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B.A. (HONS.) Mass Communication II Year

Sub. – Rural Journalism

Unit	Topics
1	Introduction to Rural India, Socio-Economic Structure of Villages. Impact of Globalization and Urbanization on Villages. Rural Development. Problems of Rural Society. Social Change in Village Community
2	Govt. Policies for Rural Development – Government Plans and Villages. Zamindari Abolition and Land Reforms. Co-Operative Movement. Community Development Programme. Panchayati Raj and Rural Development
3	History of Rural Broadcast- Issues of Development Health, Education-Infrastructure. Social Conflicts, Empowerment Of Weaker Sections, Area Specific Programmes Of DD. AIR's Developmental Programmes. Krishi Darshan Of DD. SITE Project
4	Programming for Rural Development- Concept of Public Service Broadcast. Impact of Broadcast on Development, Planning and Scheduling of Development Programmes. Krishi Darshan, Kisan Vaani. DD Kisan
5	Future of Rural Broadcast - Concept of Local Broadcast. FM Radio and Rural broadcast. Interactive and Participatory Programmes. Community Radio



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BAJMC 2ND YEAR

RURAL JOURNALISM

UNIT 1

INTRODUCTION TO RURAL INDIA

RBI defines rural areas as those areas with a population of less than 49,000 (tier -3 to tier-6 cities). It is generally said that the rural areas house up to 70% of India's population. Rural India contributes a large chunk to India's GDP by way of agriculture, self-employment, services, construction etc.



SOCIO STRUCURE OF VILLAGES

INTRODUCTION

Sociologists use the word 'social structure' to refer to the inter-relationship, inter-connectedness, and inter-dependence of the different parts of society. In terms of their form, all societies have the same parts. Thus, there are groups and communities in all societies, but the nature and substance of these groups and communities differ from one society to another. For instance, an Indian village is unthinkable without the caste system, while a Chinese village does not have castes. Its units are the people of different families and occupational groups. The sense of identity that the people of different groups have is also seen at the level of the people of different families and occupational groups in Chinese villages. The inter-relationship of the different units constitutes the structure of the society.



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COMPONENTS IN RURAL SOCIAL STRUCTURE

Caste

Caste is the fundamental principle of social organization in the Indian village. As Louis Dumont said in his work titled *Homo Hierarchicus*, castes are arranged in a hierarchy based on the principles of purity and impurity, which in fact give distinctiveness to the caste system, because no other system of ranking in the world makes use of these principles. The caste occupying the highest position is ritually the purest, and as one goes down the hierarchy, purity decreases while impurity increases. Those placed at the bottom of the hierarchy, the people who at one time were called 'untouchables' (now they are called Harijans or Dalits) are considered to be the 'permanent carriers of impurity' within the idiom of the caste system. No other social system in the world incorporates the notion of 'permanent impurity' with such rigidity as the caste system. There may be notions of 'temporary impurity' (such as, impurity incurred by menstruation, death, or birth), which is overcome with the performance of rituals, but no ritual can neutralize 'permanent impurity'.

Class

Class is an indicator of the distribution of economic inequality in the society. The term 'power stratification', on the other hand, is used for inequality in terms of the decision-making ability, by which some, as Max Weber says, are able to impose their will on others and seek compliance from them. Ideally, class and power are subordinated to caste. A Brahmin, even if poor, occupies the highest position in the caste hierarchy and commands unlimited respect from other castes. At one time, the Kshatriya kings wielded power, but the Brahmin priest officiated in the ritual that accorded them legitimacy to rule. The producers of economic wealth, the merchant castes (the Vaishyas) pursue different wealth generating occupations, and are placed just above those whose jobs are principally menial, i.e., 'to serve the other three upper castes', as the classical texts put it. In some parts of India, there was a clear overlapping of the three ranked orders of caste, class, and power. For instance, both André Beteille and Kathleen Gough, in their respective studies of villages Sripuram and Kumbapettai, found that the Brahmins, who numbered around four per cent of the total population of South India, owned around ninety-eight per cent of the land, which they abstained from tilling because of religious injunctions that did not allow Brahmins to touch ploughs. The Brahmins, who lived in their separate quarters called *agraharam*, were also in control of political power. Therefore,



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being a Brahmin also meant occupying the highest position in class and power hierarchies. This was an example of what after Robert Dahl one would call 'cumulative inequality'. In this case, social status together with economic and political power are all concentrated in one group, the Brahmins.

Jajmani System

Jajmani system is considered as the backbone of rural economy and social order. It is a system of traditional occupational obligations. In rural India Jajmani system is very much linked with caste system. Etymologically, the term Jajman has been derived from the Sanskrit word Yajman, which means a person who performs a yajna. Thus if some yajna is to be performed for that the services of some Brahmins are essentially needed. It was gradually that its use was made common to everyone who hired services or to whom the services were given. It could be said that the Jajmani system is a system of distribution whereby high caste land owning families are provided services and products of various lower castes such as Khati (Carpenter), Nai (Barber), Kumhars (Potters), Lobars (Blacksmiths), Dhobi (Washer man), Sweeper (Chuhra) etc. The servicing castes are called Kamins while the castes served are called Jajmans. For services rendered the servicing castes are paid in cash or in kind (grains, fodder, clothes, animal products like milk, butter etc.) Kamin means who works for some body or services him.

Social Mobility

A person born into a caste will always belong to it as a life-long member. In his/her future births, because of good deeds, he/she may be born into a superior caste. In other words, theoretically, upward mobility is not possible within the caste system, except for women who may move up by means of hypergamous marriages. Similarly, downward mobility results from hypogamous marriages. Economic opportunities are considerably limited in villages. Agricultural surplus is not significant either. Virtually nothing is left with the peasants after they have made the jajmani payments. Barring the big landlords, others in villages live rather precariously, often hand to mouth. Those, who have been able to move out to towns and cities for work, have been able to make some money, which they have invested in buying agricultural land, but the number of such families is not large. The point to be emphasized here is that class mobility was also non-existent in the village.

Family



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A joint family is defined as an aggregate of kinspersons who share a common residence, a common kitchen, a common purse including property, and a common set of religious objects. Generally, a joint family has a name, which in many cases is given/taken after the name of its founder. It has a depth of more than two generations. It is not uncommon to come across joint families that have members of four generations living together. Although joint families are found more in the rural than in the urban areas, where most of the families happen to be nuclear, one should not conclude that all castes in a village have the tradition of joint families. It has been observed that upper castes, which are also land owners in many cases, have a higher proportion of joint families than the lower castes, the less propertied as well as the non-propertied ones, which tend to have a higher number of nuclear families.

Power

The popular image of an Indian village is that it is free from conflicts and thefts. Although it is an idealized version, which of course is far being exact, there undoubtedly is a grain of truth in much of what has been and is being said about the village. In comparison with the situation in towns and cities, inter-personal conflicts are fewer in villages. The rich may not part with their wealth in favour of the poor, but they certainly display a guardian—like supportive attitude towards them. General consensus prevails with respect to the norms and values, which in any case are largely uniform and hardly contradictory, and this is one of the reasons why there are fewer cases of dissent and conflict in villages. Certainly, the hold of religion on traditional societies is greater than it is on complex societies.

The caste leaders had social status in a village. Since caste councils were very powerful through severest sanctions, they could even ostracize defaulters from the caste. The leaders enjoyed great power over members. The village panchayats consisted of village elders from amongst all the major castes in the village. These were informal organisations. The members gathered whenever issues involving the interests of the village were to be decided. Yogendra Singh (1961) in his study of changing power structure in Uttar Pradesh villages concluded that the power system has a tendency to incline in favour of the groups which fulfill the economic expectations of the people in the village.

CHANGING VILLAGE STRUCTURE

The face of Indian village has changed over the period of time. Houses built from mud and thatch roof has been replaced by cemented ones. Wide well-lit roads have replaced the narrow



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lanes. Hand pumps and wells have been replaced by taps and continuous water supply. Two wheelers and four wheelers can be seen instead of bullock carts. General stores and even beauty parlours are there in the village communities. Attir of men and women has got a western influence now.

Earlier the community was governed by zamindars, upper castes and panchayats. All of them are gone now and the centralised rules have been made. After the abolition of upper caste rule, higher sections of the society had very little power left. They did not feel any advantage in living in the villages anymore and wanted to explore the urban lifestyle. The introduction of modern means of transport and communication further connected the remote societies to the bigger world and changed their thinking and mindset. People started becoming more aware of the available options in the world and wanted to explore more. The level of contentment was decreasing with the increasing exposure to the outer world. The change had started after the start of British rule in the country.

Apart from agriculture, artisans form like carpenters, weavers, potters, goldsmiths, ironsmiths etc. has formed a major part of the livelihood earners. Later, because of the increasing impact of urban sector, people are trying varied sources of income. Moreover, many artisans from rural sector are now migrating to cities for a better income. And the foreign made product has reduced the demand of hand-crafted ones. So the face of rural livelihood is changing in the modern era.

Earlier, the village communities used to be self-sufficient. Each household used to produce enough food grains for their survival. Very less external aid was required and that too was fulfilled amongst them. They lived like a close knit society. Later, with the introduction of modern era, people in villages started moving to cities to earn their livelihood and as a result village economy showed a major shift. Focus on agriculture and local hand made products was undermined and industrialisation started dominating the financial structure of the village communities.

Land reforms have brought a revolutionary change in the structure of Indian villages. Now the lands are no more the properties of zamindars and jagirdars. The farmers can earn profit on their produce now. Policies have been made to make the farmers aware about the latest developments in the field of agriculture. The commission at every level is no more a concern for the farmers. Industrialisation has created a major scope of employment and has opened



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the secondary sector as well for the source of employment for the rural communities. This has broadened the scope of livelihood and has helped families in increasing their income. Though more people have started migrating to the cities but that can be compensated with the economic growth of the country these labours are bringing by working in the production of goods and services.

Abolishing caste system has improved the society and its mindset. This has helped the community in getting rid of problems like untouchability. The society is progressing because of this reform and would bring a major change in its pace of development. Now the jobs are not assigned based on the caste, creed or religion of the people. In the modern era village, the skill matters the most now instead of the social status of people. The domination of upper caste has gone bringing the society to a fair level of competition based on merit. Even the weaker sections of the society would grow and in the long term and this will reduce the economic and social disparity of the country.

CONCLUSION

An Indian village is composed of endogamous units, each following its own occupation traditionally associated with its caste, locally known as jati. The number of castes a village has varies from one context to another. Large villages have more castes than small villages, but no village has all the castes. Thus, the members of one village depend upon others in their neighbourhood for various services. The Indian village was never self-sufficient as some colonial officers believed. Each village has its own dominant caste, which has very high representation in the political bodies of the village. Often, the decisions they take serve their own interests. At the local level, each caste comprises a set of families, and it has been noticed that there is a close relationship between caste and kinship. Generally, the upper, propertied castes usually have joint families, whilst lower, non-propertied castes have nuclear families. With changes occurring because of urbanization and modernization, the families are becoming smaller all over India, but it does not imply that joint families have disappeared.

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE OF VILLAGES

Rural economics is **the study of rural economies**. Rural economies include both agricultural and non-agricultural industries, so rural economics has broader concerns than agricultural economics which focus more on food systems. Rural development and finance attempt to solve larger challenges within rural economics. What was the economic structure of India village?



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Though agriculture was the main source of livelihood for most people, yet, the country's economy was characterised by **various kinds of manufacturing activities**. There were again two types of agriculturists—the land owning and the tenants. The village community had enjoyed a simple form of self-government

What is Globalization?

Globalization is the free movement of people, goods, and services across boundaries. This movement is managed in a unified and integrated manner. Further, it can be seen as a scheme to open the global economy as well as the associated growth in trade (global). Hence, when the countries that were previously shut to foreign investment and trade have now burned down barriers.

Considering a precise definition, countries that abide by the rules and regulations set by WTO (World Trade Organization) are part of globalization. These procedures include oversees trade conditions among countries. Apart from this, there are other organizations such as the UN and different arbitration bodies available for supervision. Under this, non-discriminatory policies of trade are also enclosed.

IMPACT OF GLOBLIZATION ON VILLAGES



IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION IN INDIA

- ▶ In the last twenty years, globalisation of the Indian economy has come a long way.
- ▶ It has deeply affected the lives of people.
- ▶ Globalisation and greater competition among producers – both local and foreign producers – has been of advantage to consumers, particularly the well –off sections in the urban sections.
- ▶ There is greater choice before these consumers who now enjoy improved quality and lower prices for several products.
- ▶ As a result, these people today, enjoy much higher standards of living than was possible earlier.
- ▶ However, among the producers and workers, the impact of globalisation has not been uniform.

Globalization opened gates for “greater mobility and faster connectivity”. This new trend brought significant changes in rural and agrarian sectors.



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Impact on rural areas–

1. Works and employment are being generated.
2. Connectivity brought awareness regarding various issues. Modern values are being advocated now.
3. Fuelling rural to urban migration. This in turn is increasing inward remittances.
4. Bringing up the culture of nuclear families in rural areas.
5. caste conscious in rural areas has been declining over past few years due to new economic opportunities. Thus social stratification is being impacted.

Impact on agrarian structures–

1. Aiding mechanization of agriculture due to improved productivity
2. Reduction of disguised unemployment in agriculture sector by creating new opportunities in other sectors.
3. Agricultural extension works are now spreading at faster paces due to new means in connectivity.
4. Cropping patterns changed due to advent of Globalisation. Farmers shifted to more commercial crops thus leaving them under vagaries of market for getting food
5. Globalisation created markets abroad. Thus increasing farmer's choices
6. More banks, so more formal credit facilities. Saving them from money lenders
7. Village as a Self-sustaining unit is destroyed. (because of economic forces too)

URBANIZATION ON VILLAGESU

Urbanization (or **urbanisation**) refers to the population shift from rural to urban areas, the corresponding decrease in the proportion of people living in rural areas, and the ways in which societies adapt to this change. It is predominantly the process by which towns and cities are formed and become larger as more people begin living and working in central areas. Although the two concepts are sometimes used interchangeably, urbanization should be distinguished from urban growth. Urbanization refers to the proportion of the total national population living in areas classified as urban, whereas urban growth strictly refers to the absolute number of people living in those areas. It is predicted that by 2050 about 64% of the developing world and 86% of the developed world will be urbanized. That is equivalent to approximately 3 billion urbanites by 2050, much of which will occur in Africa and Asia. Notably, the United



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Nations has also recently projected that nearly all global population growth from 2017 to 2030 will be by cities, with about 1.1 billion new urbanites over the next 10 years.

urbanization impact villages

Urbanization causes the spread of built-up areas (McGee, 2011; Simon et al., 2004), and it results in **increasing poverty and environmental degradation in rural areas** (Marshall et al., 2009).

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural Development in India

Rural development usually refers to the method of enhancing the quality of life and financial well-being of individuals, specifically living in populated and remote areas.

Traditionally, rural development was centred on the misuse of land-intensive natural resources such as forestry and agriculture. However today, the increasing urbanisation and the change in global production networks have transformed the nature of rural areas.

Rural development still remains the core of the overall development of the country. More than two-third of the country's people are dependent on agriculture for their livelihood, and one-third of rural India is still below the poverty line. Therefore, it is important for the government to be productive and provide enough facilities to upgrade their standard of living.

Rural development is a term that concentrates on the actions taken for the development of rural areas to improve the economy. However, few areas that demand more focused attention and new initiatives are:

- Education
- Public health and Sanitation
- Women empowerment
- Infrastructure development (electricity, irrigation, etc.)
- Facilities for agriculture extension and research
- Availability of credit
- Employment opportunities

PROBLEMS OF RURAL SOCIETY

The major problems that have been identified by literature review in many rural areas are **poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, homelessness, crime, social evils, lower living standards, lack of facilities, services, and health**. The poverty, alone, is responsible for lack



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of sanitation, health, food and proper education. According to the latest report by World Bank, it is estimated that the poverty rate in India will increase by 12% due to COVID-19. Thus, widespread poverty is major issue of rural development

Rural Health

As noted, rural areas often lack sufficient numbers of health care professionals, hospitals, and medical clinics. The National Rural Health Association (2012) points out that although one-fourth of the US population is rural, only one-tenth of physicians practice in rural areas. Urban areas have 134 physician specialists for every 100,000 residents, but rural areas have less than one-third this number.

Compounding these shortages are other problems. The first is that the small hospitals typical of rural areas generally lack high-quality care and equipment. A patient who needs heart bypass surgery, brain surgery, or other types of complex medical care is likely to have travel to an urban hospital far away.

The second problem is the long distances that ambulances and patients must travel. Because ambulances and other emergency vehicles must travel so far, rural residents with emergencies receive medical attention more slowly than their urban counterparts. The long distances that people must travel make it more difficult for patients with health problems to receive medical care. For example, a rural cancer patient who needs chemotherapy or radiation might have to travel two to three hours in each direction to receive treatment. Travel distances in rural areas also mean that rural residents are less likely than urban residents to receive preventive services such as physical examinations; screenings for breast cancer, cervical cancer, and colorectal cancer; and vaccinations for various illnesses and diseases.

In yet another problem, rural areas are also much more likely than urban areas to lack mental health care, drug abuse counselling and programs, and other services related to physical and mental health.

For all these reasons, rural residents are more at risk than urban residents for certain health problems, including mortality. For example, only one-third of all motor vehicle accidents happen in rural areas, but two-thirds of all deaths from such accidents occur in rural areas. These problems help explain why rural residents are more likely than urban residents to report being in only fair or poor health in government surveys (Bennett, Olatosi, & Probst, 2009).



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An additional health problem in rural areas arises from the age profile of their populations. Compared to urban areas, rural areas have an “aging population,” or a greater percentage of adults aged 65 and older. This fact adds to the health-care problems that rural areas must address.

Rural Schools and Education

The discussion of education focused mostly on urban schools. Many of the problems discussed there also apply to rural schools. However, rural schools often face hurdles that urban and suburban schools are much less likely to encounter (Center for Rural Policy and Development, 2009).

First, because rural areas have been losing population, they have been experiencing declining school enrollment and school closings. When a school does close, teachers and other school employees have lost their jobs, and students have to rather suddenly attend a new school that is usually farther from their home than their former school.

Second, rural populations are generally older than urban populations, as mentioned earlier, and have a greater percentage of retired adults. Therefore, rural areas’ per-capita income and sales tax revenue are lower than that for urban and suburban areas, and this lower revenue makes the funding of public schools more challenging.

Third, rural families live relatively far from the public schools, and the schools are relatively far from each other. As a result, rural school districts have considerable expenses for transporting children to and from school, after-school athletic events, and other activities.

Finally, it is often difficult to recruit and retain quality teachers in rural areas. This problem has forced some rural school districts to offer hiring bonuses or housing assistance to staff their schools.

Rural Poverty

Although many US cities have high poverty rates, the poverty rate is actually somewhat higher overall in rural areas than in urban areas. In 2010, 16.5 percent of rural residents were classified as officially poor, compared to 14.9 percent of urban residents. However, the poverty rate in the nation’s largest cities was higher yet at 19.7 percent. The number of poor rural residents was almost 8 million, while the number of poor urban residents (reflecting the fact that most Americans live in urban areas) was almost 36 million (DeNavas-Walt, Proctor, & Smith, 2011).



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Rural poverty is thought to be more persistent than urban poverty because of the factors that contribute to its high rate. These factors include the out-migration of young, highly skilled workers; the lack of industrial jobs that typically have been higher paying than agricultural jobs; and limited opportunities for the high-paying jobs of the information age. Biotech companies, electronics companies, and other symbols of the information age are hardly ever found in the nation's rural areas. Instead, they locate themselves in or near urban areas, in which are found the universities, masses of people, and other necessary aspects these companies need to succeed.

Compounding the general problem of poverty, rural areas are also more likely than nonrural areas to lack human services programs to help the poor, disabled, elderly, and other people in need of aid (National Advisory Committee on Rural Health and Human Services, 2011). Because rural towns are so small, they often cannot afford services such as soup kitchens, homeless shelters, and Meals on Wheels, and thus must rely on services located in other towns. Yet rural towns are often far from each other, making it difficult and expensive for rural residents to obtain the services they need. For example, a Meals on Wheels program in an urban area may travel just a few miles and serve dozens of people, while it may have to travel more than one hundred miles in a rural area and serve only a few people. Adding to this problem is the strong sense in many rural areas that individuals should be strong enough to fend for themselves and not accept government help. Even when services are available, some people who need them decline to take advantage of them because of pride and shame.

Domestic Violence

One of the sad facts of rural life is domestic violence. This form of violence is certainly common in urban areas, but the defining feature of rural areas—a relatively low number of people living in a relatively broad area—creates several problems for victims of domestic violence, most of them women (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2009).

SOCIAL CHANGES IN VILLAGE COMMUNITY

Village Community in India

The study of the Indian village began in the 18th century with intensive survey work regarding landholdings. Intensive empirical studies of village social life became popular in the 20th century. The studies by Munro, Metcalfe, Maine and Baden-Powell considered the Indian village as a closed and isolated system. Sir Charles Metcalfe considered the Indian village a



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monolithic, atomistic and unchanging entity. According to Metcalfe, "The village communities are little republics having nearly everything that they want within themselves and almost independent of any foreign relations."

Several anthropologists and sociologists have refuted this view. A large number of studies carried out in the 50s with the assumption that the Indian village was not static, isolated and homogeneous but it is changing had connection with wider society and had social differentiation. Migration, village exogamy, inter-village economic ties, dependence upon towns for markets, division of labour and visits to religious places have also been basic features of the Indian village, breaking its isolation and separation from its vicinity and the wider world.

The restrictions on food, dress, mode of living and other matters imposed under caste system were removed. Even untouchability was weakened. Thus, caste system has now lost its traditional hold in the villages, however, casteism is getting strengthened on account of selfish political interests.



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UNIT 2

GOVERNMENT POLICIES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA

Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) 2005:

- The scheme was introduced as a social measure that **guarantees “the right to work”**.
- The Ministry of Rural Development monitors the entire implementation of this scheme in association with state governments.
- It is the Gram Sabha and the Gram Panchayat which approves the shelf of works under MGNREGA and fixes their priority.
- Social Audit of MGNREGA works is mandatory, which leads to accountability and transparency.
- For the financial year 2021-22, 2.95 crore persons have been offered work, thus, completing 5.98 lakh assets and generating 34.56 crore person-days.

Deen Dayal Antyodaya Yojana – National Rural Livelihoods Mission (DAY-NRLM):

- It is a centrally sponsored programme, launched by the Ministry of Rural Development in June 2011.
- To eliminate rural poverty through the promotion of multiple livelihoods and improved access to financial services for the rural poor households across the country.
- Revolving Fund and Community Investment Fund amounting to approximately Rs. 56 Crore released to women SHGs in FY 2021 as compared to approximately Rs. 32 Crore in the same corresponding period in FY 2020.
- Training on farm and non-Farm based livelihoods, on covid management and promotion of Agri-Nutri gardens.

Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY):

- To provide connectivity, by way of an all-weather road to unconnected habitations.
- Unconnected habitations of designated population size (500+ in plain areas and 250+ in North-Eastern States, Himalayan States, Deserts and Tribal Areas as per 2001 census) in the core network for uplifting the socio-economic condition of the rural population.



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- Highest length of road has been completed under PMGSY in the comparable period over the last 3 years.

Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana – Gramin:

- To achieve the objective of “Housing for All” by 2022, the erstwhile rural housing scheme Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) was restructured to Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana-Gramin (PMAY-G) w.e.f 1st April, 2016.
- To help rural people below the poverty line (BPL) in construction of dwelling units and upgradation of existing unserviceable kutcha houses by providing assistance in the form of a full grant.
- People belonging to SCs/STs, freed bonded labourers and non-SC/ST categories, widows or next-of-kin of defence personnel killed in action, ex servicemen and retired members of the paramilitary forces, Disabled persons and Minorities.
- Beneficiaries are chosen according to data taken from the Socio-Economic Caste Census (SECC) of 2011.
- Highest expenditure amounting to Rs. 5854 Cr in FY 2021-22; double than the FY 2020-21 in the comparable period.

Pradhan Mantri Adarsh Gram Yojana (PMAGY):

- a Government of India initiative for the empowerment of deprived sections, aims to achieve integrated development of selected villages through convergent implementation of all relevant Central and State schemes.

Saansad Adarsh Gram Yojana (SAGY):

- It is a village development project launched by Government of India in October 2014, under which each Member of Parliament will take the responsibility of developing physical and institutional infrastructure in three villages by 2019.
- The Saansad Adarsh Gram Yojana (SAANJHI) was launched on 11th October, 2014.
- The goal is to develop three Adarsh Grams by March 2019, of which one would be achieved by 2016. Thereafter, five such Adarsh Grams (one per year) will be selected and developed by 2024.

National Rurban Mission (NRuM):

- The Shyama Prasad Mukherji Rurban Mission (SPMRM) aims at developing such rural areas by provisioning of economic, social and physical infrastructure facilities.



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- The Mission aims at development of 300 Rurban clusters, in the next five years.
- The National Rurban Mission (NRuM) follows the vision of “Development of a cluster of villages that preserve and nurture the essence of rural community life with focus on equity and inclusiveness without compromising with the facilities perceived to be essentially urban in nature, thus creating a cluster of “Rurban Villages”.
- The objective of the National Rurban Mission (NRuM) is to stimulate local economic development, enhance basic services, and create well planned Rurban clusters.

The National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP)

- It is a welfare programme being administered by the Ministry of Rural Development.
- This programme is being implemented in rural areas as well as urban areas.
- NSAP represents a significant step towards the fulfilment of the Directive Principles of State Policy enshrined in the Constitution of India which enjoin upon the State to undertake within its means a number of welfare measures.
- These are intended to secure for the citizens adequate means of livelihood, raise the standard of living, improve public health, provide free and compulsory education for children etc.
- In particular, Article 41 of the Constitution of India directs the State to provide public assistance to its citizens in case of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement and in other cases of undeserved want within the limit of its economic capacity and development.

GOVERNMENT PLANS AND VILLAGE

- Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) ...
- From Jan Dhan to Jan Suraksha. ...
- Pradhan Mantri Jeevan Jyoti Bima Yojana (PMJJBY) ...
- Pradhan Mantri Suraksha Bima Yojana (PMSBY) ...
- Atal Pension Yojana (APY) ...
- Pradhan Mantri Mudra Yojana. ...
- Stand Up India Scheme. ...
- Pradhan Mantri Vaya Vandana Yojana.

ZAMINDARI ABOLITION



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The Zamindari Abolition Act was **an act that abolished the rights and privileges of the Zamindar intermediaries, bringing agriculture directly under the control of the government.**

Zamindari Abolition Acts

The first important agrarian reform after independence was the abolition of the Zamindari system. The process of passing Zamindari abolition bills had started even when the constitution of India was not enacted. A number of provinces such as United Provinces (UP), Central Provinces, Bihar, Madras, Assam, Bombay had introduced such bills on the basis of a Zamindari Abolition committee, chaired by G.B. Pant. However, there was a widespread concern that the Zamindars would make every effort to cause delay in acquisition of their lands. When constitution was passed, right to property was enshrined as fundamental right under article 19 and 31. The provinces passed the Zamindari Abolition Acts but all these acts were challenged in the court on account of their constitutional validity. The supreme court upheld the rights of Zamindars. To secure the constitutional validity of these state acts, the parliament passed first amendment (1951) within 15 months of enactment of the constitution and second amendment in 1955. By 1956, Zamindari abolition act was passed in many provinces. Due to conferment of land rights, around 30 lakh tenants and share-croppers were able to acquire the ownership rights over a total cultivated area of 62 lakh acres throughout the country due to these acts. On the other hand, the compensation paid to Zamindars was generally small and varied from state to states.

LANDREFORMS

Pre Independence

- Under the **British Raj**, the farmers did not have the ownership of the lands they cultivated, the landlordship of the land lied with the Zamindars, Jagirdars etc.
- Several important issues confronted the government and stood as a challenge in front of independent India.
 - Land was concentrated in the hands of a few and there was a proliferation of intermediaries who had no vested interest in self-cultivation.
 - Leasing out land was a common practice.
 - The tenancy contracts were expropriative in nature and tenant exploitation was almost everywhere.



- Land records were in extremely bad shape giving rise to a mass of litigation.
- One problem of agriculture was that the land was fragmented into very small parts for commercial farming.
 - It resulted in inefficient use of soil, capital, and labour in the form of boundary lands and boundary disputes.

Post Independence

- A committee, under the Chairmanship of J. C. Kumarappan was appointed to look into the problem of land. The Kumarappa Committee's report recommended comprehensive agrarian reform measures.
- The Land Reforms of the independent India had four components:
 1. The Abolition of the Intermediaries
 2. Tenancy Reforms
 3. Fixing Ceilings on Landholdings
 4. Consolidation of Landholdings.
- These were taken in phases because of the need to establish a political will for their wider acceptance of these reforms.

Abolition of the Intermediaries

- **Abolition of the zamindari system:** The first important legislation was the abolition of the zamindari system, which removed the layer of intermediaries who stood between the cultivators and the state.
- The reform was relatively the most effective than the other reforms, for in most areas it succeeded in taking away the superior rights of the zamindars over the land and weakening their economic and political power.
 - The reform was made to strengthen the actual landholders, the cultivators.
- **Advantages:** The abolition of intermediaries made almost 2 crore tenants the owners of the land they cultivated.
 - The abolition of intermediaries has led to the end of a parasite class. More lands have been brought to government possession for distribution to landless farmers.
 - A considerable area of cultivable waste land and private forests belonging to the intermediaries has been vested in the State.



- The legal abolition brought the cultivators in direct contact with the government.
- **Disadvantages:** However, zamindari abolition did not wipe out landlordism or the tenancy or sharecropping systems, which continued in many areas. It only removed the top layer of landlords in the multi-layered agrarian structure.
 - It has led to large-scale eviction. Large-scale eviction, in turn, has given rise to several problems – social, economic, administrative and legal.
- **Issues:** While the states of J&K and West Bengal legalised the abolition, in other states, intermediaries were allowed to retain possession of lands under their personal cultivation without limit being set.
 - Besides, in some states, the law applied only to tenant interests like sairati mahals etc. and not to agricultural holdings.
 - Therefore, many large intermediaries continued to exist even after the formal abolition of zamindari.
 - It led to large-scale eviction which in turn gave rise to several socio-economic and administrative problems.

Tenancy Reforms

- After passing the Zamindari Abolition Acts, the next major problem was of tenancy regulation.
 - The rent paid by the tenants during the pre-independence period was exorbitant; between 35% and 75% of gross produce throughout India.
- Tenancy reforms introduced to **regulate rent, provide security of tenure and confer ownership to tenants.**
 - With the enactment of legislation (early 1950s) for regulating the rent payable by the cultivators, fair rent was fixed at 20% to 25% of the gross produce level in all the states except Punjab, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir, Tamil Nadu, and some parts of Andhra Pradesh.
- The reform attempted either to outlaw tenancy altogether or to regulate rents to give some security to the tenants.
- In West Bengal and Kerala, there was a radical restructuring of the agrarian structure that gave land rights to the tenants.



- **Issues:** In most of the states, these laws were never implemented very effectively. Despite repeated emphasis in the plan documents, some states could not pass legislation to confer rights of ownership to tenants.
 - Few states in India have completely abolished tenancy while others states have given clearly spelt out rights to recognized tenants and sharecroppers.
 - Although the reforms reduced the areas under tenancy, they led to only a small percentage of tenants acquiring ownership rights.

Ceilings on Landholdings

- The third major category of land reform laws were the **Land Ceiling Acts**. In simpler terms, the ceilings on landholdings referred to **legally stipulating the maximum size** beyond which **no individual farmer or farm household could hold any land**. The imposition of such a ceiling was to deter the concentration of land in the hands of a few.
- In 1942 the **Kumarappan Committee** recommended the maximum size of lands a landlord can retain. It was three times the economic holding i.e. sufficient livelihood for a family.
- By 1961-62, all the state governments had passed the land ceiling acts. But the ceiling limits varied from state to state. To bring uniformity across states, a new land ceiling policy was evolved in 1971.
 - In 1972, national guidelines were issued with **ceiling limits** varying from region to region, depending on the kind of land, its productivity, and other such factors.
 - It was 10-18 acres for best land, 18-27 acres for second class land and for the rest with 27-54 acres of land with a slightly higher limit in the hill and desert areas.
- With the help of these reforms, the state was supposed to identify and take possession of surplus land (above the ceiling limit) held by each household, and redistribute it to landless families and households in other specified categories, such as SCs and STs.
- **Issues:** In most of the states these acts proved to be toothless. There were many loopholes and other strategies through which most landowners were able to escape from having their surplus land taken over by the state.
 - While some very large estates were broken up, in most cases landowners managed to divide the land among relatives and others, including servants, in



so-called '**benami transfers**' – which allowed them to keep control over the land.

- In some places, some rich farmers actually divorced their wives (but continued to live with them) in order to avoid the provisions of the Land Ceiling Act, which allowed a separate share for unmarried women but not for wives.

Consolidation of Landholdings

- **Consolidation** referred to reorganization/redistribution of fragmented lands into one plot.
 - The growing population and less work opportunities in non- agricultural sectors, increased pressure on the land, leading to an increasing trend of fragmentation of the landholdings.
 - This fragmentation of land made the irrigation management tasks and personal supervision of the land plots very difficult.
- This led to the introduction of landholdings consolidation.
 - Under this act, If a farmer had a few plots of land in the village, those lands were consolidated into one bigger piece of land which was done by either purchasing or exchanging the land.
- Almost all states except Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Manipur, Nagaland, Tripura and parts of Andhra Pradesh enacted laws for consolidation of Holdings.
- In Punjab and Haryana, there was compulsory consolidation of the lands, whereas in other states law provided for consolidation on voluntary basis; if the majority of the landowners agreed.
- **Advantages:** It prevented the endless subdivision and fragmentation of land Holdings.
 - It saved the time and labour of the farmers spent in irrigating and cultivating lands at different places.
 - The reform also brought down the cost of cultivation and reduced litigation among farmers as well.
- **Result:** Due to lack of adequate political and administrative support the progress made in terms of consolidation of holding was not very satisfactory except in Punjab, Haryana and western Uttar Pradesh where the task of consolidation was accomplished.



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- However, in these states there was a need for re-consolidation due to subsequent fragmentation of land under the population pressure.
- **Need of re-consolidation:** The average holding size in 1970-71 was 2.28 hectares (Ha), which has come down to 1.08 Ha in 2015-16.
- While Nagaland has the largest average farm size, Punjab and Haryana rank second and third in the list respectively.
 - The holdings are much smaller in densely populated states like Bihar, West Bengal and Kerala.
- The multiple subdivisions across generations have reduced even the sub divisions to a very small size.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Community: is a group of people who live in a geographical area and have an interest in each other for the purpose of making a living.

Development: growth or maturation. It implies gradual and sequential phases of change. It refers to the upward or increasing differentiation.

Community Development: It is a movement designed to promote better living for the community with the active participation and/or the initiative at the community. It is a method by which people of villages are involved in helping to improve their own economic and social conditions and thereby they become more effective groups in programmes of their national development.

It is a process of change by which people's efforts are united with those of groupCommunity development in India was **initiated by Government of India through Community Development Programme (CDP) in 1952**. The focus of CDP was on rural communities. But, professionally trained social workers concentrated their practice in urban areas

the main aim of community development programmeIts broad objectives are (I) **economic development, (ii) social justice and (iii) democratic growth**. The attempt is to secure as good a balance as possible among these three objectives and to inter-relate them in a manner that they support one another.

examples of a community development program?



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Some examples of community initiatives are skill enhancement for better livelihood opportunities, infrastructure development such as roads, schools, and parks construction, quality of education and health services in a community, and addressing poverty, inequalities, racism, homophobia, and marginalization through ...

PANCHAYTI RAJ RURAL DEVELOPMENT

introduced Panchayati Raj in India?

The system later came to be known as Panchayati Raj, which was inaugurated by the then Prime Minister **Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru** on 2 October 1959 at Nagour in Rajasthan. Panchayati Raj is **a form of government at the village level where each village is responsible for its own activities**. The Amendment Act of 1992 contains provision for passing the powers and responsibilities to the panchayat for preparation of plans for economic development and social justice

The three levels of Panchayat Raj are:

- A. Village Panchayat, Zone level Panchayat, Panchayat Committee.
- B. District Panchayat, Sub-district Panchayat, Zone Level Panchayat.
- C. Village Panchayat, Block Panchayat, District Panchayat.
- D. Village Panchayat, Panchayat Committee, District Council.

Currently, the Panchayati Raj system exists in **all states except Nagaland, Meghalaya, and Mizoram, and in all Union Territories except Delhi**. The Panchayats receive funds from three sources: Local body grants, as recommended by the Central Finance Commission. Funds for implementation of centrally sponsored schemes.



Unit 3

Rural broadcast

According to Asemah (2011), rural broadcasting connotes **the dissemination and transmission of social development programmes to the rural people, so as to affect their behaviour positively.**

importance of rural broadcasting?

Since most farmers have not been to school, rural radio **acts as a substitute for formal education.** Rural radio enables communities to articulate their experiences and to critically examine issues and policies affecting their lives for example a community can use the radio to highlight new agricultural policies.

major health issues in rural areas in India?

In rural communities, there are significant disparities in important health indicators such as **high rates of infant mortality, malnutrition, maternal mortality, low rates of vaccination, and low life expectancy**

Issues of development of health-Education -Infrastructure

1. Poverty

According to the latest reports by the World Bank, it is estimated that the poverty rates in India will increase to 12% (approximately) due to COVID-19. It declined from 22.1 percent to 8.1 percent between 2011 and 2017. Again, due to the nationwide lockdown poverty level is increasing in India which will become a major issue in rural development.

2. Connectivity

Roads, transport, and mobile communication play an important role in rural development. It connects the people of rural areas to the outside world. In India, many poor communities are isolated due to bad road conditions, inadequate transport, and lack of mobile communication services. Bad connectivity causes many other problems for rural people. Bad road conditions make it difficult for people of rural areas to transport their goods or make it to the workplace, to handle health emergencies. Bad mobile communication causes problems like lack of information and awareness among the rural people.

3. Electricity and water supplies

Progress report of village electrification of 2015 shows that around 19,909 villages are not electrified yet. Even the villages that are electrified are not getting quality power and



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estimation shows that 33% of villages are under electrification. They only have access to less than 50kWh of electricity per month.

HEALTH

Water causes a majority of health diseases. Inadequate or impure water supply is an issue in most rural areas these days. The number of Indians affected by water-borne disease every year is 37.7 million. The death toll is also very high, approximately 1.5 million children die due to diarrhea alone each year. The Indian government spends around \$600 million on health services in rural areas for waterborne disease. Pure water is a necessity and it must reach the people of rural areas.

common health issues?

Most Common Health Issues

- Physical Activity and Nutrition.
- Overweight and Obesity.
- Tobacco.
- Substance Abuse.
- HIV/AIDS.
- Mental Health.
- Injury and Violence.
- Environmental Quality.
- **4. Education/Literacy**

In 2015, the youth literacy rate in India was 90.2% while the adult literacy rate in India was 74.04% in 2011. In India, there is a wide gender gap in literacy rates. In 2011, 82.14% of men were literate while only 65.46% of women were literate. This gap causes a negative impact on population stabilization and family planning. Though we have seen an increase in the female literacy rate in the last decade, there is still a gap that needs to be filled out.

5. Employment

Unemployment is a big issue in India, especially in rural areas. Youth is migrating to urban areas to find jobs while the aged remain in rural areas. The amount of agricultural land is the same but the population is growing. With the increase in agriculture technology, we have seen a decreased rate of employment in the past few years.

6. Migration to urban areas



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The most common reasons why people are migrating to urban areas is the lack of income and lack of opportunities. These are the economic factors, there are also other factors like health, finance, social, education, etc.

7. Land Reforms

Land reforms must be initiated in rural areas. Zamindars and the big landlords have been exploiting poor people since independence. However, the Government of India has taken various steps to get rid of it.

Land reforms enable the use of modern technology to increase production leading to large-scale production with the efficient and optimum use of agricultural land.

There are a few other issues that have a negative impact on rural development. The Government of India is now focused on developing rural areas and creating more opportunities. They have introduced various schemes like Deen Dayal Upadhyay Grameen Kaushal Yojna, Heritage Development and Augmentation Yojna (HRIDAY), Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS), and many more to get the details of schemes offered by the Government of India for rural development.

We may not be able to see the big picture now, but India is developing and so are the rural areas. India is facing few issues now but it will surely resolve those in the coming years. Many private companies and start-ups have stepped up to solve these issues.

SOCIAL CONFLICT

Social conflict is the struggle for agency or power in society. Social conflict occurs when two or more people oppose each other in social interaction, and each exerts social power with reciprocity in an effort to achieve incompatible goals but prevent the other from attaining their own.

In addition to brutally affecting rural communities, conflict often stems from competition for land and natural resources, such as water. Poverty, lack of employment and opportunities of a better future fuels resentment and offers extremists fertile recruiting grounds.

EMPOWERMENT OF WEAKER SECTION

Empowerment of weaker sections includes general strengthening that is the instructive, monetary, political, and social strengthening of the weaker sections. For empowerment of the weaker sections, there are constitutional and statutory provisions available.

KRISHI DARSHAN OF DOORDARSHAN



Krishi Darshan (English: Agriculture Vision) is an Indian television program which premiered on DD National. It premiered on 26 January 1967 and is the longest running television series in India. It is broadcast to 80 villages close to Delhi. In 2015, it was shifted from DD National to DD Kisan, but also airs on the former channel. What is the target audience of Krishi Darshan?

Krishi Darshan, the oldest, most established and best-known TV programme, targeted at **rural communities, particularly farmers**, is a major production which had been the subject of several surveys and studies.

Krishi Darshan

Genre	Agriculture
Country of origin	India
Original language	Hindi
No. of seasons	52
No. of episodes	16000+

Production

Running time	30 minutes (with commercials)
Production company	Doordarshan

Release

Original network	DD National (1967 - 2015) DD Kisan (2015 - present)
Original release	26 January 1967 – present

SITE PROJECT

Satellite Instructional Television Experiment or **SITE** was an experimental satellite communications project launched in India in 1975, designed jointly by NASA and the Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO). The project made available informational television programs to rural India. The main objectives of the experiment were to educate the financially backward and academically illiterate people of India on various issues via satellite



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broadcasting, and also to help India gain technical experience in the field of satellite communications.

The experiment ran for one year from 1 August 1975 to 31 July 1976, covering more than 2400 villages in 20 districts of six Indian states and territories (Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan). The television programs were produced by All India Radio and broadcast by NASA's ATS-6 satellite stationed above India for the duration of the project. The project was supported by various international agencies such as the UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF and ITU. The experiment was successful, as it played a major role in helping develop India's own satellite program, INSAT. The project showed that India could use advanced technology to fulfill the socio-economic needs of the country. SITE was followed by similar experiments in various countries, which showed the important role satellite TV could play in providing education.



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Unit 4

Rural Development Programmes in India

In India, 83.3 percent of the total population of 121 million people live in rural areas (Census of India, 2011). As a result, nearly 70% of India's population lives in rural areas. These rural populations are characterised by widespread poverty, low literacy and income levels, high unemployment, and poor nutrition and health status.

A number of rural development programmes are being implemented to create opportunities for improving the quality of life of these rural people in order to address these specific problems. And it is a process that leads to long-term improvements in the quality of life of rural people, particularly the poor (Ramesh, 2012). Rural development programmes aim to reduce poverty and unemployment, improve health and education, and meet rural residents' basic needs, such as food, shelter, and clothing.

The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), the Rastriya Sama, Vikas Yojana (RSVY), the Indira Awas Yojana (IAY), the Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY), the Integrated Tribal Development Project (ITDP), and the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana were all launched by the Government of India through the Planning Commission of India to improve rural people's conditions (PMGSY).

All of these schemes aim to close the gap between rural and urban people, thereby reducing imbalances and speeding up the development process.

What is Rural Development?

The process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas is referred to as rural development. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is regarded as a "Silver Bullet" for eradicating rural poverty and unemployment by increasing demand for productive labour in villages.

It provides an alternative source of livelihood, which will have an impact on reducing migration, limiting child labour, alleviating poverty, and making villages self-sustaining through productive asset creation such as road construction, water tank cleaning, soil and water conservation work, and so on, for which it has been dubbed the world's largest anti-poverty programme.

Rural development in india



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Rural development is a simple concept that is difficult to put into action. It focuses on the upliftment and development of rural economies that are experiencing severe poverty and effectively aims to increase their productivity. It also emphasises the importance of addressing various pressing issues in village economies that are impeding growth and improving these areas. Some of the areas in India that require immediate attention for rural development are as follows:

National Rural Livelihood Mission

The National Rural Livelihoods Mission was launched in June 2011 with the goal of developing institutional platforms for the rural poor to increase household incomes through livelihood support and access to financial services. This brief assesses the program's accomplishments in its first ten years. It discovers that the Mission has had some success in improving the lives of rural women, who are the program's backbone, and, as a result, their families. These accomplishments are primarily in the areas of social capital development, community mobilisation, and some degree of access to finance. Today, the Mission must shift its focus to livelihoods, particularly in light of the massive economic fallout from the COVID-19 pandemic.

Integrated Rural Development Program

The Integrated Rural Development Program was established to provide poor people with employment opportunities. This scheme not only provides the necessary subsidies to people living below the poverty line, but it also assists them in improving their living conditions.

The Government of India launched the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) in 1978 and implemented it in 1980. The program's goal is to provide poor people with employment opportunities as well as opportunities to develop their skill sets in order to improve their living conditions. The programme is regarded as one of the best yojanas for addressing poverty-related issues by providing necessary subsidies in tandem with job opportunities to those who fall below the poverty line.

Rural areas economic development programmes

The program's goal is to increase rural people's incomes in the mountain provinces of Aragatsotn, Gegharkunik, Lori, Shirak, Syunik, Tavusgh, and Vayots Dzor on a long-term basis. Poverty is widespread in the project area, which covers approximately 80% of Armenia's land area and is home to approximately 40% of the country's total population. Land use and



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cropping patterns changed dramatically after land was privatised, as new smallholder farmers adopted a small-scale, mixed farming system as a means of survival.

Objectives of rural development

The government's objectives for rural development in the sixth five-year plan are as follows:

- Raise rural people's productivity and wages
- Ensure increased and rapid employment opportunities
- To eliminate unemployment and significantly reduce underemployment
- To ensure an improvement in the underprivileged population's standard of living
- To meet basic needs such as elementary education, healthcare, clean drinking water, rural roads, and so on.

Conclusion

A number of rural development programmes are being implemented to create opportunities for improving the quality of life of these rural people in order to address specific problems. Rural development programmes aim to reduce poverty and unemployment, improve health and education, and meet rural residents' basic needs, such as food, shelter, and clothing. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, the Rastriya Sama, Vikas Yojana , the Indira Awas Yojana , the Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana , the Integrated Tribal Development Project , and the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana were all launched by the Government of India through the Planning Commission of India to improve rural people's conditions. All of these schemes aim to close the gap between rural and urban people, thereby reducing imbalances and speeding up the development process.

COCEPT OF PUBLIC SERVICE BROADCAST

television and radio programmes that are broadcast to provide information, advice, or entertainment to the public without trying to make a profit: The channel is trying to reduce its obligations to produce public service broadcasting such as religious programmes. concepts of broadcasting?

In its most common form, broadcasting may be described as the systematic dissemination of entertainment, information, educational programming, and other features for simultaneous reception by a scattered audience with appropriate receiving apparatus.

moto of public service broadcasting?



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All India Radio India's Public Service Broadcaster, the Radio vertical of Prasar Bharati has been serving to inform, educate and entertain its audiences since its inception, living up to its motto – '**Bahujan Hitaya : Bahujan Sukhaya**'.

public service broadcasting in India?

In India, **Prasar Bharati** is India's public broadcaster. It is an autonomous corporation of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (India), Government of India and comprises the Doordarshan television network and All India Radio.

features of public service broadcasting?

Key features of the new guidelines

It is obligatory for all TV channels, including private channels to broadcast content on themes of national importance and socially relevant issues for at least 30 minutes every day. Eight themes have been identified for this purpose.

IMPACT OF BROADCASTING ON DEVELOPMENT

Abstract. Conventional broadcasting has the impressive power to **create shared experiences over huge audiences or even entire populations.** The sharing of such experiences deepens our sense of connectedness with others, which in turn arguably leads to positive effects in society as a whole.

Development broadcasting originated primarily to **carry information on agriculture, health, population control, etc., to the rural masses.** In its very early stages, the problem of access to media was realized.

PLANNING AND SCHEDULING OF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The Executive (Programme Planning and Scheduling) **creates daily, weekly and monthly programme schedules to support broadcast operations.** He/She executes programme schedules by engaging in constant communication with the linear media operations team.

What is the importance of planning and scheduling?





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Planning and scheduling of your resource plays a key role in project management. **It helps you understand the scope of the project ahead of time and manage/assign your resource accordingly.** Besides, it provides an overview of who's responsible for delivering what and by when.

KRISHI DARSHAN

Krishi Darshan (English: Agriculture Vision) is **an Indian television program which premiered on DD National.** It premiered on 26 January 1967 and is the longest running television series in India. It is broadcast to 80 villages close to Delhi.

the target audience of Krishi Darshan?

Krishi Darshan, the oldest, most established and best-known TV programme, targeted at **rural communities, particularly farmers**, is a major production which had been the subject of several surveys and studies.

important is Krishi Darshan program for farmers?

Krishi Darshan **provides the basic information and solves the queries of remote agrarians regarding the agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry etc.** The aim of the program is to disseminate agricultural information to the rural, farming audience etc.

KISAN VANI

Kisan Vani started?

April 1st, 2004: Launch of Kisan Vani Programme from 12 stations.

DD KISSAN

launched DD Kisan Channel?

Prime Minister Shri Modi

As a new initiative for inclusive growth of farmers, **Prime Minister Shri Modi** launched DD Kisan channel for farmers on 26 May 2015, with the aim of serving the agriculture and rural community in the country and creating an environment of holistic development by educating them.

DD Kisan launch

26th May 2015



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A full-fledged television channel (DD Kisan Channel) for the farmers was launched on **26th May 2015** by the Hon'ble Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi as a new initiative for the inclusive growth of the farmers

What is the address of DD Kisan?



DD Kisan in Khel Gaon, Delhi is known to satisfactorily cater to the demands of its customer base. The business came into existence in 2015 and has, since then, been a known name in its field. It stands located at **CPC, Doordarshan, Asian Games Village, Near Shee Fort Auditorium, BHEL Office, Khel Gaon-110049...**

A full-fledged television channel (DD Kisan Channel) for the farmers was launched on 26th May 2015 by the Hon'ble Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi as a new initiative for the inclusive growth of the farmers. The objective of this channel is to serve the farming and rural community in India and its reach to the remotest parts of the country, to inform and educate the rural populace and work towards creating a holistic environment for sustainable and inclusive growth. The channel has content catering to the rural and farming community. The programmes are of variety of genres such as core agriculture non-fiction, fiction and reality shows.



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UNIT 5

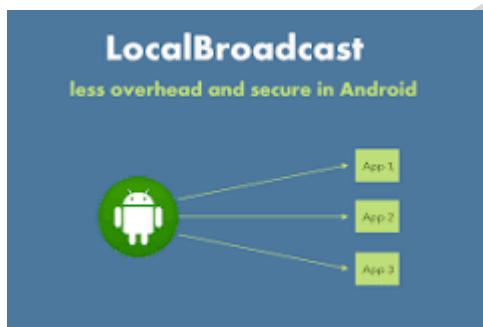
FUTURE OF BROADCASTING

The future of news lies in creative content formats such as short videos and pricing innovation leveraging the digitalisation of payments through UPI. The use of disruptive technologies such as sensors, AI, and direct-to-mobile for broadcasting over 5G will be a key differentiator within the competitive landscape

future of radio broadcasting In the future, **radio will be everywhere**. The possibilities are endless and will continue to multiply. The consoles, connected watches and TV's that we use every day will be just another way in which radio stations can broadcast and increase their audience numbers.

CONCEPT OF LOCAL BROADCAST

Local broadcasting means the transmission of speech, music, images and the like by wire or over the air, intended for direct reception by the public within geographically delimited areas. What is local broadcast?



Broadcast receiver is **an Android component which allows you to send or receive Android system or application events**.

FM RADIO

FM broadcasting began on 23 July 1977 in Chennai, then Madras, and was expanded during the 1990s, nearly 50 years after it mushroomed in the US. The country first experimented with private FM broadcasts in the small tourist destination of Goa and the large metropolitan areas of Delhi, Kolkata, Mumbai and Chennai. **FM broadcasting** is the method of radio broadcasting that uses frequency modulation (**FM**). Invented in 1933 by American engineer Edwin Armstrong, wide-band FM is used worldwide to transmit high-fidelity sound over broadcast radio. FM broadcasting offers higher fidelity—more accurate reproduction of the original program sound—than other broadcasting techniques, such as AM broadcasting. It is also less



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susceptible to common forms of interference, having less static and popping sounds than are often heard on AM. Therefore, FM is used for most broadcasts of music and general audio (in the audio spectrum). FM radio stations use the very high frequency range of radio frequencies.

RURAL BROADCASTS

rural broadcasting?

The findings show that rural broadcasting plays a crucial role in communicating development messages to the people in the rural communities; findings further show that rural broadcastings **provide information on health, education, government programmes, and agricultural related issues.**

What do you mean by interactive program?

An interactive program is **a computer software program that requires user interaction to operate.** This interaction could include inputting information, modifying information, managing information or otherwise manipulating data. Most software programs are interactive

PARTICIPATORY PROGRAMMES

Participatory programs involve employees in all levels of the organization in the design of interventions. Our studies show that when front-line employees have a central role in designing workplace interventions, they provide valuable insights on how to improve health and safety in the workplace.

COMMUNITY RADIO

community radio concept?

Community radio usually is a short-range, not-for-profit radio station or channel that caters for the information needs of people living in a particular locality, in the languages and formats that are most adapted to the local context.

What are the examples of community radio?

Community Radio Stations

S.No	CR Station	Category
3	Radio Vikalp	NGO
4	Radio Jagriti	NGO
5	Radio Mattoli	NGO



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benefits of community radio?

Community radio **helps to ensure people's right to information and community participation by expressing the voice and thoughts of grassroots people in the development process.** What is the role of community radio in India?



The community radios acted as a **bridge between the district administration and the community members.** All relevant information and messages were passed on through community radio reporters.



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