key social and economic problems now afflicting Mongolia.

Development Plan Goals

1. *Target Year*

The target year for the achievement of the goals in the Plan is set at year 2010 because, given the present conditions in Mongolia, it will take a relatively long time for the effects of regional development to appear and become firmly established. Further, the target year for the country's structural adjustment policy is also 2010, and the National Development Agency is currently in the process of enacting a National Development Plan to achieve this target.

2. *Development Goals*

Development goals under the Plan are aimed at achieving the following aims:

- 1) Guarantee the nutritional level of the people and boost the country's self-sufficiency in foodstuffs by increasing agricultural production and improving productivity;
- 2) Improve agricultural household incomes and correct the imbalance in cultural amenities and incomes between the city and agricultural communities, relieve poverty, and reduce unemployment rates; and
- 3) Strengthen the productivity of farm products needed to replace imports, and stimulate exports of animal husbandry products.

3. *Foodstuff Supply Goals*

The primary goal in foodstuff supply is to provide enough food to guarantee balanced nutrition by raising the energy intake per adult from the 1993 level of 1,962 kcal/day to 3,200 kcal/day, which is the nutritional standard set for the population by the year 2010.

Table 2. Targeted Production and Demand of Staple Foods

Item	Unit	Consumption in 1989 (State)	Targets in 2010				
			Demand		Production		
			State	Study Area (a)	State (Assumption)	Study Area (b)	Balance (b) - (a)
Population	Thousand	2,100	3,000	1,500 (50.0)			
Meat and meat products	Thousand mt	197	255	115 (45.1)	273 (107.1)	73 (26.7)	-42 (63.5)
Milk and milk products	Thousand mt	497	762	321 (42.1)	822 (107.9)	264 (32.1)	-57 (82.2)
Wheat	Thousand mt	496	695	446 (64.2)	732 (105.3)	483 (66.0)	37 (108.3)
Flour	Thousand mt	221	314	156 (49.7)	192 (61.1)	179 (93.2)	23 (114.7)
Vegetable	Thousand mt	45	191	98 (51.3)	192 (100.5)	122 (63.5)	24 (124.5)
Sugar	Thousand mt	50	72	37 (51.4)	19 (26.4)	19 (100.0)	-18 (51.4)
Calories required	Kcal/day	2,600	3,200	3,200			

Note: Figures in parentheses are percent.

DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES, BY REGION AND CATEGORY

Basic Development Strategy

The basic development strategy seeks to increase agricultural productivity maximizing the potential of each region, and stimulate local industries that depend on the ingenuity of people in outlying regions.

Development Strategies by Category

An outline of the development strategies by category to be pursued is presented below:

1. *Crop Growing Category*

Stimulate crop growing, particularly in Selenge and Tov *aimags* and northern Ovorhangai *aimag* where large tract of land is used for crop growing.

- a) Stimulation of irrigated intensive agriculture – Establish vegetable and fruit growing production centers, including hothouse cultivation close to the large cities of Ulaanbaatar, Darkhan, etc.
- b) Stimulation of irrigated industrial crops farming – Provide a domestic production system for sugar and vegetable oil in irrigated regions in Selenge and Tov *aimags* and northern Ovorhangai *aimag*.
- c) In all crop-growing regions except for irrigated areas – Improve and expand their role as stable food supply centers supplying grains, white potatoes, feed, green manure crops etc., and as animal husbandry feed supply centers.

2. *Animal Husbandry*

The Plan deals separately with traditional nomadic herding on grasslands and intensive animal husbandry.

- a) Stimulation of intensive animal husbandry – To increase the supply of milk, eggs, and other animal husbandry products, stimulate dairy, swine, poultry, and other forms of intensive animal husbandry close to both the large and core regional cities such as Ulaanbaatar, Darkhan, Erdenet, Arvaikheer, and other cities.
- b) Traditional nomadic herding – Establish a sustainable system for animal reproduction and increase productivity, particularly in the central and southern parts of Bulgan and Ovorhangai *aimags*.

3. *Environmental Considerations*

Attention needs to be given to the following environmental matters:

- a) Preservation of natural environment conservation areas and restriction of new farm development;
- b) Development of irrigation facilities taking into account the preservation of marine plant and animal life and the provision of water for the regional inhabitants;
- c) Agricultural land preservation and the planting of windbreak groves as practices to improve farming; and
- d) Measures to process animal waste produced at dairy, swine, and poultry farms and the effective use of this material as organic resource.

4. *Land Use Plans*

Land use plans are to be developed taking the national land policy of the Mongolian Government into careful consideration. This policy sets forth land regulations that reflect urbanization and industrial land trends while at the same time help to preserve the natural environment. The proposed land use plans aim at achieving required levels of agricultural

and animal husbandry production by the target year a sufficient amount of agricultural land within the context of national land policy.

IMPROVEMENT OF GOVERNMENT FINANCIAL SYSTEMS

A number of studies have been performed and proposals offered from various points of view by donor countries and international organizations regarding the government financial systems to be introduced after the transition to a market economy. This section presents the results of a summary of the principal systemic improvements that have been proposed.

Principal Improvement Proposals

1. *Reform of the Ministry of Finance (MOF)*

A reform of the organization of MOF in line with its basic purpose, namely; to contribute to the independence of agricultural families and companies by nurturing the willingness of individual agriculturists to improve their farming practices. This will be done through the dissemination of information and advice, elimination of impediments, and by providing the best possible income and benefits.

2. *Related Agencies*

Agencies involved in the improvement of seed and domestic livestock, etc. will establish commercially-based operations in preparation for future privatization. Responsibility for overseeing the operations of government-owned companies will be transferred to the MOF, responsibility for the development and promotion of agricultural products to the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MOTI), and responsibility for the management of stocks of food and feed for emergency use to the MOF and other ministries.

3. *Land Policies*

Responsibility for administrative matters related to the use and rental of land under the National Land Law, including responsibility for its implementation at the regional government level, will be shifted to the Ministry of Nature and the Environment (MONE).

4. *Social Development in Agricultural Communities*

Responsibility to implement policies in this area in conformity with national policy will be given to the regions by concerned central government bureaus. Responsibility should only be vested in the MOF in the case of policies involving agricultural productivity or market activities. Agricultural community development will be coordinated by establishing cooperative organizations or management groups at the regional or *aimag* levels.

In order to establish a stable market economy, it is necessary that, in addition to widely applied policies and methods for achieving structural adjustment, unique policies and methods which consider the special characteristics of Mongolia be established. Excessive reduction in the scale of government or restrictions on investment would hamper economic growth. In addition, all new systems must account for the national character of the people of Mongolia, including their customs and their way of thinking (Opinion of the Survey Team regarding Systemic Improvements).

Agricultural Development Plan

Guideline for Stimulating Crop Production – a summary of the principal problems currently facing Mongolia are outlined below by major area.

The principal problems now facing Mongolia are crop productivity and distribution and processing.

Crop productivity encompasses:

- a) deterioration of corporate farming and reduction in the area of cultivated land;
- b) shortage of supplies of seeds, fertilizer, and other production materials;
- c) shortage of irrigated agricultural technology and technicians in this field; and
- d) inefficient operation of deteriorated irrigation facilities.

Distribution and processing are hampered by:

- a) insufficient collection of raw materials for processing and deterioration of plant operations; and
- b) disorganization and lack of capacity in the distribution system.

The proposed guidelines to address the above challenges are as follows:

- a) Improvement of land use rate of existing cultivated land and reinforcing the productivity of the land;
- b) Improvement of crop varieties to obtain high yield and resistant to disease, pests, cold, and stable high unit yields;
- c) Promotion of imported replacement crops, increased production of sugar beet and rapeseed;
- d) Encouragement of the development and introduction of new crops to meet the diversifying needs of the population; and
- e) Planning the establishment of new distribution and processing facilities in outlying regions.

The cropping system and production plan takes into account the area of cultivated land and population in each *aimag*, distance from consumers, and location of processing plants. The production of vegetables and other perishable foodstuffs will be located near large cities, while those of agricultural products to be used as raw material by processing plants will also be located near the cities based on the scale of the processing plants. The plan will be implemented by adjusting the area of land used to grow each product in conformity with the cropping system. The principal crops will consist of grains (wheat, barley, oats, and rye), white potatoes, vegetables (cabbage, carrots, onions, and turnips), and fruit (chattsargana), and other existing products. Sugar beet production will require considerable financial and technical support from concerned government agencies until production and processing technology and a farm operation system can be introduced. The cropping system will be changed from one crop every two years, including one fallow season between two and four crops every four years. In addition, a crop rotation system adapted to the characteristics of root crops, leaf vegetables, legumes, etc. will be introduced.

The planned unit yields will be determined based on comprehensive judgement based on test data from the Agricultural Research Institute in Darkhan, international unit yields and trends, and the feasibility of improvements on production management technology.

The production infrastructure improvement plan calls for irrigation, development and preservation of agricultural land. The target year of 2010 is divided into two stages. During

the Stage 1 which extends to 2000, a total of 12,000 ha of irrigated land, which corresponds to half of the total of 25,000 ha called for in the irrigation improvement plan, will be improved (this includes the restoration of small hydroelectric plants used to provide power for the irrigation of agricultural land at Kharhorin). An irrigation technology development center will be established in order to develop irrigation technology and train technologists in this field to encourage the spread of irrigated agriculture.

Beginning in the Stage 2 between 2001 and 2010, irrigation technology that has been developed will be employed to provide an additional 13,000 ha of irrigated land.

On the other hand, the agricultural land preservation plans call for measures based on the rotation system of farm operation, namely; the foundation of land preservation. The degree of loss will be categorized as “weak”, “medium”, or “strong”, and depending on the category, measures will be implemented by combining the fallow system, covering the ground with residue from wheat harvesting, plowing-in, growing and plowing-in manure crops, the introduction of contour farming, and the planting of v windbreak trees.

FARM FAMILY SUPPORT SYSTEM REINFORCEMENT PLAN

The Plan to improve the supply of production materials sees an organization centered on the Darkhan Agriculture Research Institute. This will be provided to carry out the integrated control of the propagation and distribution of seeds and seedlings needed to produce crops. The Research Institute will be solely responsible for the development of improved varieties, control of the propagation of breeding stock, propagation of the stock seed, and propagation and distribution of cultivated seeds. Distribution to farms with seed production contracts will be handled by *aimag* authorities. Sites for the seed propagation project will be selected. A supply and service system also needs to be established that can supply farm equipment, spare parts, and production materials at reasonable costs. Moreover, farms should be organized through, for example, the establishment of agriculture cooperative associations.

Effective use of funds will be encouraged not only by promoting the reinforcement of the Food and Agriculture Fund System, and direct financing from the fund, but also by incorporating interest supplements and credit guarantees for financing provided to farmers by ordinary banks.

A proposed agricultural mutual aid and insurance system will protect principal agricultural products from fires and other disasters will be provided, regular payments by farmers will be reduced, a reinsurance system will be established for the insurers, and compensation rates will be increased.

Agriculture Cooperative Associations

Autonomous organizations will be established to handle the sale of agricultural products, to purchase production supplies and goods needed for daily life, to provide farm operating funds, and to disseminate and provide guidance concerning agricultural technology and farm operation. The organizations will promote the expansion of credit projects, mutual aid projects, utilization projects, and processing projects as the number of members and branch organizations rise.

Organizations will be formed based on mutual aid projects conducted as part of productive activities of individual corporations, and producers associations suited to a free-market economic system.

Distribution Road Improvement Plan

Improvements to 1,110 km of principal roads connecting agricultural production districts, processing districts, and consumption districts. Agricultural road improvement plan improving 850 km of connecting roads linking farming areas to national and *aimag* highways in countries with more than 5,000 ha of land under cultivation. The improvements will involve the placing of a gravel surface. Agricultural hamlet road improvement plan will be carried out on roads connecting county administrative offices with agricultural hamlets in farming districts.

Agricultural community electrification plan calls for the electrification of farming communities: both fixed residents and nomadic herders in agricultural areas still without electricity.

CONCLUSIONS AND PROPOSALS

Conclusions

The Government of Mongolia, donor nations, and international organizations all agree that up to year 2010, the expansion of the economy of Mongolia should be centered in agriculture, agriculture-related processing industries, and mining. The central region is the social and economic heart of Mongolia and the area where these industries are concentrated, and the development of agriculture and agricultural communities in this region is expected to trigger the recovery and growth of the Mongolian economy, which is now in a severe slump, and to attract development capital to the country.

To deal with these conditions, this master plan was prepared in cooperation with the MOF in line with the Agricultural Community Development Policy Guidelines enacted by the MOF. The plan was prepared from the results of surveys and analysis projects performed by numerous donor countries and international organizations and based on proposals offered by these countries and organizations. The master plan, which encompasses the strategies and policies necessary to develop agriculture and agricultural communities in the central region, has been prepared as a model plan whose implementation will have a big impact not only on the central region, but on Mongolia as a whole. For this reason, the projects and programs proposed in the plan must be systematically implemented at an early date. We are looking forward not only to renewed efforts on the part of the Government of Mongolia, but to positive action from the donor countries and organizations.

Proposals

The following proposals concerning the implementation of the master plan have been offered.

- a) If the objectives of the master plan are to be achieved, the first step must be the improvement of financing systems, insurance, mutual aid associations, and other institutions necessary to support the producers, and the government must act quickly to carry out these improvements;
- b) The Government of Mongolia and concerned prefectures and cities should incorporate the programs and projects proposed in the master plan into their own development plans and, as quickly as possible, undertake the preparatory work and acquisition of funds needed to get an early start on the projects and programs;

- c) Selected priority projects should be conducted at an early date so that the experience gained can be applied to the implementation of successive projects included in the master plan;
- d) In order to smoothly implement the projects and programs, it will be necessary both to reinforce the organizations conducting them and to provide them with the needed skilled personnel. To this end, steps should be taken to obtain these skilled persons not only at the MOF, but in research institutes and other concerned organizations; and
- e) In order that a comprehensive development plan such as this master plan be smoothly implemented, the MOF should organize an effective integrated system including all concerned central and regional organizations.

13. NEPAL

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INTRODUCTION

Nepal is a landlocked country situated in the Northern part of South Asia with an area of 147,181 km². The population was 23.2 million in 1999 and is expected to grow to 32 million by 2016. High level of population growth and low level of economic development in the country has made Nepal one of the poorest countries in the world. There are several factors making economic development difficult, including landlocked geography rugged terrain, inadequate infrastructure and lack of natural resources. The country is predominantly agrarian as 80 percent of the population depends upon agriculture for livelihood.

Nepal is divided into five development regions within which there are 14 zones, 75 districts, 205 electoral constituencies, 58 municipalities and 4,312 village development committees. Nepal has an ethno-cultural background and according to the census report in 2001, there are 35 different languages and 59 ethnic groups. The official language is Nepali spoken throughout the country.

Administrative Organizations

Nepal is politically a constitutional monarchical kingdom. The organization of the government is divided into three branches: legislative, executive and judicial. The legislative body is called parliament which consists of the national assembly and house of representatives. The latter consists of 205 members of five-year term each (unless parliament is dissolved). Each member represents an election constituency. The national assembly or upper house has members of six-year terms. The parliament is responsible promulgating laws and their by-laws and is the highest electoral organization.

The executive branch is made up the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers. Executive power is vested in the King and the Council of Ministers. There are 21 ministries and 56 departments at the central level.

SALIENT FEATURES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

In keeping with the limited economic human and institutional resources of the country all activities cannot be carried forward simultaneously. Therefore, the development and the geographical priorities are as follows: a) agriculture and forestry; b) water resources; c) human resources and development; d) industrialization, tourism development and international trade; and e) physical infrastructures.

There is immense potential in the development of the agriculture sector in the country. This sector will be developed in line with the Agriculture Perspective Plan (APP). The

forestry sector will be optimally utilized and enhanced in order to integrate it with the country's development programs.

Rural Life Improvement Program

In order to achieve the objective of poverty alleviation, a strategy directing greater efforts towards meeting that objective. This means that emphasis will be given to achieving high economic growth rate in various sectors. The agriculture sector will be given a local role to play in poverty alleviation. Stress will be placed upon uplifting the socio-economic status of those from backward remote regions and the neglected and weaker sections of society. Primary health, education, drinking water, skill development, credit flow, social mobilization, population control and women's empowerment will be emphasized for the purpose of poverty alleviation.

An example of rural life improved is that of Ramiya T. Kawasoti of Nawalparasi who had 11 members in her family. She joined a women's group in 1994. She was reluctant at the outset to take out a loan from the bank with group efforts. Nevertheless, she got a loan of NRs.3,000 for raising pigs. Within a span of three years, she earned NRs.71,000. Out of her income she bought a small piece of irrigated land and paid back the loan and bought a buffalo for NRs.4,300. Her husband now cultivates vegetables and earns income. For the second time, Ramiya borrowed NRs.10,000 for buffalo raising. She is now able to borrow institutional credit on her own (Department of Women Development [DWD]/United Nations Development Fund for Women [UNIFEM], 1999 Impact Study of Training).

FOREIGN ASSISTANCE

Women Development Program

The DWD which is now under the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare has mandate to improve the quality of women's life, increase the socio-economic status and attempt to bring gender equity of low income and disadvantaged women, their children and families. To achieve these objectives the DWD started the Production Credit for Rural Women (PCRW) project. Since this start-up phase in 1982 the DWD has been extending coverage to more families and districts under the PCRW project. In the expansion process, apart from UNICEF, other donors also started to support the PCRW project as well. Some agencies are supporting specific program components while some agencies are limiting their support in specific districts as well as program components within the short duration of the PCRW project. UNICEF grant support was available for training community development and partly for the administrative expenditure while International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) loan was used to support for the delivery of bank credit.

In 1993 UNICEF further extended its support in 11 districts making a total of 35 districts for training and community development activities. Similarly since July 1994 IFAD extended support for group formation, community development training and credit in additional two districts and delivery of bank credit in 18 districts. By the end of July 1994 IFAD support was available for the delivery of bank credit in 55 districts of which 15 districts were also supported by IFAD for training and community development services.

Since December 1993 the Asian Development Bank (ADB) funded the micro-credit project for women (MCPW). The project has come up with the delivery of bank credit group formation and training and strengthening NGO, in 12 districts and five municipalities. In the MCPW, strategies have been taken to involve and strengthen 95 NGOs for social intermediation, i.e., the group formation training and delivery of bank credit. These NGOs

would be able to provide training and increase micro-credit access for resource poor women. This is an innovative approach in Nepal where the government has initiative partnership with local NGOs.

Both PCRW and MCPW programs target the poorest segments of households of below-poverty level whose per capita income is below NRs.4,400 per annum. In addition, particular care has been given to landless, female-headed households, destitute and disadvantaged women and their family.

EXPECTATION FROM THE SEMINAR

I am sure that this opportunity for me to attend the Seminar has significant value in my learning new ideas. This can help me to improve the rural life community and women-related activities in some rural areas of my country. It will enhance my working experience. In our 10th five-year plan, various projects will start from July 2002 with the main focus on poverty alleviation.

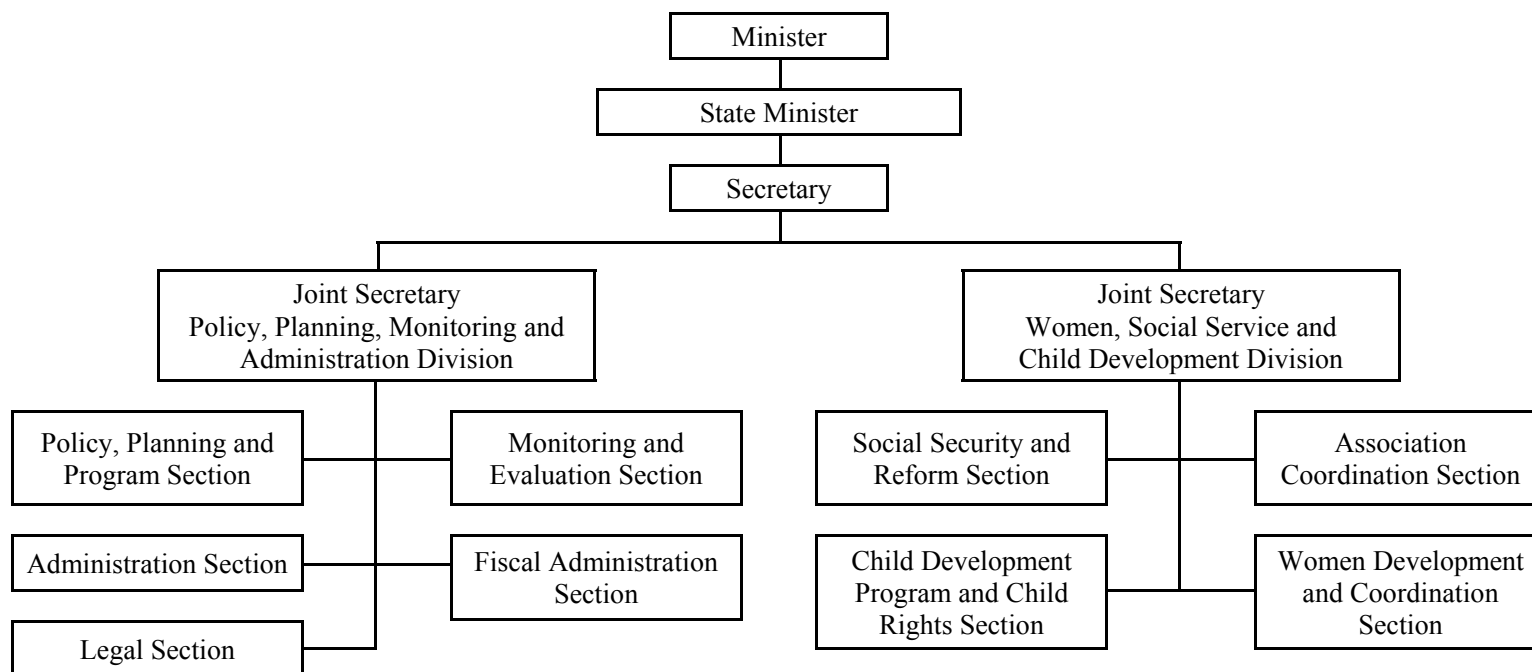


Figure 1. Functional Organization of His Majesty's Government of Nepal
Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare

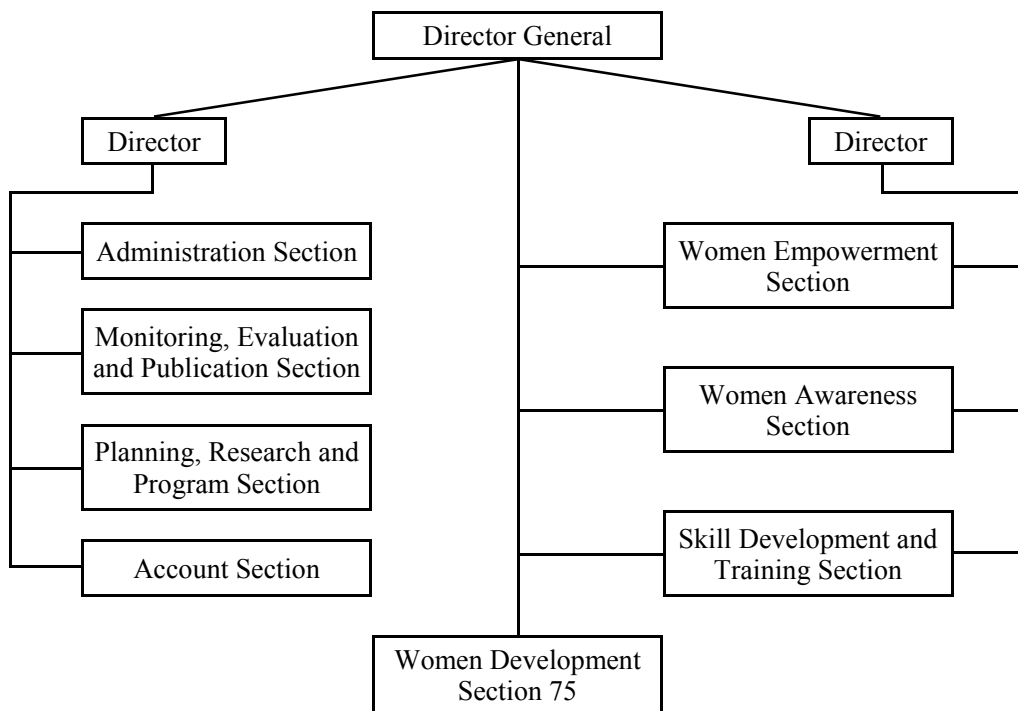


Figure 2. Department of Women Development

14. SRI LANKA

Pathmajina Siriwardana

Divisional Secretary

Divisional Secretariat

Ministry of Home Affairs,

Local Government and Provincial Council

Dambulla

INTRODUCTION

Sri Lanka lies in the Indian Ocean of the southern coast of India. The maximum length from the northern tip of the island to its southern tip is 272 miles and the width at the widest point is 140 miles. The mean temperatures are 27.5°C in the lowlands and 17.5°C in the highlands. The island receives a high annual rainfall of over 1,500 mm with its three broad climatic regions as wet zone, intermediate zone and dry zone.

The total land area is 6.65 million ha; population estimated at 19.36 million with a growth rate of 1.4 percent. Sri Lanka is predominantly a Buddhist island. However, there is a considerable number of followers of Hinduism, Islam and Roman Catholics. Sinhala and Tamil are the official languages. English is treated as a link language.

More than 75 percent of the population live in the rural areas, hence majority of the population derive their livelihood from agriculture with comparatively low income. The labor force at the end of 2000 was estimated at 6.7 million and rate of unemployment was 8.7 percent.

The Sri Lankan economy has traditionally been dominated by agriculture even as its contribution to the GNP in 1999 represented only 20.7 percent of the total: second to services at 53.5 percent in comparison. Manufacturing ranked as contributor with 16.4 percent followed by construction at 7.6 percent. The balance, 1.8 percent, is shared by mining and quarrying.

POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The Government of Sri Lanka is very much concerned with alleviating poverty and helping the vulnerable groups of the population. As a matter of fact, poverty is the major problem in the community development process in the country. Some specific programs initiated in the years gone by are: food stamp; Janasaviya program; Samurdhi program; and various other welfare programs for the vulnerable group.

The major causes of poverty in the country are: discrepancies in income flow; low rate of economic growth; rapid population growth; and high cost of living, particularly in the rural areas.

The Food Stamp

The food stamp scheme was introduced in 1979 and has since covered more than 7.5 million Sri Lankans or the equivalent of 1.8 million households representing 50 percent of

the total population. In terms of cost of the scheme, the total in 1989 was Rs.3.6 billion or 1.5 percent of the country's GDP.

The Janasaviya Program (JSP)

Also in 1989, the JSP was launched by the national government to promote self-employment in the rural areas and, in the process, alleviate poverty through the use of the people's own strength. The JSP provided a grant of Rs.2,500 per family per month. The program was designed to cover all divisional secretariats in 11 rounds picking up one division after each round. The priority in selecting family recipients was based on needs. As the grant was given on a flat rate basis, a certain weakness became apparent regarding inequality – at the expense of large families with very low family income.

The Samurdhi Scheme

In 1995, the JSP was replaced by the launching of the Samurdhi scheme based on participatory approach and a threefold scheme, namely; supplement, social and economic and credit and savings. In 1999 1.7 million families were serviced with varying amounts of grants, i.e., Rs.1,000 per month; Rs.500 a month and between Rs.100 and Rs.200 a month, depending on the size of families. The total cost of the program amounted to Rs.32 billion representing about 18 percent of the total welfare expenditures.

In an effort of the government to generate savings on the part of the grant recipients, each family was required to save part of their income supplement – also, in varying amounts. By 1998, this requirement had saved a total of Rs.3,722 million in 352 bank societies in the country.

Special Program for Vulnerable Groups

This problem, labeled as assistance scheme, catered to the needs of the disadvantaged groups in the society, namely; the sick and the aged who have no sources of income. At the present time (year 2002), some 200,000 indigents have received a total of Rs.600 million a year or an average of Rs.3,600 per person.

The vulnerable groups also include victims of vagaries of nature such as floods, droughts, and landslides. Assistance was made in the form of meals, financial support or materials for rehabilitation of damaged houses.

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Between 1995 and 1998, more than 500 youth camps were established by the National Youth Services Council (NYSC) to involve youth in national development through renovating rural infrastructure such as roads, small reservoirs and playgrounds in different parts of the country. More than 50,000 young persons have participated in this project during the three-year period.

In addition, some 8,000 volunteer youth societies have been set up by the NYSC to provide both leadership and sports training. Also, about 5,000 such youths are undergoing training in different trades in 21 permanent centers located by the NYSC throughout Sri Lanka.

In terms of sports activities, 145 playgrounds have been developed in the country between 1984 and 1988. The Bogamdara and Nuvara Eliya stadiums were acquired for the development to national standards. Both stadiums provide scientific methods of sports and sport medicines for both athletes and trainers. In consequence, Sri Lanka won the World Cup

for the game of cricket in 1996, the Asian Cup for net-ball and number of medals for the athletes.

IN RETROSPECT

In a forward-looking stance for the next six years of rural life improvement for community development, the Sri Lankan Government and divisional secretariats are decided to reinforce and improve most of the schemes introduced over the last four years. Together, they will examine the strengths and weaknesses of the past programs and projects. In this way, it is to be hoped that the available resources can be utilized for maximum positive results.

The Poverty Alleviation Effort

Even during the initial years of various government efforts at alleviating poverty in the country, it was already recognized by many that the amounts of money extended to the Samurdhi families were inadequate to meet consumption expenditures. For example, only about 10 percent of the monthly expenditures on food items of a family of five members were met in 1997. At the same time, the Samurdhi benefits were decided without giving due consideration to the variability in living conditions from region to region. This defect in the program will be overcome in the coming years through equitable selection criteria for Samurdhi grants based on the economic opportunity available in a given area.

For another, many projects identified under the development component of the Samurdhi schemes at the village level were found to be extremely *ad hoc* in nature as they were not drawn up in the context of an overall plan for development of the region. The plans were short terms in focus and addressed only the immediate situation with hardly any provision for future expansion or improvement.

Henceforth, the planning authorities in respective areas will be entrusted to monitor project implementation in order to ensure the effectiveness to rural development and thereby prevent wasteful expenses.

Having considered these defects, it is expected to design small-scale rural development projects as part of the overall development plan in each region. The projects will be identified by exploring the factor endowment in each region and returns to investment in terms of profit, employment creation, market stability and above all, improvement of the quality of life of the villagers, the poor and the vulnerable group.

The Samurdhi savings and credit scheme has multifarious shortcomings. Many rural families are far too poor to save and compulsory savings is a real burden to them instead. The selection then of the loanees, for instance, in lending programs is entirely in the hands of the loan animator (Samurdhi *Niyamaka*) which led to favoritism in the dispersal of loans. In most cases, the loan size was determined according to funds available and the ceiling on loan size was not with any reference to the activities need to be financed. Political interference in loan allocations process has resulted in high rates of defaults.

These shortcomings considered the Samurdhi families in the years ahead will now be encouraged to save more when they sell some produce or when they receive some income from the self-employment projects. The Samurdhi animators will be motivated through better training and management of issuing loans to appropriate and deserving borrowers who have the capabilities to shore up successful business.

Program for Vulnerable Groups

The public assistance programs for the indigent and socially disadvantaged are severely underfunded, partly because of the nominal value of benefits have not been adjusted in line with inflation. Its value represents a decline in real terms of 50 percent over the last decade. Some ineligible persons have been included in the scheme. It is for this and other reasons that the program will be revised for effective targeting of the allowances to those who really need it and to adjust the rate paid periodically.

The per capita maintenance allowances provided to NGOs are very low and fund raising had become so difficult that voluntary homes for the aged began to close down before. The existing homes that catered to the needs of the elderly and disabled population still need assistance. Per diem allowance of Rs.15 needs to be adjusted in real terms. The current operation of a center at full capacity is a serious financial strain on the part of NGOs. The Disaster Management Center will be strengthened to enable it to undertake research on understanding the cause of some disasters and remedial measures to minimize their effects on properties and lives. The National Institute of Social Development will be upgraded in order to award degrees for graduate diplomas in social work education. Its capacity will be increased from 200 students to about 500 per annum.

Youth Employment

The lack of leadership talent among the youth societies has become a major impediment to community development in many areas. In order to overcome this defect, a countrywide program to produce youth leaders is being planned by the NYSC in collaboration with NGOs. Greater emphasis will be placed on conducting comprehensive surveys on youth-related issues and use them to prepare appropriate policies for improving the status of the youth of the land. Training courses of the NYSC needs to be updated to meet current requirements of the growth industries in the economy.

In sports, the existing facilities are mainly concentrated in urban centers that need to be decentralized in rural areas to enable the rural youth to improve their skills. At least a stadium in each province complete with modern facilities will go a long way in improving the athletic skills of rural youth.

The NGOs' participation in rural development, particularly in poverty alleviation, needs to be expended. The capabilities of this sector is expected to be fully utilized by the state during the next 5-6 years. They should be encouraged to invest in various projects in rural areas where the incidence of poverty is high. This includes the establishment of paying centers for the elderly and disabled.

All this may be wishful thinking but unless the problems are faced with a strong determination to improve the operation of projects, the country will remain behind in community development.

16. THAILAND (2)

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INTRODUCTION

The Department of Public Welfare (DPW) was established 62 years ago for promoting human resource development. The DPW has since been developing and improving its operations and providing more timely social welfare services. It has adopted the result-based management system to perform its function in order to enable people to live a well-being life and to strengthen the stability of the nation as well.

The DPW operates on eight strategies as follows:

1. Development and improvement of delivery of social services in response to the needs of target groups;
2. Strengthen the stability of families and communities;
3. Building coordinating networks, protect rights and enhance NGOs and society's participation;
4. Promote and encourage NGO's local agencies and people to provide effective social services;
5. Raise families' and communities' awareness on prevention of social environment problems;
6. Develop staff's potential to perform their jobs with service in mind;
7. Develop indicators, standard of work and systematic follow-up and evaluation; and
8. Develop information systems on social welfare services for efficient and effective management.

Guided by the preceding strategies, the major responsibilities of the DPW may be summarized as follows:

1. Performing functions authorized by the laws on child welfare and child protection, child adoption, prevention and suppression of prostitution, funeral assistance, land allocation for livelihood in self-help land settlements, hostels, control of beggars, rehabilitation of persons with disabilities, and other pertinent laws;
2. Providing social welfare services for older persons, destitute persons, disadvantaged women, socially handicapped families, low-income families, and socially distressed Thai citizens;
3. Providing social welfare services and community development services to hill-tribe people;

4. Providing disaster relief services to disaster victims;
5. Promoting and supporting social service provisions by the private sector;
6. Developing appropriate systems, models, and approaches on social work and social welfare, proposing of preventive and remedial measures for handling social problems, and compiling information on social work and social welfare; and
7. Performing other functions as authorized by other legislations and those tasks assigned by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare or the Cabinet.

CONCERN FOR DISADVANTAGED WOMEN

It is the Thai Government's policy to assist women and to develop female youth to be able to live respectable lives. In this regard, the Occupational Assistance Division (OAD) has launched a women's protection and vocational development program aimed at the prevention of women from exploitation and prostitution procurement. The program includes the provision of basic necessities, counseling, vocational training, and training or upgrading vocational skill, to enable the program's target groups to find employment and earn sufficient income. The specific target groups of the training program are the disadvantaged women, women at risk of sexual exploitation, and women affected of social problems.

The training program is divided into three sectors, namely; a) welfare and vocational training centers for women; b) welfare and vocational training for women in the community/village; and c) welfare protection and vocational development centers.

Welfare and Vocational Training Centers for Women

The DPW has been running seven welfare and vocational training centers in provinces as follows:

1. Central Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Nonthaburi province;
2. Northern Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Lampang province;
3. Northeastern Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Si Sa Ket province;
4. Ratanapa Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Khon Kaen province;
5. Southern Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Songkhla province;
6. Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women in the Royal Highness Celebration of HRH Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn's 36th Birthday Anniversary, Chonburi province; and
7. Chiang Rai Welfare and Vocational Training Center for Women, Chiang Rai province.

The centers are intended to provide vocational training to disadvantaged women who have not had any access to formal education. Vocational training courses provided in the centers are, for example, dressmaking and beautician's skills. The varying lengths of the courses are six months, four months or three months. Each course is run twice a year. The training on family planning, AIDS and anti-drugs are also provided to the trainees. Some products that residents of the centers make are sold proceeds of which go to the makers. Job placement service is also catered to those who have finished vocational training courses.

Welfare and Vocational Training for Women in Communities/Villages

The vocational training services for the disadvantaged young women, unemployed and who are at risk of prostitution procurement in rural areas are undertaken by a project called

Creating New Life for Rural Women that was established in January 1993. The training courses last for an average of 88 days. The participants receive B50 of daily allowance during the training. Graduates of the training course are encouraged to form occupation group, work in factories and start self-employed business.

To support women who become members of occupational groups in the village, each one receives interest-free loan up to B15,000 with a repayment period of two years that is guaranteed by members of the group. This provision is on B80 million revolving fund.

Welfare Protection and Vocational Development Centers

Four welfare protection and vocational development centers have been set up by the government's 1996 Prostitution Suppression and Prevention Act. The centers provide their residents with protection program and vocational training. Residents of the centers are those referred from the reception home after completing a six-month term at the reception home. These women stay and receive protection and vocational development in the center for a period not exceeding two years. Non-formal education, vocational training, and job placement services are also provided to the residents. They receive non-formal education up to compulsory level.

Residents who do not want to be on the job placement will be sent home. Social workers visit former residents at their homes from time to time to follow up.

The four welfare protection and vocational development centers are located in:

1. Kred Trakan Welfare Protection and Vocational Development Centre, Nonthaburi province;
2. Narisawad Welfare Protection and Vocational Development Centre, Nakhon Ratchasima province;
3. Song Khwae Welfare Protection and Vocational Development Centre, Phitsanulok province; and
4. Sri Surat Welfare Protection and Vocational Development Centre, Suratdonthani province.

The extent of national coverage for this New Life for Rural Women Project has reached: a) 15 provinces for provincial public offices; b) 44 land settlement in 35 provinces; c) 78 centers in 20 provinces for hill-tribe development and welfare centers; d) seven centers in seven provinces for welfare and vocational centers; and e) four centers in four provinces for welfare protection and vocational development centers.

Figure 1 shows a schematic diagram on the administration system for these centers from the national to community/village levels.

RURAL/AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND RURAL LIFE IMPROVEMENT

The national development policy for rural/agricultural development and rural life improvement (with emphasis on women welfare) brings to the fore the symbiotic relationship between the two. This is because agricultural and rural development cannot be separated from rural life improvement program. The basic reasons are that: a) the largest number of Thai families live in rural areas; b) proper attention by the government on the welfare of women should bring about a happier family life; and c) more and more, rural women are beginning to participate in local policies.

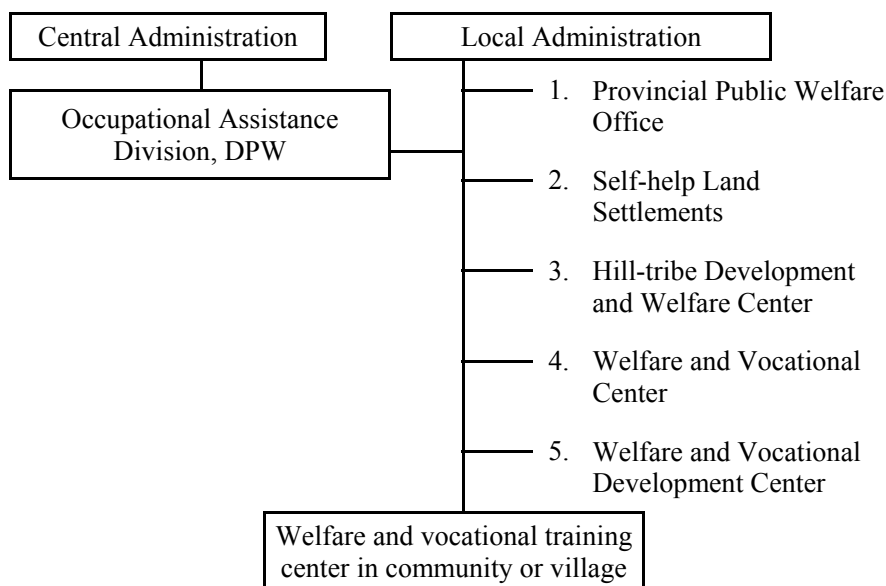


Figure 1. Flow Chart of Administration System of Development Centers

Women and Rural Development

Of rural development efforts, women (wives and adult daughters) help the husband/father in farming activities. There is then need to:

1. develop women's potential and quality of life;
2. eradicate the remaining gender inequality in education and training;
3. improve the quality and share equal responsibility between women and men in family planning with various methods;
4. promote and provide health and counseling services, to all women, especially the disadvantaged groups by encouraging and enabling female participation in health services for the disadvantaged group;
5. protect women and children from violence and unfair treatment in their family;
6. prevent, protect women and children from trafficking of women and children;
7. support women to have equal rights and opportunities with men in most of life aspects, by opening up opportunities to participate in decision-making and participation in economic, social, political and administrative development; and
8. support an increase in training for women for them to build up confidence so as to enable them to accept major decision-making roles in economic, social and political matters in greater numbers.

Agricultural and Rural Development

Enough have been said about agricultural and rural development except to add the following considerations:

1. Preserve and rehabilitate forest areas of mangrove forest;
2. Increase awareness on the part of farmers on sustainable, alternative, natural bio-agricultural methods and increase opportunities for their application;
3. Reduce the incidence of poverty both in the rural and agricultural communities; and

4. Adjust the agricultural structure system, to preserve and rehabilitate the environment and natural resources in such a way that they can play major roles in economic and social development hence provide better quality of life for the people.

17. VIETNAM

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INTRODUCTION

Vietnam is a populous country. Its population in December 2001 was estimated at 78.6 million of which 78 percent live in rural areas. They derive their livelihood from agricultural pursuits. Of the rural residents, 90 percent are classified as poor and 90 percent of the poor are farmers. In the year 2000 the estimated per capita income was equivalent to US\$400 per year.

The poverty in this country is high even as it has improved from 51 percent in 1992-93 to 37 percent in 1998 and further down to 32 percent in 2000. Equally high but nevertheless improving is the food poverty among the Vietnamese which was estimated at 25 percent in 1993 to 15 percent in 1998 and still pared down to only 13 percent in 2000.

Poverty is mainly concentrated in the agriculture sector – in remote, isolated and mountainous areas where 90 percent of the poor live of which 70 percent live in mountain areas of the country.

The educational level of rural residents is also low in that some 90 percent of the country's poor achieved only primary education or below. The rate of those who have not attended formal schooling is 12 percent.*

The poor households in rural areas have large families that average 3.5 children each. Of course, poverty in Vietnam is caused by frequent occurrence of natural disasters such as floods and typhoons that cause losses and damages to farms and properties. The annual estimate of losses and damages are sustained by between 1.0 million and 1.5 million people. One other cause of poverty in Vietnam is the fact that the marketing activities for farm products (mainly for consumption) has yet to be organized to be efficient.

GOVERNMENT POLICIES

The government policies for improving life in rural areas and community development in the country affecting such improvements revolve around the creation of consistent, secure and convenient legal environment for production and business activities. In this regard, the government leans on four basic laws to ensure the enforcement and/or execution of policies, namely; a) law of the land; b) trade laws; c) law on foreign direct investment; and d) law on domestic investment encouragement on the part of the citizens.

* The preceding and subsequent data are quoted from the Comprehensive Poverty Reduction and Growth Strategy (CPRGS).

Some distinctive effects of the current policies in terms of increasing the investments on infrastructure construction in the agriculture sector and rural areas, as a whole, are, in the year 2000, 88 percent of the total consumers have access to electricity and 90 percent of them are accessible by various transportation facilities. In the same year, construction of irrigation schemes and rural domestic water supply have increased rapidly even as large-scale marketing activities for farm products consumption have yet to be promoted. These include the implementation of 135 projects in 1,800 poor communes each of which were recipients of VND (Vietnamese dong) 400 million to develop irrigation and drainage systems, roads, schools, markets and health facilities.

In terms of investment program for hunger elimination and poverty alleviation targets, the government has already invested a total of VND5,500 billion through national programs. This has given some 90,000 household access to credit without interest charges. This has been made possible with the assistance and cooperation of more than 40 donors from overseas and local NGOs.

In the promotion of programs on hunger elimination and poverty alleviation, three specific projects are in the pipeline, namely; a) providing credit to the poor for business development and production activities; b) providing agriculture, forestry and fisheries extension services to the poor; and c) establishment of poverty reduction models by geographical areas in the countryside.

GOVERNMENT STRATEGY

The government strategy on rural life improvement for community development has identified three pivotal targets for production development up to 2005 and 2010 to deal with poverty and rural development as follows: a) economic target; b) social improvement and poverty reduction; and c) sustained implementation of policies and solutions.

Economic Target

It is anticipated that the country's GDP in years 2005 and 2010 is going to double that of 1995 and 2000, respectively. This anticipation is premised on the fact that the value added in agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors will be grown at 4.0-4.5 percent, on the average, between 2001 and 2010.

Food production will be intensified in order to ensure national food security and develop agricultural commodity production to meet the market demands and improve the important farm products. In this regard, the proportion of agriculture in the GDP is expected to increase 20-21 percent in 2005 and 16-17 percent in 2010.

Social Improvement and Poverty Reduction

In order to reduce the rate of hunger and poor households, the government expects that the international standards-based poverty incidence will be reduced by two-fifths and international standards-based food poverty incidence will be reduced by three-fourths in 2010.

Essential infrastructure to the poor and mountainous communes will be reduced sufficiently. As to employment, it is expected that 30 percent of the total work force will be trained in 2005. In order to ensure sustainable environment, plans are afoot to improve and solve the environmental incidents occurring on rivers, lakes, ponds and canals. Forest protection is expected to reach 250,000 ha per year. The administrative reform is expected to be strengthened and legal knowledge to be provided the poor.

Sustained Implementation of Policies and Solutions

Investment is expected to beef up the construction of essential infrastructures such as roads, electricity and domestic water supply, large-scale irrigation systems, schools and health facilities. At the same time, plans readied to extend the access for farmers to state credit and investment with favorable interest charges to enable them to develop production through training and provisions of relevant information.

Policies on technology transfer to support farmers in crop and animal production are expected to continue, including encouragement for farmers to reclaim land for expansion of cultivated areas. Policies likewise will continue to facilitate leaseholds who are carrying business and production activities to take part in markets.

15. THAILAND (1)

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INTRODUCTION

Thailand began to introduce a dramatic fertility revolution in the early 1970s. The National Family Planning Program carried out by the Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) had been able to reach all towns and around 20 percent of the villages by 1973. However, there were still many villages that the MOPH could not visit. In 1974, the PDA proposed an imaginative expansion of the project and began to provide information and services to those villages not yet contacted by the MOPH.

The PDA, in cooperation with the district offices, selected and trained volunteers from villagers in the community who were well-liked and well-respected. These people were supplied with an initial stock of contraceptives for distribution within their villages.

With a service point in the center of the community providing maximum convenience for neighbors and villages, the promotion of family planning was dramatically improved. The utilization of volunteers also promoted a “community helping the community” aspect which involved them taking the time to visit and educate housewives as well as handout birth control device. In five years this program had reached 15,000 villages, or approximately one-third of the villages at that time. As a result of the PDA’s extensive family planning efforts in conjunction with the national program, Thailand’s birth rate experienced a dramatic drop from 3.2 percent to 1.0 percent.

The PDA also introduced new vasectomy services. With the non-scalpel vasectomy technique, the PDA offered free male vasectomies on special occasions such as the King’s Birthday (Thai Father’s Day), Labor Day and other national days. Free male vasectomies were also provided every day at four PDA’s clinics with over 80,000 acceptors during the past 25 years.

Building on the success of its family planning programs, the PDA was very much involved in combating HIV/AIDS in Thailand in the 1990s. Through novel approaches of making people aware of the dangers of this deadly disease and using its network of centers and volunteers throughout the country, the PDA helped to bring down substantially the rate of newly infected ones.

COMMUNITY-BASED INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The success of the family planning program made the PDA realized the awareness of other developmental needs. The PDA began integrating other components into the family planning program that helped to improve village sanitation, water supply, and introduced health promotion and income-generating activities. A comprehensive program emerged

focusing on several rural developmental needs, which promoting self-reliance among the beneficiaries is the concept of the Community-based Integrated Rural Development (CBIRD).

Above all, under an operational agreement between the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and PDA as well as under the authorization of the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation (DTEC) of the Royal Thai Government, the first CBIRD Center was founded at Nang Rong in 1984. The poorest target areas for this program are Nang Rong, Chamni, and Non Suwan districts of Buriram province; most residents are subsistence rice farmers who have been frustrated by inadequate water supply, poor sanitation, low nutrition, and lack of secure income. So, the CBIRD program aimed to improve the quality of life in this area and stem the increasing tide of urban migration. Furthermore, the development activities reached 48 villages since 1984 through three methodological stages as follows:

- a) **Basic Development Activities** – The CBIRD provided technical, financial and marketing assistance to the villagers that pertained to health, population and nutrition, environmental sanitation, animal husbandry, etc.;
- b) **Village Group Formation** – The CBIRD commenced helping the villagers to form community and economic groups to promote better use of village financial resources and to encourage self-reliance. There were the saving groups, fair price store, rice marketing groups, etc.; and
- c) **Village Cooperative Development** – The CBIRD assisted the villagers who depended mostly on middlemen for obtaining credit, supplies and for selling crops, farm subdistrict cooperatives through their village development committees. These cooperatives provide affordable credit, inexpensive supplies and gave villagers greater buying power as well.

INCOME GENERATION AND VEGETABLE BANKS

There are numerous income-generating projects which have been supported by the PDA, especially in the context of the Thai Business Initiative in Rural Development (TBIRD) program (mentioned later). A very unique and successful approach has been the Vegetable Bank or Sky Irrigation. Since mid-1990s farmers in the seasonally arid northeast of Thailand have been using the Sky Irrigation or Vegetable Bank concept to obtain year-round supplies of irrigation water. The irrigation systems are designed for collective management and are used for intensive cultivation of cash crops by groups of villagers. To support this villagers, they receive basic training in vegetable cultivation as well as accounting, management and the formation and operation of cooperative.

Vegetable banks have enabled villagers to earn up to B3,000 per month which is several times their income before joining the project. The project has significantly improved the livelihood of villagers, and has reduced the out-migration rates from villages. They are generally established on public land. Each member is allotted a plot of land approximately one half *rai* (800 m²). Water is pumped from a deep well or surface water source and stored in several concrete storage tanks. A system of pipes distributes water from these tanks to each plot. The villagers normally water their crops with watering cans.

The villagers in the project assist in the construction of the systems under technical advice of PDA staff. System establishment costs of approximately B18,000 per member are paid back by the villagers over a few years. The repaid construction costs are used to

construct new vegetables banks in other villages or for community projects according to the wish of the donors.

A village water management committee, consisting of 11 members manages the vegetable bank, collects water use fees from individual members and helps in the production and marketing of the vegetables. Vegetable banks are in operation in over 100 villages in the Northeast Thailand. They are established through the Sky Irrigation Project with support of the German Agro Action (GAA), and by a number of private national and international sponsors under the TBIRD program.

WATER RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT AND ENVIRONMENT

Since its inception in 1986, the Water Resources Development and Environmental Sanitation (WRD/ES) project has been providing technologically appropriate water storage and environmental sanitation systems to needy villagers in Northeast Thailand. These activities include the provision of drinking water by construction village-level tap water systems and household rainwater collection receptacles (tanks and jars). The project areas are in some of the driest regions of Thailand, and parts which have experienced drought for the last few years. The infrastructure developed under the WRD/ES program adds to the efforts being made by the Thai Government agencies to facilitate the collection and use of clean water, and does so in areas that are difficult to reach or that have been overlooked by other schemes.

In addition to providing water distribution and collection systems, the WRD/ES project is also implementing two new pilot projects. One is an innovative grey-water recycling program that utilize water from village households that have been used for washing and bathing. The grey-water is channeled through a bio-filtration pond and then into a deeper pond in which villagers can raise fish for domestic consumption. The other pilot project is a solid waste management program that is being implemented in eight subdistricts. Through this project, villagers are offered a waste management service in which their recyclable and non-recyclable waste materials are collected and properly disposed of. As part of the project, the villagers are educated in proper methods for sorting and recycling their rubbish. Both the grey-water and solid waste management pilot projects are endeavoring to develop successful models that can eventually be duplicated throughout Thailand's rural areas. The project emphasizes village self-sufficiency, so the construction of the systems is always accompanied by intensive training designed to transfer the system management and operation skills to the villagers. The project is supported by GAA and the Ministry of Economic Cooperation of the Federal Republic of Germany.

Another example of PDA's environment programs is the Community Forestry Management Project (CFMP) which is implemented in 135 villages in Thailand's Northern region. Its aim is to alleviate rural poverty by providing an alternative income source for rural villagers. Participants in this project are encouraged to plant a combination of hardwood and fast growing species of trees. The short rotation period of fast growing trees growing on marginal lands will enable villagers to earn income from land that over many years have been lying idle.

The rapid economic growth of Thailand has drastically affected the predominantly poor rural communities of the Northeast. Forests have been severely depleted by commercial logging and the clearing of land for agriculture, giving rise to many environmental crises including soil erosion, drought and periodic flooding and the loss of habitat for native wildlife and plant species. The overuse of chemical fertilizers and pesticides has polluted

rivers and water tables, affecting the health of humans and animals alike. Poor waste management and sanitation practices add to the degradation of the land, water and health of the population.

The Student Environmental Education and Demonstration (SEED) project, established in 1997, aims to address environmental problems by raising public awareness of environmental issues and catalyzing local action to conserve and protect natural resources in four provinces of Northeast Thailand, i.e., Buri Ram, Khon Kaen, Maha Sarakham and Nakhon Ratchasima. Thus, its objectives are as follows:

- a. To provide relevant and comprehensive environmental education to primary and secondary school students and adult villagers, initiate and implement ecologically sustainable environmental practices through the establishment of active environmental organizations in the project region; and
- b. To escalate business sector support for environmental conservation activities and expand media coverage of environmental issues.

In order to achieve these objectives, the SEED project has been implemented through enhancing environmental education in primary and secondary schools; local environmental conservation organizations; and escalation of the support for environmental education and conservation through corporate, media, and public relations.

There are various activities such as: educational exhibits; participatory activities; live elephants; training of 1,000 teachers in environmental education, development of environmental education curricula, teaching materials and tools; establishment and support of 600 village-level environment protection societies, along with the training of villagers in current environmental management issues; establishment and support of 28 district-level environment protection associations which will coordinate and develop multi-sectoral support for the district-wide conservation activities; and tree planting on 6,000 *rai* (960 ha) of rural land with business sector support.

THAI BUSINESS INITIATIVE IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The TBIRD is an innovative program that brings companies and poor villagers together. By fostering or adopting a village, a company can help less privileged villagers earn reasonable income through small-scale sustainable agricultural projects, cottage industries and small enterprises. The TBIRD addresses many of the most fundamental problems faced by rural people seeking to improve their quality of life.

Most TBIRD projects are partnerships between a sponsoring company or organization and a rural village. The sponsor generally has diverse resources (e.g., employees, market knowledge, contacts, and finances) that can significantly improve the village economy. In turn, villagers are keen to become involved in opportunities to develop their communities and improve their lives. The sponsors will have the chance to engage in socially beneficial business activity and the villagers will have the chance to be owners of community industries.

The objectives are:

- a. to encourage successful businesses to help improve the quality of life of rural people;
- b. to transfer business skills to the villagers;
- c. to establish income-generation activities for the rural poor; and
- d. to reduce migration and encourage rural migrants to return home.

Projects include a range of activities, based on the needs of the villagers, to provide relief from poverty and to teach basic business skills, to improve education and village environment. Sponsors can directly apply their business skills in some areas or support the village-based activity through funding.

Income Generation

Rural Industry – Small- to medium-scale manufacturing operations can provide local job opportunities and fuel local economic growth.

Cottage Industries – The production of traditional handicrafts and foodstuffs and other home industries enable some villagers to increase their income by direct participation in the larger market economy. They also learn business skills firsthand from this experience.

Agriculture – Villagers can greatly increase their household incomes through organic vegetable and flower growing, raising ornamental and fruit trees or small animal husbandry projects with minimal investment.

Educational Opportunities

By improving the quality of educational opportunities, the TBIRD invests in a community's future. Increasing the skills of the local labor pool will help to perpetuate economic growth and quality of life. Sponsors can help a village school produce their own food for lunches, provide scholarships or contribute equipment to improve school programs.

Improving the Environment

Projects which help to improve the environment, such as reforestation, sanitation or cleanup projects, significantly increase the standard of living in a community at a relatively low cost.

Strengthening Local Institutions

The work done in the projects can assist the improvement of local institutions such as temples and subdistrict councils or cooperatives through training business skills and other important skills. By including these institutions as partners in the development projects, a greater proportion of the community can benefit from these activities.

Social Development

The TBIRD projects provide opportunities for businesses and other organizations to help to improve the living standards in rural communities of the elderly, the handicapped and orphans while doing business. This participation encourages a larger sense of community and greater opportunities in the rural areas.

Since TBIRD was launched in 1988, there has been a large number of successful stories for the poor people of rural Thailand. It has always been the writer's philosophy that Thai organizations, the corporate sector in particular, should give back to society what they have benefitted. The TBIRD concept has been particularly successful in the last 10 years because it has attracted the interest and appealed to the social responsibilities of companies when times were good and the industry was booming. It is somewhat ironic that Thailand is weathering an economic crisis on the 10th anniversary of TBIRD. This is why the *2000 TBIRD Yearbook* has been published: to remind supporters and sponsors of rural development of the good work they have done.

CONCLUSION

Actually, the PDA has implemented over 100 projects throughout the period of 28 years; by contrast, this country report can present only this much information pertaining to rural life improvement.

In the writer's personal perception, the family planning topic was injected into discussion, owing to the fact that the PDA succeeded at first in this National Family Planning that assisted rural residents in an indirect approach involving the uplift of life's quality. After that, the PDA terminated several projects providing generous contribution to the people in Thailand.

To the TBIRD, this innovative program initiated by the PDA is still the manifest option to the above-mentioned improvement. As the Thais believe, the people as well as the countries can be developed through agriculture together with industry.

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2. PROGRAM OF ACTIVITIES

(22 - 26 April 2002)

Date/Time	Activity
<i>Mon., 22 April</i>	
Forenoon	Opening Ceremony Presentation and Discussion on Topic I: <i>Rural Life Improvement Movement in Contemporary Japan</i> (Part 1) by Mr. Masami Mizuno
Afternoon	Presentation and Discussion on Topic I: <i>Rural Life Improvement Movement in Contemporary Japan</i> (Part 2) by Mr. Masami Mizuno Presentation and Discussion on Topic II: <i>Rural Life and Extension Service in Japan</i> by Ms. Mieko Takaoka Presentation and Discussion on Topic III: <i>Rural Life Improvement Experience in Japan for Rural Development in Developing Countries</i> by Mr. Hiroshi Sato Workshop on Country Paper Presentation
<i>Tues., 23 April</i>	
Forenoon	Presentation of Country Papers by Participants
Afternoon	Continuation of Presentation of Country Papers by Participants
<i>Wed., 24 April</i>	
Forenoon	Reflection of the Previous Day
Afternoon	Attend Open Symposium on “Rural Improvement Movement in Japan and Rural Development in Developing Countries” at Institute for International Cooperation (IFIC) Presentation and Discussion on Topic: <i>An Actor-oriented Approach to Development Intervention</i> at IFIC by Prof. Dr. Norman Long
<i>Thurs., 25 April</i>	
Forenoon	Visit Small-scale Food Processing Center “Keyaki-Kobo”
Afternoon	Briefing about JA Maebashi and Chubu Agriculture Extension Center Visit Cooperative Market run by Cooperative Members
<i>Fri., 26 April</i>	
Forenoon	Reflection of Previous Days
Afternoon	Summing-up Session Closing Session