

**SOCIAL CAPITAL, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHANDEL DISTRICT, MANIPUR**

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PHILOSOPHY**

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**SOCIAL CAPITAL, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHANDEL DISTRICT, MANIPUR**

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February, 2024

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis *Social Capital, Community Participation and Rural Development in Chandel District, Manipur* submitted by Mr. N. Samuel Douminthang Baite for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Work is carried out under my guidance and incorporates the student's bonafide research and this has not been submitted for award of any degree in this or any other university or institute of learning.

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DECLARATION

I, N. Samuel Douminthang Baite, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institute.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- A/C : Assembly Constituency
- ACDA: Asian Centre for Development Administration
- ADC : Autonomous District Council
- AKT : Any Kuki Tribe
- ANOVA: Analysis of Variance
- ASHA: Accredited Social Health Activist
- BDO : Block Development Officer
- BRGF : Backward Regions Grant Fund
- SP : Superintendent of Police
- CD : Community Development
- CSD : Canteen Stores Department
- CM : Congregation of the Mission
- CSC : Common Service Centre
- CSO : Civil Society Organisation
- CSR : Corporate Social Responsibilities
- CTA : Central Tibetan Administration
- CYA : Catholic Youth Association
- DAO : District Agriculture Officer
- DC : Daughters of Charity
- DC : Deputy Commissioner/District Collector
- DFID : The British Department for International Development
- DFO : District Forest Officer
- EMP : Eastern Manipur Presbytery
- FCC : Franciscan Clarist Congregation
- FEMA: Federal Management Emergency Administration
- IAPA : International Association for Public Participation
- ICICI : Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India
- KCC : Kuki Christian Church
- LEP : Look East Policy
- LIC : Life Insurance Company

LPG : Liquefied Petroleum Gas
LSTS : Lugsung Samdupling Tibetan Settlement
MDC : Member of District Council
MGNRES: Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Scheme
MLA : Member of Legislative Assembly
MO : Medical Officer
MPS : Manipur Police Service
NeKYDO: New Keiphom Youth Development Organisation
NeRCORMP : North Eastern Region Community Resource Management Project
NGO : Non-Governmental Organisation
P. G : Post Graduate
PWD : Public Works Department
SABS : Sisters of the Adoration of the Blessed Sacrament
SBI : State Bank of India
SD : Standard Deviation
SDC : Sub-Divisional Commissioner
SDO : Sub-Divisional Officer
SEC : Socio-Economic Category
SH : Sacred Heart
SHG : Self-Help Groups
SO : Section Officer
SOCAT: Social Capital Assessment Tool
SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Science
SSND : Social Networks of the Dutch
SWO : Social Welfare Organisation
TD : Tribal Development
TDLS : Tibetan Dirkey Larsoe Settlement
VA : Village Authority
VLW : Village Level Worker

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study is an attempt to probe into the bearing of social capital on rural community development in the tribal context of Chandel District, Manipur.

Man, being a social being, requires the company of his fellow beings to lead a happy and prosperous social life. There is always a desire to grow and change for the better so that life can be more meaningful and worth living. Whether one lives in the city or village, in urban areas or rural areas, there is always the need for improvement in living conditions, health and economic well-being, infrastructure, and so on. Following the maxim 'self-help through mutual help,' man can get what he requires from society by contributing to society through their participation. Social work as a subject and profession has been dwelling on different aspects of the development and well-being of communities. Social capital is recognized as a useful concept for progressive social work.

As Putnam (2000) puts it, 'a society characterized by generalized reciprocity is more efficient than a distrustful society, for the same reason that money is more efficient than barter'. Family and friends constitute the 'safety net' when we face crises in life. So, for safety and better access to resources, human beings get connected with the people and institutions around them.

The concept of social capital gained momentum in the later part of the 20th century and many scholars, researchers, and philosophers have come to use the term in many social science studies. The basic idea of "social capital" is that one's family, friends, and associates constitute an important asset, one that can be called upon in a crisis, enjoyed for its own sake, and/or leveraged for material gain (Woolcock and Narayan 2000). Social capital provides useful support when it is needed. The first use of the term is attributed to L. J Hanifan (1916), who was a state supervisor of rural schools in West Virginia. He mentioned social capital in his article "The Rural School Community Centre" regarding local support for rural schools in reference to social cohesion and personal investment in the community in 1916.

However, the concept was not widely used until the later part of the twentieth century. It gained momentum among sociologists, economists, researchers, and

philosophers. The modern use of the idea was believed to have been reinvented in the 1950s by a team of Canadian urban sociologists, in the 1960s by an exchange theorist (Homans 1961) and an urban scholar (Jacobs 1961), and in the 1970s by an economist (Loury 1977). Some trace the modern usage of the term to Jane Jacobs in the 1960s. However, she did not explicitly define the term social capital but used it in an article with a reference to the value of networks. The American sociologist James Coleman credits the term to economist Glenn Loury and adopted Glenn Loury's (1977) definition in developing and popularizing the concept. Häuberer (2011) considered Bourdieu and Coleman as the founding theorists of social capital because they introduced the term social capital systematically for the first time.

The idea of social capital in spite of its usefulness in understanding and measuring development disappeared for several decades after Lynda J Hanifan (1916). It reappeared with significant improvement in the uses and clarity of the concept. Different theorists and researchers in the field came up with definitions that would best explain the term based on their understanding. One of the earliest sociologists and theorists to give a full definition of the term was James Coleman (1988). He defines social capital as 'an asset embedded in relationships that facilitates instrumental action among people and the sharing of knowledge and resources from one person to another.' He introduced social capital to the social sciences by claiming that the relationships formed between human beings are responsible for the harmonization of healthy social institutions. His definition of social capital as a set of socio-structural resources has two characteristics in common: they all consist of some aspect of a social structure and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure.

Following Coleman was Robert David Putnam, an American political scientist whose interest was in comparative politics. His important works 'Making Democracy Work' in 1993 and 'Bowling Alone' in 2000 made a great impact on the development and discussion of the social capital concept. To Putnam (1993) "social capital" refers to features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trusts, which facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit'. Following a similar idea to Putnam, the World Bank (2007) defines social capital as "... the

institutions, relationships, and norms that shape the quality and quantity of a society's social interactions. Social capital is not just the sum of the institutions which underpin a society—it is the glue that holds them together". According to Imandoust (2011), 'social capital refers to the networks of social relations that may provide individuals and groups with access to resources and support.' Social capital can be defined as resources embedded in a social structure that is accessed and/or mobilized in purposive actions (Lin 2001)

Social capital has been a widely used concept throughout the social sciences - in sociology, political science, anthropology, and economics, to name a few. It is found that there is no single, universally accepted definition of social capital (Kawachi *et al.*2013). The qualitative nature of the concept has added to this complicacy. Topics such as status attainment, social mobility, competitive advantage and advancement in economic organizations, political participation, and psychological and physical well-being are being examined using the concept of social capital (Portes 1998).

Many scholars generally accepted the fact that social capital is a multifaceted concept that deals with many aspects of human life irrespective of their background. Bourdieu and Coleman viewed social capital as resources embedded in relationships among actors, although they were constructed in different contexts while Putnam viewed social capital from the context of civic engagement, trust, and norms of reciprocity (Hauberer, 2011). The committee on Economic Development (1995) also defined social capital as 'the resources embedded in social relationships among persons and organizations that facilitate cooperation and collaboration in communities.' In defining social capital proponents fundamentally agreed on two general perspectives- one at the individual level and another at the group level. The former focus on the profits gained by the individual in using social capital (e.g., getting a job) and then later focus on how certain groups develop and maintain more or less social capital as a collective asset and how it has enhanced the group members (Lin, 2001).

Michael Woolcock and Deepa Narayan, (1999) identified two implications of social capital research for development theory and policy. The *first* implication is

that the concept of social capital offers a way to bridge sociological and economic perspectives, thereby providing potentially richer and better explanations of economic development. The *second* implication is that economic growth is shaped by the nature and extent of social interactions between communities and institutions.

Dwelling on the dimensions of social capital related to community development such as networks and memberships, social trusts, and collective action and reciprocity, Yokoyama and Ishida (2006) demonstrated the usefulness of the concept of social capital to formulate effective community development programs to enhance the well-being of rural dwellers. Blair and Carroll (2008) explaining the usefulness of social capital as a tool for community development stated that ‘social capital can be used for bonding or uniting individuals within a group or network as well as bridging or overcoming vertical barriers with unequal social status or power to work together.’ In this regard, rural development, which is achieved through the collective action of the member of the community, has close connections with social capital. Social capital by itself is not collective action but the norms of reciprocity within social networks help in promoting and facilitating collective action which is essential for any community development.

Rural development studies have gained momentum in the socio, economic and political spheres. In underdeveloped and developing countries the term is widely used. The concentration of India’s large population in the rural areas made this more relevant and significant. Rural development in simple terms means a desired positive change or improvement in the quality of life in rural areas. The term rural means ‘an area marked by the non-urban style of life, occupation; social organization, and settlement pattern and development would mean a positive change both qualitative and quantitative.’ The census of India 2011 defines rural in relation to the urban definition. It says “All areas other than urban are rural,” and further pointed out revenue villages as basic units of rural areas.

According to Moseley (2003) “rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas.” Rudengren et al. (2012) also define rural development as a process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in a

relatively isolated and sparsely populated area. Jeong's (1997) definition of rural development brings about the importance of people's participation and commitment as a group in the developmental process. He defines rural development as "a chain of processes that brings improvement in the living conditions for people in local communities through people's participation and commitment as a group." World Bank (1975) defined rural development as implying the improvement in the living standard of masses of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of development self-sustaining."

Though there are many scholars working on development challenges that support the social capital approach, there are a few critics who express their reservations. DeFelippis (2001) argues that contemporary interest in social capital by community developers, theorists, funders, and practitioners is misguided and needs to be thoroughly rethought. He feels that when economic parameters are basic to community development, the separation of social capital from economic capital by Robert Putnam (1993) becomes flawed. Therefore, he thinks that social networks should be oriented towards realising greater control and power over the flow of capital and the power needed to get the maximum out of the networks. Durlauf, (1999), highlighted the conceptual ambiguity of social capital whether social capital should be defined in terms of its effects or its characteristics.

However, a few social scientists do recognize both positive and negative consequences of social capital. For instance, Alejandro Portes (1998) observed four negative effects of social capital: exclusion of outsiders, excess claims on group members, restrictions on individual freedom, and downward levelling norms. George Wiesinger (2007) also recognizes the possibility of social exclusion and rejection of incomers who wants to join close groups. All these negative effects exist in contrast to the commonly celebrated social good of social capital. Another disadvantage of social capital is the cost-effectiveness which requires 'substantial investment in development and maintenance of relationships' (Kapucu, 2011).

The study will try to focus on the nature and extent of social capital and community participation among eight rural communities and its relationship with rural development in Chandel District, Manipur.

1.1. Overview of Literature

From the second half of the 20th century, the concept of Social Capital has captured the imagination and attention of a wide range of scholars and professionals in diverse disciplines and practices. Social capital is gaining prominence in social work discourse as it plays a vital role in social and economic mobility (Foster & Maas, 2014).

There is copious literature on social capital and its relation to different aspects of governance and development at various levels. There are a number of studies on various aspects or strategies of development. For instance, there are studies on microfinance and Self-Help Groups and their relation to social capital (Basargekar, 2010; Vargheese, 2009), social capital in community development and local governance (Kilpatrick, 2003; Khawlhing & Kanagaraj 2007, Baite, 2017, Halstead and Deller, 2017), social capital and sustainable development (see Arbab, 2011), social capital and adult education (Mcclenaghan, 2000), social capital and rural development (Dufhues et. al. 2006; D. Egyetem 2016; Tajuddin, 2011).

Studies on social capital have been undertaken at different levels. There are some studies undertaken at the national level (Rashid Hassan & Patrick Birungi, 2011; Somaratne, et al 2011), state and local levels (Krishna and Uphoff, 1999), and household levels (Baiyegunhi, 2013).

There are attempts to conceptualize and operationalize social capital at different levels. Measurement of social capital is an important area where there are a number of studies. As social capital is related to social structure and network social network methodologists have developed instruments for measuring it. The three measurement instruments commonly used to measure social capital are the Name Generator/interpreter (McCallister & Fischer, 1978), the Position Generator (Lin & Dumin, 1986), and the Resource Generator (van der Gaag & Snijders, 2005).

Among the three measurement instruments, the position generator is used in this study. Various studies have been reviewed on the concept (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996), (Lin and Dumin, 1986), types (Verhaeghe and Li, 2015), (Lin and Dumin, 1986), (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008), and usages (Gaag, Snijders, and Flap,

2008), Yang-chih-fu (2008), Flap and Volker (2008), (Lin, Yang-chih Fu, and Hsung, 2001) of the measurement.

Reid (2000) opined that community participation as one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. The concept of community and community participation are studied by various authors. Mattessich and Monsey (2004: 56) and the National Research Council 1975 (as cited in Mattessich and Monsey 2004) understands community as a group of people living together in a given geographical area with common interest and social ties. Kallabaka (1989), Chowdhury (1996), Brager, Specht, and Torczyner (1987) deals with the concept of participation. Hamdi (1994), World Bank (2004) Oni (2015) deals with the meaning of community participation which is understood as people's participation in a cause to achieve a common goal. International Association for Public Participation (IPA2-1990) points out the core values of community participation while Mikkelsen, (1995) presents the various forms community participation.

Community development is another important area in the present study. The concept is well defined by the United Nations (as quoted in Head, 197, (Mukerji, 1961). (Korten 1990) and the United Nations (1999). The relation between community development, in both urban and rural and social capital are also widely studied (Matthew Moris, 1998), Woolcook and Narayan (2000), Ali and Mansor (2003), Ali (2005), Yokoyama and Ishida (2006), Sakurai (2006, Jaco Vermaak (2009). Thissen (2009), Prema Basargekar, 2010, Hassan and Birungi (2011), Freuchte (2011), Elizabeth Arbab (2011). Lakpa Choden (2012), Kildos, (2013), Baiyegunhi, (2013) and others.

Understanding the rural context (Hawley et al, 2016; Census of India 2011; Lele & Adu-Nyako, 1991) and rural development (Singh, 1986; World Bank in Ekpo and Olaniyi, 1995; Moseley, 2003; Rudengren et al. 2012, Jeong, 1997; Rowley,1996; and Madhu, 2000, Rudengren et al. 2012; etc.) is also an important component in this study. Studies on social capital and rural development had been made at the international, national, and regional levels (Dufhues et al, 2006; Jain 2011). Social capital is also used in relation to rural agriculture (Rivera et al (2018), rural marginalization (Wiesinger, 2007) rural risk management (Sorensen, 2000), etc.

1.2 Theoretical Perspectives

The two major functions of theory in social sciences are explanation and prediction of phenomena. “Without a clear conceptualization, social capital may soon become a catch-all term broadly used about anything that is ‘social’ Lin, Fu, Hsung (2001). For good research, a strong theoretical base is a must. The theoretical perspectives of social capital and rural development to be used in the present study are highlighted in this section.

1.2.1 Social Capital

Bourdieu and Coleman are the founding theorists of social capital because they introduced the term social capital systematically for the first time (Häuberer, 2011). They both agreed on social capital as resources embedded in networks. The core idea of the social capital theory is that social networks have value (Putnam, 2000). Putnam’s work focuses on civic engagement for the formation and sustenance of social capital. The premise behind the notion of social capital is rather simple and straightforward: investment in social relations with expected returns. This return or profits received can be seen from two levels- whether the profit is accrued for the group or the individual (Lin 2001). Social capital theories focus on the resources that are attached to one’s social relationships and how access to those resources benefits the actor. In this context Nan Lin (2001) defines resources as valued goods in a society, however consensually determined, the possession of which maintains and promotes an individual’s self-interest for survival and preservation. A significant part of social capital concepts or theories revolves around the network perspective from the network perspective as given by Sabatini (2006) social capital can be classified into the following:

i. ***The ‘Bonding network’***: This refers to relations amongst relatively homogenous groups such as family members and close friends and is similar to the notion of strong ties. Bonding social capital is often described as horizontal ties between individuals within the same social group (as opposed to vertical ties between social groups. This type of social capital is exclusive in nature. This form of social capital is sometimes by choice or necessity, inward-looking and tends to enforce exclusiveness and maintains homogeneity of identity.

ii. *The 'Bridging network'*: This refers to relations with distant friends, associates and colleagues. It places the actors at structural holes where each is able to tap into the social network resources of each other's social group. This is also described as vertical ties often operating through formal hierarchical structures. This is inclusive in nature. It may also include civil rights movements, youth service groups and ecumenical religious organisations.

iii. *The 'Linking network'*: This refers to relations between individuals and groups in different social strata in a hierarchy where power, social status, and wealth are accessed by different groups. In many ways linking social capital is similar to bridging social capital.

In the present study Putnam's (2000) civic engagement theory and Lin's (2001) social resources perspective are used to understand and measure social capital.

Civic Engagement

In the late 20th century, the term social capital has been widely popularised by Putnam, an American political scientist. According to him "social capital" refers to features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trusts, which facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit' (Putnam, 1993). His concept of social capital has three important components - moral obligations and norms, social values (especially trust) and social networks (especially voluntary associations). Social networks are the results of one's engagements in civic activities or civic engagements. Civic engagement can be understood as the participation or involvement of members of the community in both political and non-political activities with the aim to safeguard the social values, address public concerns or to bring about a change in the community. The civic engagement theory of Putnam states that "social capital is built up through group members' involvement in voluntary civic organizations." According to him, group members' engagement in voluntary civic activities gives mutual benefits as the trust and norms that results from the social organisation provides a platform or forum for cooperation. In his book 'Bowling Alone' Putnam (1995) gives different forms of civic engagements – political (voting, participation in public meetings or rallies), religious (ceremonious and services), school (in Parent Teacher Association), works (labour unions) and

service groups (philanthropic organisations). The engagement can take place both at the individual level or at the community level. Putnam believes that civic engagement is directly linked the 'quality of life and performance of social institutions' and when dealing with public issues like poverty, education, unemployment, crime and drug abuse, community with higher or better quality of civic engagement have higher success rate.

Social resources

Coleman (1988) introduced the concept of social capital as a resource in the theory of rational action in his article "Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital". He defines social capital as 'an asset embedded in relationships that facilitates instrumental action among people and the sharing of knowledge and resources from one person to another.' Almost in line with Coleman's understanding of social capital as a resource, Nan Lin (2001) defines social capital as 'resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilised in purposive action.' From his definition there are three components in social capital. They are 'resources embedded in a social structure; accessibility to such social resources by individuals; and use or mobilization of such social resources by individuals in purposive actions' Lin (2001) He also stated that in his social resource theory (Lin, 1982) that valued resources in most societies are represented by wealth, power and status. These resources can be tangible (money, information, goods, opportunities) and non-tangible (affection, trust, altruism). In his social resource theory, he precisely propounded that "access to and use of social resources (resources embedded in social networks) can lead to better socioeconomic status." Through social relations or social networks an individual or an actor can borrow or capture the resources of those others in the network for his/her benefits. Therefore, from the given definition of social capital and its expansion of the concept a theoretical assertion on social resources embedded in social networks is formulated. The theory, can, thus, be used for identifying the sources of social capital and the benefits to social capital. Lin (2001) identified three principal sources for social capital: (1) *structural positions* – this is the ego's position in the hierarchical structure of social classification. It is the strength of position held by the actor. (2) *network locations* –

the location of the actor in the social networks exhibits give access different types of social capital. (3) *purposes of action* – maintaining and using a particular network/contact for as specific purpose. In connection to these principles Burt (1990) talks about individual nodes that help in mobilising bridging social capital and Granovetter (1973, 1974) put forward the strength of weak ties in which he brought forth the benefits of weak ties over strong ties in access to employment opportunities, promotions, and wages. Nan Lin (2005) viewed that “if social capital is assumed to capture valued resources in social relations, network locations should facilitate, but not necessarily determine, access to better embedded resources.” According to him “the types of network locations evoke resources in order to generate returns depend on the type of returns one expects.”

When considering the process of the flow of social capital to produce expected returns Lin (2005) pointed out two theoretical approaches that need to be considered. The first approach is based on capacity of the resources – social capital embedded in social networks. Here, the greater the capacity of the resources better benefits are expected. There are linkages between the accessed social capital and the benefits from that accessed. The second approach is based on utility. Here, it says that if the social capital is used more, there is more benefits.

Social capital measures are constructed to reflect the contacts’ diversity and range of resources (education, occupation) as well as characteristics (gender, race, age). The ego-network sampling technique is a widely used measurement of social capital. They are the name generator, position generator, and resource generator.

i) *The name generator:* The technique draws out a list of ties from the ego, and the relationships between them as well as among them are identified. It can show the location of ego as well as the ties and points out the network location.

ii) *The position-generator:* The technique as given by Lin & Dumin (1986) uses a sample of structural positions that are salient in a society (occupations, authorities, work units, class, or sector) and asks respondents to indicate contacts (e.g., those known on a first-name basis), if any, in each of the positions. Survey researchers using the position generator method ask respondents whether they know anyone in their social network with occupation from a limited list of different

occupations representative of the national population (Lin and Dumin, 1986; Lin et al., 2001; Van der Gaag, 2005).

iii) *The resource generator:* This has some similarities with the position generator. However, Resource Generator information directly refers to accessed social resources instead of occupational prestige in the position generator.

Measurement of social capital has been one of the focal points of debate and research because of its complexity. The measurement has to bring out the network locations and the resources embedded in those networks. Other components like the size, density, cohesiveness, and closeness of social networks, and composition of networks (homophily and heterogeneity) are also important components of the measurement.

Inductive and Deductive Measures

The IRT (item response theory) model was used to derive the inductive measures of social capital from the three sets of data collected through the position generator. The procedure followed is like the ones adopted in the earlier studies where position generators (Lin & Dumin, 1986) and resource generators (Van der Gaag, M.P.J. & Snijders, T.A.B, 2005) were used. Cumulative Moken scaling which is non-parametric as given by Ganzeboom and Treiman, 2013) was used. The 'Mokken'-scale analysis was done with the help of a statistical software developed by Ark (2007) in the R platform for all the three sets of social capital measurement items in the questionnaire to identify latent traits in social capital because cumulative models are closest in meaning to the idea of having 'more' or 'less' access to subcollections of social capital. There is a trade-off between reliability and homogeneity during the scaling process; we decided to concentrate on scales with sufficient reliability, leading to scales with rather poor homogeneity. These investigations lead to the discovery of subscales that have a cumulative nature. This implies respondents who access very unpopular items on a scale would also access more popular items on the same scale at the population level.

Deductive measures of social capital are those scores derived directly from the data using the theoretical propositions; social resources theory of Nan Lin (1986) in the present study. From the responses received from the items in Position

Generator there are about six possible measures through which access to and use of the resources embedded in the social networks could be measured. Lin and Dumin (1986) have given three traditional position generator measures viz, *i) highest excess prestige* (the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation); *ii) range in accessed prestige*:(the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige) *iii) the number of positions accessed* (the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone) (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008). In addition to these, Van der Gaag et al (2008) added two more measures viz *i) the average accessed prestige* (the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows/uses, and *ii) total accessed prestige* (the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations).”

1.2.2 Community Participation

Community participation may be understood as the involvement of members of the community in project or activities taken up in the locality or community. Community participation in rural development and other development-oriented activities is not a new concept in social science studies. For a tribal community the concept, though not understood or studied scientifically, is not new as the customs and traditions, norms and practices endorse collective responsibility and keep people accountable (Kasar 2019). It is generally believed that people’s participation can increase efficiency by giving ownership and responsibility to the development programmes implemented for them. Participation from and by the community enables them to associate themselves with the program and projects taken up in their area.

Reid (2000) opined community participation as one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. In a modern democracy, community participation is vital for its success. Hamdi (1994) defined community participation as the process by which professionals, families, community groups, and government officials get together to work out something preferably in a formal or informal partnership. World Bank (2004) viewed Community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. According to Oni (2015), ‘the concept of

people's / community participation can be referred to as the active involvement of the rural people in the decision and matters that concern their wellbeing. It includes active participation in their need's identification, solution planning, and implementation'. Oni's reference on community participation covers a wide range of participation throughout the development process. The concept of community participation also links with the concept of democracy where peoples' participation is of utmost importance for its success.

There is a common agreement by many people that community participation is critical in developmental programs. The need and significance of community participation in any development process have been documented by various development workers and scholars. This is mainly because development is not solo faceted but multifaceted involving and affecting the people and the environment, they live in. On the other hand, though community participation is seen to be helpful and critical in developmental programmes and project, the efficacy of it need to be evaluated from different angles. As identified by Karl (2000) rural development projects and programmes need to evaluate from three main aspects of participation namely; the extent and quality of participation, costs, and benefits of participation to the different stakeholders, and the impact of participation on outcomes, performance and sustainability.

1.2.3 Rural Development

The rural development concept is a subset of development and therefore does not have any universally accepted specific theory of its own. Among the theories related to rural development, the *Human Capital Model of Development* as elaborated by Theodore Schultz (1964) is most suitable in the context of the present study. The model emphasizes on a person's experience, tenure, education, training, and health.

Rural development will be measured from household living conditions (Jeong, 1997) economic well-being (Moseley, 2003; Rudengren et al. 2012), and infrastructure development in the community. According to the World Development report of 1994 infrastructures include *public utilities* - power, telecommunications, piped water supply, sanitation and sewerage, solid waste collection and disposal, and

piped gas. *Public works* - roads, major dams, and canal works for irrigation and drainage. *Other transport sectors*-urban and inter-urban railways, urban transport, ports and waterways, and airports (World Bank, 1994).

1.3 Research Gaps

In spite of copious literature on the theoretical, conceptual, operational, and methodological aspects of social capital and rural development, the following few research gaps could be identified.

Firstly, studies on social capital and rural development are very few in the context of India, northeast India, and Manipur.

Secondly, there are fewer studies on the role of social capital in the development of tribal communities.

Thirdly, in the Indian studies on social capital, the concept of social capital has rarely been operationalized from the perspective of social networks though it is essentially networking based conceptualisation. Theoretical perspectives such as Lin's (2001) social resources theory and Putnam (1993) civic engagement have not been adequately utilized in the Indian context. Hence, more rigorous instruments for operationalisation such as name generators, position generators, and resource generators have been rarely used in the Indian context for studying the bearing of social capital on community development. The present study tries to fill these research gaps.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Chandel district lies in the south-eastern part of Manipur. It is 61 kms away from the state capital, Imphal. The district has three Sub-Divisions and four Tribal Development Blocks Viz. Chandel SDO/TD Block, Chakpikarong SDO/TD Block, Khengjoi SDO/TD Block and Khangbarol TD Block (which is under Khengjoi Sub-Division).

It is one of the tribal districts of the state with one MLA constituency reserved for Schedule Tribes (ST). It was one among the three most backward districts in the state receiving Backward Region Grant Fund (BRGF) implemented by Ministry of Panchayati Raj (MoPR). With the delinking of BRGF from central government's budgetary support from 2015-2016, the district become the lone

district in the state to be listed among the 112 aspirational districts under NITI Aayog. According to the 2011 census the district (including the present Tengnoupal district) was the second least populated district in Manipur. The hilly terrains, poor transport and communication, poor infrastructures and basic services in the district keeps the district to lag behind others.

Observation at the peripheral level, the villages in the foothills are seemingly better in many developmental and services aspects. The possible gap that lies between the hilly regions and the foothill is another area of interest in developmental studies.

Network and support systems are important part of social work practice. Network analysis in social support systems both focuses on organised support group that can helpful for those people within the social networks in times of need. In this context, the present study probes into the bearing of social capital on the development in the rural areas at community and household levels. Social capital is conceptualized from the perspectives of social resources (Lin, 2001), and civic engagement or people's participation (Putnam, 2000). Rural development is operationalized in terms of objective and subjective indicators of community development. The living conditions of the households constitute the objective indicators while people's satisfaction over community services constitute the subjective aspect of community development. The dynamic relationship between access to and use of social resources and community participation as well as subjective and objective dimensions of community development are contextualised in terms of the community structures. The community profiles of the villages are presented in terms of their physical and temporal features as well as demographic, social, and economic composition.

The result of the study will benefit social workers, policymakers, development planners, civil society organisations, and social workers engaged in community development at multilevel. The knowledge base of the policymakers in the state of Manipur in particular, the North East, and at the national level, in general, will be enhanced so that they will be enabled in framing efficient and effective development plans for the people based on their peculiar lifestyles and region.

1.5 Chapter Scheme

The final report of the present research project is organised into the following nine chapters.

Chapter I : Introduction

This chapter broadly introduces the subject matter of the present study. It outlines the rationale for the study and describes how the present study is conducted and organised.

Chapter II : Review of Literature

A review of relevant literature on the subject is presented in this chapter. The chapter is thematically organised. The areas included in the literature review are themes on social capital, community participation, community development, rural development, and the linkages among these aspects.

Chapter III : Methodology

The chapter gives a detailed description of the process followed in the whole study. It describes the profile of the study area and the sampling method used for identifying the sample villages and sample households. It also describes the tools employed for the collection and analysis of data collected.

Chapter IV : Physical and Temporal Features of Sample Villages

The chapter presents the physical and temporal features of the sample houses as recorded from the field visits, key informant interviews and PRA exercise. The first section presents the profile of the sample villages, the second section presents the timeline of the villages and the last section presents the social maps of the villages.

Chapter V : Composition of Village Communities

The chapter deals with the community composition of the sample villages. In the chapter presents the profiles of the respondents, the demographic, social, and economic structural bases of the sample households and their family members.

Chapter VI : Social Capital and Community Participation

In this chapter the social capital endowment of the households and communities are analysed from the point of view of Lin's (1995) social resources perspective and the civic engagement perspective of Putnam (1993). Social capital is analysed and measured using inductive and deductive methods.

Chapter VII: Rural Development

The chapter presents the patterns and levels of rural development from a rural development perspective. Rural development, in the chapter, is analysed and measured using objective and subjective indicators of community development. The objective indicators include living condition and housing conditions of the sample households while the subjective indicators include community satisfaction on primary and secondary community services.

Chapter VIII : Social Capital and Rural Community Development

This chapter discusses the bearing of social capital on rural community development. The relationship between the inductive, deductive and civic measures of social capital on the one hand and objective and subjective indicators of community development are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter IX : Conclusion

The chapter presents the major findings of the research in brief. From these findings a comprehensive conclusion is drawn. The conclusion is followed by policy implication and scope for further research in the related subject or area of interest.

The next chapter delves into the prevailing literature associated with the present study. It outlines related studies covering wide ranging topics and themes on social capital, community participation, community development, rural development, and the linkages among these aspects.

CHAPTER II REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature is an indispensable part of any research project. It helps the researcher to understand the theoretical background and identify the research problem's dimensions. It also helps in identifying the substantive, theoretical, conceptual, and methodological gaps in the literature. The present chapter presents a review of literature on various aspects of social capital, community development, community participation, and rural development, and the relation among the concepts. There is a diversified literature on the concept of social capital cutting across various social science disciplines. The literature on social capital may be classified into the literature on the conceptual issues of social capital, literature on the measurements of social capital, and literature on the effects of social capital and development.

The present chapter is thematically arranged into eight major sections. The first section presents capital and forms of community capital. The second section attempts to give clarity on the concept of social capital in which various aspects of social capital including a review of literature on studies related to social capital are presented. The third section presents various aspects of the concept of community participation. The fourth section presents the concept of community development and tries to give clarity on the concept by presenting various aspects of the concept. A review of various literature on the relation between social capital and community development is presented in section five. Section six presents various aspects of rural capital. A review of literature that deals with the relationship between social capital and rural development is presented in section seven. Section eight presents the review of the relationship between rural development and community participation.

2.1 Capital and Forms of Community Capital

Before delving into social capital directly, this sub-section tries to understand the meaning of capital and the different forms of community capital that exist in society.

Various thinkers and theorists put forth their views on the topic. One of the earliest thinkers who worked on the concept of 'capital' is Karl Marx (1818-1883). According to him, capital is the surplus value that creates profits. Nan Lin (2001) in line with the analysis of Marx defined capital as an investment of resources with

expected returns in the marketplace. He sees capital as a resource that is invested and mobilized so to gain profit. The neo-capital theory which talks about human capital and cultural capital views capital in terms of investment in personal resources with profit-making as its primary motive.

Bourdieu (1986) writing on the forms of capital viewed that the social world is accumulative in nature and capital and its accumulation plays an important role. He defined capital as accumulated labour (in its materialized form or its 'incorporated,' embodied form) which, when appropriated on a private, i.e., exclusive, basis by agents or groups of agents, enables them to appropriate social energy in the form of reified or living labour." Depending on their functions he identified three forms of capital viz. 1) "*economic capital*, which is immediately and directly convertible into money and maybe institutionalized in the form of property rights; 2) *cultural capital* - which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of educational qualifications; and 3) *social capital* made up of social obligations "connections", which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility." According to Flap and Volker (2008), resources such as language skills, creative and artistic abilities, and knowledge of art, history, and science falls under cultural resources while resources such as income, wealth, entrepreneurial and commercial skills, and knowledge of trade and economics falls under economic resources. Rainey *et al* (2003) also give three forms of capital that are essential in community asset building and improving the quality of life. The three capitals according to them are human capital, public (physical) capital, and social capital. The human capital includes the skills, talents, and knowledge of the members of the community; the physical capital includes the physical infrastructures such as roads, buildings, other infrastructures, and natural resources available in the community; social capital is the web of social relationships that exists within the community.

According to Ferguson and Dickens (1999), there are five main community capitals: physical, human, social, financial, and political. In addition to these five Green and Haines (2007) identified two more making the total number of capitals

seven. These are physical, human, social, financial and political, cultural, and environmental. 1) *Human Capital*: labour supply, skills, capabilities, and experience; 2) *Social capital*: bonding capital, bridging capital; 3) *Physical capital*: buildings, streets, infrastructure, etc. 4) *Financial capital*: community financial institutions, microloan funds, community development banks, etc. 5) *Cultural*: knowledge, behavior, and skills; 6) *Political*: the capacity of the community to exert political influence; 7) *Environmental capital*: natural resources, weather, recreational opportunities, etc.

Lin (2001) classified capital into two types: 1) personal or human capital and 2) social capital. According to him the former consists of resources possessed by the individual, which can be used and disposed of with great freedom and without much concern for compensation. The latter consists of resources embedded in one's network of associations and the use of this capital assumes obligation for reciprocity or compensation.'

Bian (2008) looks at capital from the actor-centered point of view as human actors are the ones who transform resources into capital. He argued that forms of capital should be defined and differentiated by the degree to which resources are embodied to human actors. Based on this perspective he identified three fundamental forms of capital: *material capital* – wealth and economic resources; *human capital* - physical strength, knowledge, skill, experiences, and others; *social capital*- the resources that are embedded in networks of social relationships.

In their approach to Sustainable Livelihood, the British Department for International Development (DFID, 1999) identified five assets or types of capital on which livelihoods are built. They are *Human Capital* - skills, knowledge, the ability to work and good health; *Social Capital* – social resources available through social connections that help in making a living; *Natural Capital* – land, forest, water, and other resources naturally available to human beings from which people can draw their livelihood; *Physical Capital* – basic infrastructures like roads, shelter, energy, etc. which help people to draw their livelihood, and *Financial Capital* – savings and access to financial services.

From the above studies, it is seen that among the many community resources that are important for improving the quality of life and the overall development of the community, social capital is seen as one of the most important capitals. Nan Lin (2001) gave four reasons for how social capital in the form of social networks strengthens the outcome of actions. These are 1) facilitating the flow of information, 2) exerting influence on the agents, 3) social credentials of the individuals, and 4) reinforcement of identity and recognition. Therefore, the current study specifically deals with social capital which is an important form of community capital. Social capital, because of the active role of the members in the network in maintaining and reproducing social assets, is in conformity with the Neo-capital theory of capital (Lin 2001).

2.2 Social Capital Concept

The social nature of human beings makes it imperative to get connected with other fellow beings to get what they need and thus live a happy and prosperous life. The resources embedded in those social relations are understood as social capital. These resources as defined by Lin (2001) are “valued goods in a society, however consensually determined, the possession of which maintains and promotes an individual’s self-interest for survival and presentation.” The concept of Social Capital is widely used by researchers and professionals of diverse disciplines in their endeavours to understand the dynamics of society. The diverse usage and approach have made the studies on social capital multidisciplinary.

2.2.1 Contemporary Authors on Social Capital

The usage and popularity of social capital concepts are just about a century old. However, the concept has been widely used now in different social sciences subjects. The theory has its origins in the educational domain (Ehlen, et al 2014). Among the pioneers who used social capital in the context of improvement of education are Hanifan, Bourdieu and Coleman. It is widely agreed that the term was first used by L. J. Hanifan in 1916 in the context of educating minority groups. But the concept remained unpopular for about seven decades until Bourdieu, a French scholar, and Coleman, an American scholar, used and popularized the concept in 1986 and 1990 respectively. Since then, there has been a constant increase in the

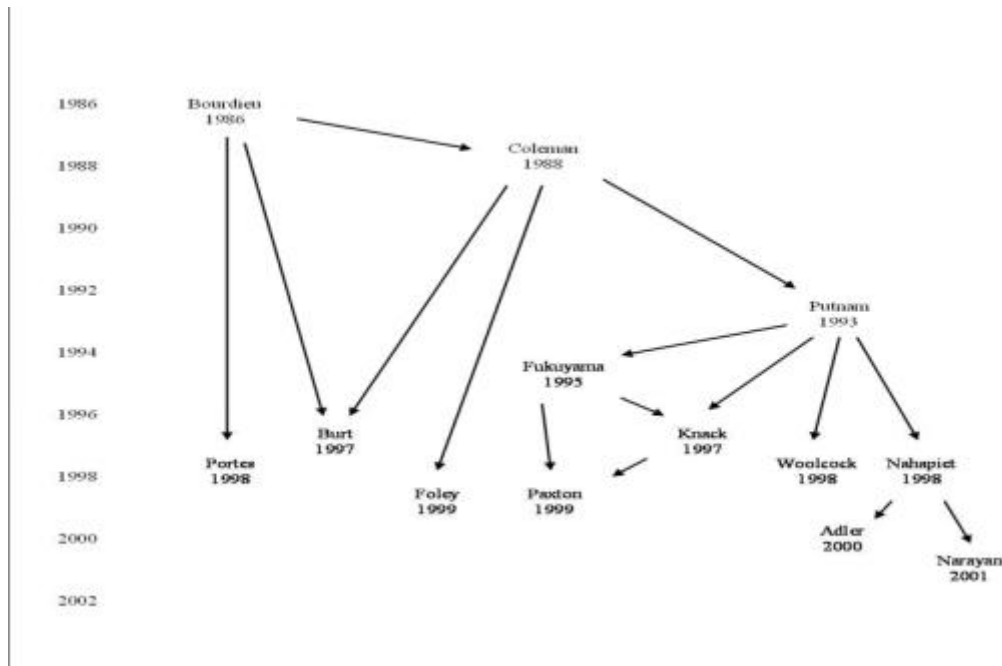
number of authors whose writing has made the usage of the social capital concept more popular as well as diverse. Some of those prominent authors and their works are given in this section.

Bourdieu (1986) and his works on "The Forms of Capital" in J. G. Richardson's (Ed.) Handbook for Theory and Research for Sociology of Education, can be considered as one of the earliest works where social capital is used extensively in contemporary times. It is believed that the present-day discussion on the term social capital is mainly because of his works. The next prominent author is James Coleman (1988) with his work "Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital" published in the American Journal of Sociology and "Foundations of Social Theory" by Harvard University Press. He was involved in empirical research and formulation of social capital indicators. The next prominent author is American Sociologist Robert D. Putnam. His prominent works include 'The Prosperous Community: Social Capital and Public life' in 1993, Making Democracy Work: Civic Traditions in Modern Italy' jointly published with Robert Leonardi and Raffaella Y Nanetti in 1993, 'Bowling Alone: America's Declining Social Capital' in 1995, Civic Disengagement in Contemporary America' in 1999 and Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community' in 2000. It was he who popularized the concept through his works. The above-cited authors are the most commonly cited authors in the contemporary discussion on social capital. Apart from these authors, there are also other authors who have significantly contributed to the development of social capital studies. These include Fukuyama Francis (1995, 2001, 2002), Ronald Burt (1992, 1998) 2000, 2001), Stephen Knack (2002), Alejandro Portes (1996, 1998), Michael Woolcock and Geoffrey Woolcock (1998, 2002,), Nahapiet (1998), Foley (1997), Paxton (1999) Adler (2002), Narayan (1999), Nan Lin (2001,2008), Uphoff (2000), Sobel (2002), etc. These authors and works are widely studied in social capital studies.

The figure below (Fig. No. 2.1) presents contemporary authors on social capital studies from 1986 to 2002 in sequence. From the figure, it is seen Bourdieu is known to be one of the pioneers in contemporary studies whose ideas are adopted by Coleman, Burt, and Portes. Following him is Coleman (1988) who made significant

contributions to the field. From the 1990s there is mushrooming of authors of whom Putnam is seen to be the most significant contributor.

Figure 2.1 Contemporary Authors on Social Capital



Source: Claridge, 2004

2.2.2 Definition of Social Capital

Like many other concepts in social sciences social capital also does not have one definite definition concept on which all authors agreed upon. Different authors have given the definition based on their understanding of the concept which results in the existence of numerous definitions. However, one common point in all definitions is that they all focus on social relations which are productive. Adler and Kwon (2002) categorized the definitions into three categories external (bridging), internal (bonding or linking), and both types (internal and external). This classification is based on the focus of the ego’s relationships. The figure below (adapted from Adler and Kwon, 2002) shows the different categories of relations and the definitions with the corresponding authors.

Table 2.1: Definitions of Social Capital

External/	Authors	Definitions of Social Capital
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Internal		
External/ Bridging/ Communal	Baker	‘a resource that actors derive from specific social structures and then use to pursue their interests; it is created by changes in the relationship among actors’ (Baker 1990, p. 619).
	Belliveau, O'Reilly, & Wade	‘an individual's personal network and elite institutional affiliations’ (Belliveau et al. 1996, p. 1572).
	Bourdieu	‘the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition’ (Bourdieu 1986, p. 248). ‘made up of social obligations ('connections'), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility (Bourdieu 1986, p. 243).
	Bourdieu & Wacquant	‘the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition (Bourdieu and Wacquant 1992, p. 119).
	Boxman, De Graai & Flap	‘the number of people who can be expected to provide support and the resources those people have at their disposal’ (Boxman et al. 1991, p. 52).
	Burt	‘friends, colleagues, and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and ‘human capital’ (Burt 1992, p. 9). ‘the brokerage opportunities in a network’ (Burt 1997, p. 355).
	Knoke	‘the process by which social actors create and mobilize their network connections within and between organizations to gain access to other social actors' resources’ (Knoke 1999, p. 18).
	Portes	‘the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures’ (Portes 1998, p. 6).
Internal/ Bonding/ Linking	Brehm & Rahn	the web of cooperative relationships between citizens that facilitate resolution of collective action problems’ (Brehm and Rahn 1997)
	Coleman	‘Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure’ (Coleman 1990)
	Fukuyama	‘the ability of people to work together for common purposes in groups and organizations’ (Fukuyama 1995, p. 10). ‘Social capital can be defined simply as the existence of a certain set of informal values or norms shared among members of a group that permit cooperation among them’ (Fukuyama 1997).
	Inglehart	‘a culture of trust and tolerance, in which extensive networks of voluntary associations emerge’ (Inglehart 1997, p. 188).
	Portes & Sensenbre	‘those expectations for action within a collectivity that affect the economic goals and goal-seeking behavior of its members, even if these

	nner	expectations are not oriented toward the economic sphere' (Portes and Sensenbrenner1993, p. 1323)
	Putnam	'features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit' (Putnam 1995, p. 67).
	Thomas	'those voluntary means and processes developed within civil society which promote development for the collective whole' (Thomas 1996)
Both types	Loury	'naturally occurring social relationships among persons which promote or assist the acquisition of skills and traits valued in the marketplace. . . an asset which may be as significant as financial bequests in accounting for the maintenance of inequality in our society (Loury 1992, p.100).
	Nahapiet & Ghoshal	the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network' (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998, p. 243).
	Pennar	'the web of social relationships that influences individual behavior and thereby affects economic growth' (Pennar, 1997, p. 154).
	Schiff	'the set of elements of the social structure that affects relations among people and are inputs or arguments of the production and/or utility function' (Schiff 1992, p. 160).
	Woolcock	'the information, trust, and norms of reciprocity inhering in one's social networks' (Woolcock 1998, p. 153).

Source: Adler and Kwon 2002

From the above-given definitions, we can see definitions are given based on ego's relationship (whether internal or external) and discipline, study level, and context of the study. Therefore, there is a need to identify the discipline, study level, and context of the study so that an appropriate definition can be made used for a particular study.

2.2.3 Types of Social Capital

Coleman (1988) identified three forms of social capital viz. 1) Obligations and expectations, information channels, and social norms. In the first form, the doer/giver does something to the receiver with an expectation of reciprocity, and the receiver is obliged to do it. And this reciprocity functions based on the trust that lies between the two. The second form stresses the importance of getting vital information for action. As given by Coleman one way of getting that information is by 'using social relations that are maintained for other purposes.' The third form

speaks of the effective existence of norms to overcome public problems and provide social security and an essential environment for development.

From the network perspective as given by Sabatini (2006) social capital can be classified into the following:

- i. The '*Bonding network*': This refers to relations amongst relatively homogenous groups such as family members and close friends and is similar to the notion of strong ties. Bonding social capital is often described as horizontal ties between individuals within the same social group (as opposed to vertical ties between social groups). This type of social capital is exclusive in nature. This form of social capital is sometimes by choice or necessity, inward-looking and tends to enforce exclusiveness and maintains homogeneity of identity.
- ii. The '*Bridging network*': This refers to relations with distant friends, associates, and colleagues. It places the actors at structural holes where each can tap into the social network resources of each other's social group. This is also described as vertical ties often operating through formal hierarchical structures. This is inclusive in nature. It may also include civil rights movements, youth service groups, and ecumenical religious organizations.
- iii. The '*Linking network*': This refers to relations between individuals and groups in different social strata in a hierarchy where power, social status, and wealth are accessed by different groups. In many ways linking social capital is similar to bridging social capital.

There is another perspective called the social structure perspective to understand the types of social capital. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) in their pursuit to explore the role of social capital in creating intellectual capital considered social capital in three clusters:

- i. *Structural social capital* – It is a dimension of social capital that relates to the properties of the social system and of the network of relations as a whole. The term describes the impersonal configuration of linkages between people or units.
- ii. *Relational social capital* – It describes the personal relationships people have developed with each other through a history of interrelations. It is based on the

characteristics of social relationships between individuals and is commonly described as including trust and trustworthiness.

iii. *Cognitive social capital* – It refers to those resources providing shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties. Shared norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs, predisposes people towards mutually beneficial collective action.

2.2.4 Determinants of Social Capital

Various researchers have given their opinions and arguments on the question of what determines social capital. In this regard, Eve Parts (2013) opined that social capital determinants can be of two groups. “Firstly, the psychological and socio-economic characteristics of individuals such as personal income and education, family and social status, values and personal experiences, which determine the incentive of individuals to invest in social capital. Secondly, the contextual or systemic factors at the level of community/nation, such as overall level of development, quality and fairness of formal institutions, distribution of resources and society’s polarization, and prior patterns of cooperation and trust.” In close line with Eve is Aldridge, Halpern et al (2002) who suggested that the main determinants of social capital include: history and culture. They also opined that the family, education, social and economic status, the social environment, and values that influence the individual are responsible for determining one’s social capital.

2.2.5 Measurement of Social Capital

Social capital is generally understood as a resource embedded in the social networks (relations) of a person. The popularity of the concept had necessitated the development of instruments or methods to measure this in a valid and practical way. However, the measurement of social capital has been one of the focal points of debate and research because of its complexity. The measurement has to bring out the network locations and the resources embedded in those networks. Other components like the size, density, cohesiveness, and closeness of social networks, and composition of networks (homophily and heterogeneity) are also important components of the measurement. Measurement of structural holes, as given by Burt (1992) will also be part of the measurement. The scholarly research of Lin and

Dumin (1986) Van der Gaag (2005) and Nan Lin and Bonnie H Erickson (2008) gave rise to the development of three work social capital measurements Viz. name generators, resource generators, and position generators. These measurements use the ego-network sampling technique and are constructed to reflect the contacts' diversity and range of resources (education, occupation) as well as characteristics (gender, race, age). A brief explanation of the three measurements is given below:

The *name generator* technique draws out a list of ties from ego, and the relationships between them as well as among them are identified. It can show the location of ego as well as the ties and also points out the network location.

The *position-generator* technique (Lin & Dumin 1986) uses a sample of structural positions that are salient in a society (occupations, authorities, work units, class, or sector) and asks respondents to indicate contacts (e.g., those known on a first-name basis), if any, in each of the positions. "The position generator produces measures of the number of occupations accessed, the range in accessed prestige, and the highest accessed prestige Bekkers *et al* (2008)."

The *resource generator* has some similarities with the position generator. However, Resource Generator information directly refers to accessed social resources instead of occupational prestige in the position generator.

In the present study position generator measurement is being used to measure an individual's social capital. Lin and Dumin (1986) and Lin (2001) were the first to develop measures using this. Lin and Erickson (2008) defined position generators as measures of social capital designed to assess access to social positions in which resources are concentrated.

The advantage of position generator measurement over others lies in the fact that 'they are easy to use, have high response rates and short question times, and are applicable to different research settings and contexts and, unlike most name generators, are unbiased towards strong ties' (Verhaeghe and Li 2015). Another advantage is that the number of members and the social resources that are embedded in the individual's social network can be found and measured by employing occupational prestige. Occupational prestige is the person's social standing based on his or her occupational position and not on the person's personality traits. It is

generally posited that people of higher prestige generally have a greater number of resources at their disposal. These resources may include education, income, authority in the workplace, and the number of social networks connected to that position. To get an individual's social network a list of occupations relevant to the study is shortlisted. The respondents are asked whether they know anyone in their social network in the given list of occupations. If the response is positive, then they are further asked about the relationship with the person in the network whether it is a family member, kinship, friend, or acquaintance. Family is considered to be members of the household who normally live together and take their meals from a common kitchen unless the exigencies of work prevent them (District Census Book 2011). Kinship is blood relatives who live outside the household. A friend is a person known well and liked, and who is not usually a member of the family (Oxford Dictionary). Acquaintance is a person one knows but who is not a close friend (Oxford dictionary).

The above two questions give a list of occupations accessed through their social networks and their relations with the person in the given occupation. The questions for position generator measurement are so framed based on two basic assumptions i.e., i) the distribution of resources in a society is adequately reflected in its occupational structures, ii) knowing anyone with certain occupations implies having access to resources associated with that occupation (Verhaeghe and Li, 2015).

Six types of position generator measures can be made used to quantify social network resources (Verhaeghe and Li, 2015). The overview of the six types is given in table no. 2.2

Occupational prestige scales refer to the evaluation of occupational standing in society (Ganzeboom and Treiman,1996). It is calculated by dividing the sum of the prestige/status score of access occupation by the total number of access occupations. The underlying idea of occupation prestige is that occupation with higher prestige is associated with more or better resources and it is the quantity of the overall social networks that matter for accomplishing goals.

Table 2.2 Overview of six types of position generator measures

Overview of six types of position generator measures		
Name of the position generator measure	Perspective on social network resources	Perspective on social stratification
The volume of network resources	The more, the better	No stratificational perspective
Average occupational prestige/status of network resources	The higher the average, the better	Occupational prestige/status
Highest occupational prestige/status of network resources	The higher the highest reach, the better	Occupational prestige/status
Range in occupational prestige/status of network resources	The more diverse, the better	Occupational prestige/status
Occupational prestige/status component scores of networks resources	Network resources are multidimensional	Occupational prestige/status
Social class-based measures	Qualitative distinctions between types of network resources	Social class typology

Source: Verhaeghe and Li (2015).

As given by Lin and Dumin (1986) there are three traditional position generator measures. They are i) *highest excess prestige*: the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation; ii) *range in accessed prestige*: the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige and iii) the *number of positions accessed*: the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008). In addition to these traditionally used measures, Gaag et al (2008) added two more measures Viz i) the *average accessed prestige* which is “calculated as the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows someone, and ii) *total accessed prestige* which is “calculated as the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations.”

2.2.6 Position Generator Studies

Van der Gaag, Snijders, and Flap (2008) investigate the relationship of Position Generator measures to other social capital measures (name generator and

resource generator) with the aim to find out the aptest social capital measure for given social capital research using position generator as a reference point. The data they used for the analysis was from the Survey on the Social Networks of the Dutch (SSND) collected in 1999-2000. The comparison of the measurements shows that the Position Generator has more to do with the resource generator than the name generator while the overall correlations were positive. On the use of position generator measurement, they advise the inclusion of occupants large enough at least 15-20 or more for the instrument.

Yang-chih-fu (2008) evaluated the data produced by the position generator against actual personal networks to unravel the uncertainties that lie between the two. He examines the data collected from three key informants in Taiwan from their diary logs and their personal contact with the alters and the modules on social networks used in the 1997 Taiwan Social Change Survey. From the analysis of the data from the three cases (informants) the paper points out the clear advantage and merits of position generators in measuring individual social capital in personal networks than that of name generators.

Flap and Volker (2008) tested the impact of social, cultural and economic capital in job attainment from a position generator perspective using the data from Survey of the Social Networks of the Dutch taken in 2000 with 1,007 respondents. In their studies they use position generators as a measure of cultural and economic resources. According to them the cultural resources are language skills, creative and artistic abilities, and knowledge of art, history, and science falls under cultural resources while resources such as income, wealth, entrepreneurial and commercial skills, and knowledge of trade and economics falls under economic resources. They measured the respondents' social resources using the position generator with 30 occupations put in the prestige hierarchy and the established cultural and economic resources using the scale provided by De Graaf and Kalmijn. The three variables considered in the analysis are father's occupational status, ego's (respondent) education and respondent's occupational status. From the analysis they found that the cultural and economic resources of the father and the resources in the ego's network have a direct impact on the person's (ego) cultural and economic resources.

They also found that the ego's education also has an impact on the status attainment and that the position generator has the capacity to tap cultural and economic resources in the ego's network.

Nan Lin, Yang-chih Fu, and Ray-May Hsung (2001) illustrated the usefulness of position generator measurement with data collected from a total of 2835 (1394 males, 1299 females) adult labourers in Taiwan in 1997. They analyzed the access and utility (increase in job prestige and income) and the difference in the benefits between male and female entrepreneurs. They found that though there were similarities in the structure of social capital there were differences between males and females as males have more advantages in accessing the positions. They concluded that the methodology was useful in getting informative findings from the survey. However, gender-based inequality was exhibited.

Boxman et al (1991) studied how social and human capital have an impact on the income attainment of 1359 top Dutch managers in Holland (Netherlands). They collected the data using questionnaires and analysed the collected data on social capital was measured using Mokken-Scale procedure and their membership on prominent clubs. The studies found that the determinants on the income of the managers and their positions supports the social capital theory in a number of ways. Significant number of managers got to the position they hold through networks.

Najarzadeh *et al* (2014) used position generator measurement technique to measure the social capital, both access and benefits, among the elites of National Foundation of Elites in Iran. In order to determine the prestige of occupation they listed 27 occupations and sent it 26 scholars. They evaluated the high and low prestige of social capital based on the responses received from the questionnaire. The study found that men had higher access to social capital than women, married individuals had higher access than unmarried individual, Ph.D. graduates had higher access to social capital than other graduates. The study, though limited to few elites' respondents, has relevance in the present study because it is one among the rare cases where position generator measurement directly in the a study.

2.2.7 Important Works on Social Capital

L.J Hanifan was the first to use the term social capital in his article ‘The Rural School Community Center’ in 1916 stressing the importance of community involvement concerning the education of minority populations in West Virginia. According to him, social capital refers “...not to real estate, or to personal property or to cold cash, but rather to that in life which tends to make these tangible substances count for most in the daily lives of people, namely, goodwill, fellowship, mutual sympathy and social intercourse among a group of individuals who make up a social unit...” He opined that the accumulation of social capital through social interactions helps the individual his/her needs and at the same time helps in enhancing the standard of life of the whole community. He proved his stand by highlighting the various ways in which a rural community through the initiative of teachers under the supervision of Mr. Lloyd T. Tustin, the district supervisor of schools. The initiative proved to be successful in building social capital and improving the community’s living standards.

Pierre Bourdieu (1986) writing on the forms of capital viewed that the social world is accumulative in nature and capital and its accumulation plays an important role. Depending on their functions Bourdieu identified three forms of capital viz. economic capital, cultural capital, and social capital. According to him the economic capital can be immediately and directly converted into money whereas the other two capitals though convertible into economic capital need certain conditions. He then delved into the cultural capital and social capital and explained how these capitals can be accumulated and utilized in the social world. He further stated that cultural capital exists in three forms: the embodied state, objectified state, and institutionalized state. Delving into the third form of capital i.e., the social capital, the author defined social capital as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintances or recognition.” According to him the volume of social capital possessed by a person or agent depends on the size of network connections (which is not naturally given) that he can garner it and the volume of capital possessed by those with whom he is connected. The author concluded that all

forms of capital aim at profit-making and reproduction of capital and the transformation of one form of capital to another demands specific labour. It can be noted here that Alejandro Portes (1998) attributes the first systematic analysis of social capital to Pierre Bourdieu.

Coleman (1988) introduced the concept of social capital as a resource in the theory of rational action in his article "Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital". He defines social capital as 'an asset embedded in relationships that facilitates instrumental action among people and the sharing of knowledge and resources from one person to another.' In illustrating the concept, the author identified three forms of social capital viz. obligations and expectations, information channels, and social norms, and examined them at great length. Taking the examples of the wholesale diamond market, study circles of radical students of South Korea, the incident of a mother letting her eight-year-old child take care of her six-year-old sister in crowded Jerusalem, and the connectedness of merchants in the El Khalili market in Cairo, the author showed the value of social capital both in the economic and non-economic spheres. The paper also analyzed the effect of the lack of social capital by taking the case of school dropouts before they graduated themselves. This analysis was done about the effect of social capital within the family and in the community outside the family. The first one was tested by taking the ratio of parent-child at home and the kind of care given to children. The second one was tested by taking two schools- one religious school where the parents of the students are from the same religion with close community ties, the other school was a private school where the parents are from different socio-religious backgrounds with not much community ties. It was found that both social capital in the family and among the adult community outside the family showed evidence of considerable value in reducing the probability of high school dropouts.

Putnam (1993) in his book "The Prosperous Community: Social Capital and Public Life" outlined the need for social capital for the well-being of the people. According to him, "social capital" refers to features of social organization such as networks, norms, and trusts that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit'. He illustrated the importance of social capital by recounting an investigation

that he and his colleagues conducted on the performances of the regional government of Italy over two decades. He then used the findings as a model for American society. The paper also pointed out how regions like Emilia-Romagna and Tuscany in Italy with more civic sense and public cooperation fare better than "uncivil" regions, like Calabria and Sicily. He argued that part of the problem facing blacks and Latinos in the inner city (in America) is that they lack "connections" in the most literal sense. Highlighting the negative side of social capital, the author concluded that 'recognizing the importance of social capital in sustaining community life does not exempt us from the need to worry about how that community is defined - who is inside and thus benefits from social capital, and who is outside and does not.' Hence, according to Putnam, the hallmarks of a successful region were the strong traditions of civic engagement - voter turnout, newspaper readership, membership in choral societies and literary circles, Lions Clubs, and soccer clubs. He pointed out that networks of civic engagement foster sturdy norms of generalized reciprocity, it also facilitates coordination and communication, and amplifies information about the trustworthiness of other individuals and networks of civic engagement embody past success at collaboration, which can serve as a cultural template for future collaboration. He highlighted the connectedness of social capital to that of effective governance and economic progress of a community and how the social capital approach can help in formulating new strategies for development. He stated that 'Social capital is not a substitute for effective public policy but rather a prerequisite for it and, in part, a consequence of it.' He strongly pointed out that without networks of civic engagement government policies and projects will not be able to reach the target.

Francis Fukuyama (1997) in his lectures about social capital at Brasenose College, Oxford 1997 said that the term "social capital" was first used by Jane Jacob's in her classic work *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*, wherein she talked of the huge social networks that existed in olden days America. Fukuyama defined social capital as "the existence of a certain set of informal values or norms shared among members of a group that permits cooperation among them." These norms, he added, must include 'virtues like truth-telling, the meeting of obligations,

and reciprocity'. He pointed out two points regarding social capital: i) it is the property of groups and not of individuals and ii) social capital has its negative sides. He also pointed out three problems underlying the measurement of social capital: i) the qualitative nature of the subject ii) the positive externalities of group membership where some members build bonds of trust outside their membership and iii) the negative externalities where some members promote intolerance, hatred, and violence to non-members. He suggested the inclusion of some other variables like 'radius of trust' in measuring social capital. The author also spoke about the great disruption of American society i.e., social deviances that affect social capital. He strongly pointed out how family breakdown affects the broader social relationships in society. He also pointed out that how the group members relate to the outsiders also strongly affects society's supply of social capital.

Alejandro Portes (1998) reviewed the origin and definitions of social capital in the contemporary writings of Bourdieu, Loury, and Coleman. According to him the first systematic analysis of the term 'Social Capital' dates back to 1985 when Pierre Bourdieu defined it as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintances or recognition." Bourdieu further stated that "the profits that accrue from membership in a group are the basis of the solidarity which makes them possible." Portes put forward the positive functions of social capital in sociological studies and also its negative consequences. He analyzed the propagations of the economist Glen Loury and concluded that it was based on the context of neoclassical theories of racial income inequality and their policy implications where he opined that the orthodox economic theories were too individualistic which leads to social capital becoming a need for implementation of equal opportunity programs and removal of racial discrimination. Moreover, Portes held that Coleman's work was on the role of social capital in the creation of human capital highlighting the mechanisms to acquire it and that his writing of the concept was exclusively used in American Sociology. He argued and concluded that social capital has a definite place in sociological theory however overextension (from an individual and family resource to communities, cities, and nations) can jeopardize the

heuristic value. However, despite all differences, it can be said that all theories on social capital have a growing consensus that ‘Social capital stands for the ability of actors to secure benefit by virtue of membership in the social network or other social structure.’

Lin (1999) reviewed different literature on social capital and identified the various controversies and debates about it to bring about a clearer understanding of the concept. He explored various theories of capital and then connected them to the social capital concept. He argued that social capital as a concept must be understood not just as a traditional concept of capital but also as resources embedded in social networks. He pointed out the enormous growth of internet usage in the second half of the twentieth century creating huge social networks in cyberspace. He pointed out the growth of the ‘e-commerce’ business in the internet world. He concluded by recognizing the importance of social networks in cyberspace in studying social capital in the modern world.

Sakurai, (2006) in writing about Measurement and Analysis Framework of Social Capital provided the guidelines for research implementation related to social capital. He stressed the need for postulating testable hypotheses to develop the analytical framework and to design tools for data collection to meet the specific objectives of the study. His studies on the 44 community forest users’ groups in the Dang district, Nepal were based on the general hypothesis that social capital, either household level or community level increases a household’s welfare. Based on his study, measurement of social capital, as well as that of welfare, can be done at two different levels: community level and household level. He advocated that the use of the Social Capital Assessment Tool (SOCAT) with necessary modifications according to the socio-cultural setting of the target community needs to be modified based on the specific needs of the studied community. The need for modification lies in the fact that the SOCAT is lengthy and takes time and those contexts may change depending on the complexity of the target communities. Qualitative analysis of the collected data helps in gaining insight into the social relationships in a research site, yet the author recommended quantitative analysis as it has an obvious advantage in having general conclusions which can be compared with the results from other areas

or countries and which can be applied to many different community development projects since statistical tests are more robust and convincing in most cases.

Hawkins and Maurer (2010) examined the different types of social capital (bonding, bridging, and linking) available to the families of New Orleans, USA and they utilized those social capitals to survive the storm, relocate and rebuild following Hurricane Katrina that occurred in 2005 intending to increase social workers understanding on social capital and how it can be used in a catastrophic event. The authors used a qualitative, longitudinal, grounded theory approach. They identified the respondents from the data given by the US Federal Management Emergency Administration (FEMA) and American Red Cross and the snowball method. Using semi-structured interviews followed by more directed interviews the authors collected the data from 40 household heads, which comprised 76 percent African American, 18 percent white, and 2 percent others. The authors found that the respondents benefited from homophilous bonding and heterophyllous bridging social capital and the bonding social capital was significantly useful to the lower-income group. They also observed that the linking social capital was built up later on and it help in the reconstruction of New Orleans. In the study, the authors also revealed the reports of African Americans who experienced socioeconomic status and race as a barrier to getting help after the catastrophe. They also observed that bonding social capital was a bane too for few as they did not flee before the hurricanes despite having all the potential to flee because of their friends and relatives. According to the author's role, social workers can be in the form of clinical, community, and policy perspectives. They noticed that the challenge that lies for the social workers in such a situation is maximizing social capital to strengthen community participation in rebuilding the community after the catastrophe.

Lin and Erickson (2012) in their reviews on the core theoretical basis and measurement of social capital highlighted the concepts of capital, meaning, and understanding of social capital, its sources, and its importance in gaining better positions in one's occupation and political arena. The sources of social capital they believed are embedded in one's family background and education level. Their

reviews of different works of literature and views of different scholars agree that social capital is a set of networks. They found that the surplus returns in these networks were getting good or better jobs and more powerful political positions.

Hauberer (2010.) in her book ‘Social Capital Theory: Towards a Methodological Foundation’ discussed the theoretical roots of social capital by examining the works of prominent social capital theorists like Bourdieu-capital theory, James Coleman-rational choice approach, Putnam-civic engagement, Ronald S. Burt-structural hole, and Nan Lin-resource perspective. She critically analyzed the pros and cons of the theories and the methods adopted to measure and analyze social capital. Based on those theoretical principles she tested the quality of measurement of social capital by making extensive study in the Czech Republic. Different measurement tools were employed to understand the dynamics of social capital in the Czech Republic. She concluded that the social capital concept is multifaceted and the theory is still under construction. Therefore, there is a great need for clarity in concepts and the development of appropriate measures.

Sobel (2002), recognizing the distinction between individual-level social capital and community-level social capital, moved forward towards a better understanding of the term and stated that “social capital describes circumstances in which individuals can use membership in groups and networks to secure the benefit.”

Halstead and Deller (2017) took a step forward in understanding the formation of social capital and going beyond the individual level to the community level. The book comprises 11 articles from various authors discussing various issues of social capital from its research roots to the formation and measurement of social capital in the community and also its contribution to the society. The historical roots and concepts are briefly discussed in the first part of the book. The articles that delved into the community aspects of social capital discussed how social capital is formed and benefited at the community level. The data used in the studies comprised both primary and secondary data. The articles in the book have a common vein that social capital has positively affected the socio-economic development process of the community. However, the editors pointed out some ambiguity that lies in the

measurement, analysis, and interpretation of primary and secondary data. This gave rise to the need for further exploration of the theoretical foundations and measurement issues in social capital research.

Headly & Hampshire (2008) explored the implication of social capital in social work practice in Australia. They discussed the concept of social capital, its origin, and its application in progressive social work. They noted that the concept of community building has much to do with social capital. They argued that social capital is a contested concept among many thinkers and scholars. At the same time, they contended that progressive social work in its practice has many contributions and gains from the social capital concept. They concluded that proper understanding of social capital by social workers can improve their capacity and foster growth in their profession.

Kipgen and Panda (2019) studied the role and importance of social networks in the migration process among the Kuki migrants from Manipur in Delhi through field observations and interviews of the migrants and found that social networks were instrumental in their migration and adjustment to the new environment. They also found that the pioneer migrants had more struggles than the followers (later migrants) who got help from the former to cope with the new challenges in the city. The ethnic clusters such as ethnic base student organizations and religious fellowships not only help them solve their problems but also help instil confidence among them.

Blomkvist (2003) studied the relations among social capital, civil society, and degrees of democracy in India by taking interviews of 3200 respondents in 31 localities in the states of Gujarat, Kerala, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal in India. He tested the three hypotheses related to social capital such as formal voluntary associations, informal networks, and norms of trust to that of democratic participation and responsiveness. He statistically confirmed the relations between the two.

In addition to the above studies, addition can be made on few studies related to social capital in the Northeast region which is basically a tribal belt with the people endowed with diverse cultures and traditions. Community and rural

development work and studies are subjects relevant to the societal and geographical settings. Though not many studies are found on social capital in relation to community and rural development there are few important studies related to it.

Rai (2019) made a study on the relationship between social capital and development among Gorkhali women in North East India using a descriptive design. She collected the samples (300 samples) using a pre-tested structured interview schedule employing a multi-stage sampling technique. She used a name generator, interpreter, and inter-relator instruments for measuring social capital. In her analysis using Personal Network Analysis, E-NET and SPSS she found that social capital endowment does not have any significant relationship with the development or happiness of Gorkhali women.

Assessment of the endowment of social capital between the fully affected villages and partially affected villages was a part of the studies of Mangcha Touthang (2016) on the Khuga Multipurpose Project, Churachandpur, Manipur. He assessed social capital by measuring the frequency of the household's participation in community-based organizations, church-related activities, youth organizations, games and sports, and self-help groups. He found that social capital among the fully affected villagers was higher than that of the partially affected villages which helped the fully affected villagers in gaining better coping strategies and livelihood.

Deka and Panda (2015) analyzed the impact of MGNRES on employment generation and social capital formation in Assam using Propensity Score Matching (PSM) and Difference in Difference (D-in-D) methods and found positive results in it.

2.3 Community Participation

Community participation is the second important variable taken for this study. This section deals with the concept and forms of community participation in order to bring about a clarity on the concept.

2.3.1 Concept of Community Participation

Reid, (2000) opined that community participation as one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. In a modern democracy, community participation is vital for its success. To understand the concept of community

participation it is necessary to understand the terms community and participation separately and then put them together in relation to the present study. According to Mattessich and Monsey (2004: 56) a community is made up of people who live within a geographically defined area and who have social and psychological ties with each other and with the place where they live. According to the National Research Council 1975 (as cited in Mattessich and Monsey 2004) a community is a grouping of people who live close to one another and are united by common interests and mutual aid. The word participation can be defined as the “act of being involved in something” (Wates, Handbook 194). Business Dictionary (2015) explains the terms as the consultation in decision making, goal setting, profit sharing, teamwork, and other such measures through which a firm attempt to foster or increase its employees’ commitment to collective objectives. Kallabaka (1989) defined participation as involving the empowering of people to determine, decide, plan, implement, control, and evaluate all actions that affect their lives. According to Chowdhury (1996), a descriptive definition of participation programs would imply the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions that enhance their well-being, for example, their income, security, or self-esteem. Brager, Specht, and Torczyner (1987) defined participation as a means to educate citizens and increase their competence. It is a vehicle for influencing decisions that affect the lives of citizens and an avenue for transferring political power. In the present context of the study on development, participation would mean a process through which all members of a community or organization are involved and influence decisions related to development activities that will affect them. The term participation is modified with adjectives, resulting in terms that can be used interchangeably such as community participation, citizen participation, people’s participation, public participation, and popular participation. In their modern form, the concepts of community development and community participation took shape in the 1950s (Chowdhury, 1996).

Understanding the term community and participation will lead us to the understanding of the concept of community participation which means some form of involvement of people with similar needs and goals in decisions affecting their lives.

Hamdi (1994) defined community participation as the process by which professionals, families, community groups, and government officials get together to work out something preferably in a formal or informal partnership. World Bank (2004) viewed Community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. According to Oni (2015), 'the concept of people's / community participation can be referred to as the active involvement of the rural people in the decision and matters that concern their wellbeing. It includes active participation in their need's identification, solution planning, and implementation'. Oni's reference on community participation covers a wide range of participation throughout the development process. The concept of community participation also links with the concept of democracy where peoples' participation is of utmost importance for its success.

There is a common agreement by many people that community participation is critical in developmental programs. The need and significance of community participation in any development process have been documented by various development workers and scholars. This is mainly because of the fact that development is not solo faceted but multifaceted involving and affecting the people and the environment they live in. The effectiveness of public or community participation in development activities or programs is also based on the core values and beliefs it has. These core values of community participation as adopted by the International Association for Public Participation (IPA2-1990) are as follows:

1. Public participation is based on the belief that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process.
2. Public participation includes the promise that the public's contribution will influence the decision.
3. Public participation promotes sustainable decisions by recognizing and communicating the needs and interests of all participants, including decision-makers.
4. Public participation seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision.

5. Public participation seeks input from participants in designing how they participate.
6. Public participation provides participants with the information they need to participate in a meaningful way.
7. Public participation communicates to participants how their input affected the decision.

2.3.2 Forms of Community Participation

Mikkelsen, (1995) viewed community participation in three ways - active, passive, or interactive. In active participation the room is open for community members to participate in all stages of the project. In passive participation, the community members maintain distance from the project and do not intervene directly. Interactive participation is where the members of the community join the analysis and planning process of the project and thereby improve their capacity building.

Further research on types of participation Mikkelsen (2005) identifies. types of participation

The first, passive participation, describes a situation where people are told what is going to happen or has already happened, with no ability to change it (Mikkelsen, 1995). This type of participation in the true sense does not meet the criteria of participation as the community members are not really involved in the project.

The second type is participation in information giving, where people participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers and developers. Here, though the members are not actively involved, they have the ability to influence the decision-making.

The third type of participation is through consultation, where people participate by consultation and decisions regarding the nature of problems, and possible ways to solve them depend entirely upon the researchers. The people do not take part in the decision-making process. The disadvantages of this kind of participation are that though the members have the right to be consulted on matters that affect them, they are not directly involved in the decision-making.

The next type of People's participation is in the form of providing labour and land in return for food, cash, or other material incentives. In this type of participation, the

participation lasts as long as they can provide, labour or land and once they are paid for all their contribution, they have no role in the project.

Functional participation is when people participate by forming groups or committees which are externally initiated (Mikkelsen, 1995). These groups are seen as the means to achieve predetermined goals.

On the other hand, interactive participation is seen as being involved in the analysis and development of action plans (Mikkelsen, 1995). In this regard, participation is considered a right and not just a mechanical function. Groups are formed, together with partnerships, and there is the use of systematic and structured learning processes. Groups, therefore, take control of the local decisions, so people have a stake in maintaining structures or practices (Mikkelsen, 1995). This type of participation empowers the community and is hence ideal for community development. It leads to sustainability and ownership of the projects.

Optimum participation, according to Mikkelsen (1995), indicates the need to focus closer attention on the different contexts and purposes to determine what form of participation makes sense. The extreme form of analysis of participation is when it is seen as manipulation

A more powerful form of participation, self-mobilization has been at the heart of several successful programs, especially in India, Rahman (1993:179) termed this person "s self- 26 development, rejected dogmatism about collectivism as the ultimate emancipation of labour, and suggested leaving the question to the organic evolution of people's search for life. Mikkelsen (1995) supported this view by stating that people participate by taking initiatives to change systems, independent of external institutions, although the latter can help with an enabling framework. People retain control of resources used, and in addition, such self-initiated mobilization may change the distribution of resources. Ideally, participation should reflect what Rahman (1993:182) called 'people's' collective self-identity that reflects deep conceptualizations of popular aspirations". Though Rahman called for complete self-reliance, he noted the fact that human dignity plays an important role in participation and eventually development. Although Rahman does not allude to many Marxist views, he uses Marx's concept of collectivism as the final emancipation of labour. It

is clear though, that in the sense of applying a radical approach to delinking from the parasitic West, Rahman calls for total self-reliance through recognizing one's own potential (Rahman, 1993)

When social capital is viewed from a community point of view community participation has an important role in building social capital. This relates to Putnam's (2000) view in his book 'Bowling Alone' where he said that "social capital is built up through group members' involvement in voluntary civic organizations." According to him, group members' engagement in voluntary civic activities gives mutual benefits as the trust and norms that results from the social organisation provides a platform or forum for cooperation.

2.4 Community Development

The concept of development is applied in a variety of fields. Community development is one very important field where the term development finds a prominent place when talking about improving the quality of life of the community and their well-being. In the last few decades studies on Community Development have gained momentum and due to its importance and uniqueness it has been recognized as a separate discipline. Studies on community development include various aspects of community both in the urban and rural areas. In Social Work studies rural development is a subject matter within the Community Development specialization. Rural development deals with rural communities. To understand the concept of rural community development it is, therefore, necessary to first understand the concepts of development and community development. This is done by highlighting the general concepts of development followed by the meaning and definition of community development. The main variable of the present study is social capital. The study attempts to explore its relationship with community rural development. It is therefore imperative to understand the relation of social capital with community development before directly moving into rural development per se. This is done by giving the summary of the literature review on social capital and community development in sub-section 2.2.1.

2.4.1 Understanding Development

In the general understanding, development may be understood as a process and not a one-time action or activity/activities. This process creates or enables positive changes, growth, and progress in the physical, social, economic, and environmental aspects of society. Raising the quality of life of the people, creating or increasing income through employment opportunities are the main purposes of development. Singh (1986) presented three basic elements of development:

Life sustenance - the absence or critical shortages of the basic needs of man (food, cloth and shelter) may be a sign of absolute under-development and therefore the provision or improvement of such necessities amounts to development.

Self-respect- the absence of this inner desire of every person or nation is a sign of lack of development, and the improvement, therefore, will mean development.

Freedom - freedom from political or ideological servitude is another sign of development.

Development, therefore, would mean the improvement of life-sustaining requirements and increased self-respect and freedom. In conformity with this Amartya Sen developed the “capability approach,” in which he defined development as “a tool enabling people to reach the highest level of their ability, through granting freedom of action, i.e., freedom of economic, social and family actions, etc.” Dudley Seers (1971) suggests that “development is when a country experiences a reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment.” The suggestion or meaning given by Seers reflects the new economic worldview of development ‘which considers reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality and unemployment as an important index of development’ (Singh 1986)

2.4.2 Understanding Community Development

Community development has been understood and defined in different ways by scholars, academicians, practitioners, government agencies, etc. It has connections with different subjects such as sociology, economics, political science; planning, geography, and many other related subjects. “A major contribution of community development was the recognition that a city or neighborhood is not just a collection of buildings but a ‘community’ of people facing common problems with untapped capacities for self-improvement (Phillips and Pitman 2009).” To

understand and define community development let us first understand the terms ‘community’ and ‘development.’ According to Mattessich and Monsey (2004), a community is made up of people who live within a geographically defined area and who have social and psychological ties with each other and with the place where they live. According to the National Research Council 1975 (as cited in Mattessich and Monsey 2004), a community is a grouping of people who live close to one another and are united by common interests and mutual aid. The term development signifies the procedure of expansion, maturity, completeness, enhancement, and optimistic change passing to a greater degree of excellence in life (Rai, 2019).

From the understanding of the two terms ‘community’ and ‘development’ the concept of community development can be understood in the following ways. The United Nations (as quoted in Head, 1979) defines Community Development as “a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and fullest possible reliance upon the communities’ initiative.” "In the common man's understanding, community development is still identified with the program of activities, improvement of agriculture, promotion of village industries, the building of schoolhouses, roads, etc.” (Mukerji, 1961). It combines the idea of “community” with “development”. Bogardus (1961) stated that a community is a social group with some degree of “we feeling” and “living in a given area”. The basic characteristics of a community are given locality, social group, permanency, likeness, strong community sentiment, a particular name and naturally evolved. "Development is a process by which the members of a society increase their personal and institutional capacities to mobilize and manage their resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations" (Korten 1990). It is a planned, expected change that involves improvement. According to the United Nations (1999) “Community development is a process where people are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities and communities are integrated into the life of the nation enabling them to contribute fully to national progress.”

2.4.3 Indicators of Community Development

Indicators of community development are increased in social services such as housing, health, education, nutrition, clean environment, safe drinking water, increase in income and ability to save surplus, decrease in mortality rate, a demand for modern technology, sustainable use of the environment and the reduction and eventual eradication of poverty in the country and nation.

The report of the Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children (1996) on the Community Development Policy of the United Republic of Tanzania looked into different aspects of community development about the Tanzanian community. The report delved into the meaning, the indicators of community development, and the need for community development policies in Tanzanian society. Tanzanian communities are understood and classified based on their similarity in occupation (farmer, employees, fishermen, big and small businessmen), their ethnic origin (120 tribes), and their geographical locations (rural and urban). Looking at the per capita income, safe drinking water, health services, and education, the report, while giving due credit to the community development workers for the improvement in these fields, also empathized with the state of its dependent economy. The report also identified the main community development actors Viz. the family/households, local government (village and district), central government, politicians, NGOs, donor agencies, and religious denominations and their roles in the development of the community. The report stressed the need for sensitization of people regarding community development and its mobilization and concluded that promoting professions and professionals of community development was needed to effectively implement the community development policies.

2.5 Social Capital and Community Development

Literature on community development talks about the existence of a facilitator in the community development process. This facilitator is generally referred to as social capital or social capacity. It helps the community to work together, sustain strong relationships, solve problems and make group decisions for the benefit of the community (Phillips and Pitman, 2009).

Woolcock and Narayan (2000) traced the evolution of the concept of social capital and its impact on economic development. They explained the concept of social capital and ascertain its usefulness in the social dimension and development outcomes. They identified four distinct approaches to development, viz. the communitarian view which equates social capital with local-level organizations such as clubs and civic groups; the network view which stresses the importance of networks of different categories of people in the society for development; the institutional view which argues that the vibrancy of community networks and civil society to a great extent depends on the existing political and legal system and the synergy view which argues that development takes place only when the state, corporate sector, and civil society have a common platform to identify and pursue common goals.

Table 2.3 Four Views of Social Capital: Key Actors and Policy Prescriptions

Perspective	Key Actors	Policy Prescriptions
<i>Communitarian View</i>		
Local associations	Community group Voluntary sector	‘Small is beautiful’ Recognize social assets of the poor
<i>Networks View</i>		
Intra (‘bonding’) and inter (bridging) community ties	Entrepreneurs, Business groups ‘Information brokers’	Decentralization Creation of enterprise zones ‘Bridging’ social divides
<i>Institutional View</i>		
Political & legal institutions	Private and public sector	Grant civil and political liberties Transparency, accountability
<i>Synergy View</i>		
Community networks and state-society relations	Community groups, civil society, firms, and states	Co-production, complementarity Participation, linkages ‘Scaling up’ local organizations

Source: Woolcock and Narayan (2000)

The authors stated that though all the four views have their strengths the synergy view has the greatest empirical support for policy prescription and poverty reduction. The authors further pointed out the implications of social capital research

for development theory and policy and stated that social capital research helps in bridging the gap among scholars, policymakers, and practitioners.

Yokoyama and Ishida (2006) reviewed the definitions and dimensions of social capital from a community development perspective. While lamenting the ambiguity of the concept, the authors focus on giving more insights into the relations between social capital and rural well-being and how the same can be used for making effective strategies for rural development. Dwelling on the dimensions of social capital that are mostly related to community development such as networks and memberships, social trusts, and collective action and reciprocity, the authors demonstrated that the concept of social capital is useful in discussing how to formulate effective community development programs to enhance the well-being of rural dwellers.

Vermaak (2009) reassessed the concept of Social Capital as given by Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman, Robert Putnam, and a few others. In the article, the author pointed out several points of critique based on the conceptual formulation, economic, cultural, and methodological points of view. He further pointed out that though the concept of social capital has been widely used there were differences in the usage of the term by different writers. He further deepened the discussion by highlighting the need for inclusion of the role of social capital in satisfying the need of different levels of society and its role in developing the world. He concluded the article by pointing out social capital as a very important resource for individuals and families, communities and villages, and the state.

Ali and Mansor (2003) investigated the effects of social capital on rural community development in Malaysia. The researchers identified the samples using a stratified random sampling method and collected the data using the household survey method from sixty households from six villages in two sub-districts of Kuala Selangor, from the state of Selangor. The reason for choosing the sample lies in the fact that they were all agrarian-dependent economies. They analyzed the data using descriptive statistics and multiple regression models. The authors found positive impacts of social capital on rural community development. They also noted the increase in social problems such as juvenile delinquency. They stated that social

problems cannot be simply solved by improving income levels alone and as such opined that specific policies for enhancing social capital supported by programs and budget allocations are important to hasten community development. They suggested the formation of an association of farmers to benefit from the economy of scale for which a high degree of socialization was required.

Ali (2005) examined the role of social capital in community development by disaggregating the concept into micro, meso, and macro levels. The data for the study was from a 1995 nationwide survey (*Economic Development Strategies and Entrepreneurial Infrastructure*) of 307 rural areas that experienced a successful community development effort (expansion of existing businesses and/or establishment of new businesses or both). Factors considered in the study were community linkages, citizen participation, leadership type, financial institutions' contribution, collection to create facilities, collective action to resolve issues, and local ownership. He analyzed the data using simple correlation, t-statistics and discriminant analysis, and multinomial logistic regression. The study indicated that social capital has a role in the success of community development programs at the micro, meso, and macro levels. He further pointed out the lack of citizens' direct participation in the community's development efforts and further suggested mechanisms and initiatives for active interactions to strengthen ties between the citizens and local government for better community development.

Sakurai (2006, investigated the role of social capital in agro-based economic activities in the mountainous rural areas of Japan. The constraints in development according to the author are depopulation among the rural communities, the aging group on the increase in the rural communities as compared to that of the urban communities, and most farmers still engaged in small landholdings. However, the author stated that new trends like introducing value-added products, more attention to rural areas, and diversification of the rural economy have favored the rural communities. The author used a modified version of the Social Capital Assessment Tool (SOCAT) for a community-level and household-level survey. The result of the community survey showed that structural social capital, horizontal networks in particular which have been accumulated historically, provides the basis for collective

action, contributing to the development of rural diversification. Quantitative analysis based on the household survey showed that structural social capital promotes agricultural production, while the effects of cognitive social capital were uncertain.

Thissen (2009) made a comparative analysis of social capital among the urban and rural communities of the Netherlands. His analysis was based on the results of two major projects viz. a national survey of social capital in the Dutch countryside, which conclude that rural Dutch communities had better living conditions than the urban areas, and a local survey of social capital for community care among eight villages in the province of Zeeland which was studied taking into account the relationship between quality of life, social cohesion and local community care in Zeeland villages. He stated that the Dutch villages had significantly changed from autonomous villages to residential villages which affected the patterns of social cohesion. He found that social cohesion and quality of life were higher among the rural communities than the urban communities and that social capital contributes to community care.

Hassan and Birungi (2011) in their paper “Social capital and poverty in Uganda” investigated the links between social capital and household poverty in Uganda by assuming a two-way causal relationship between poverty and access to social capital. In their investigation, the writers used two nationally representative datasets. Due to the possible issue of endogeneity problems arising economic techniques that control endogeneity were used. The study revealed that access to social capital by being a member of a social organization positively affects a household’s income and reduces poverty in Uganda. Education was also found to be a positive determinant for accessing more social networks which in turn helps in improving household income. This suggests an endogeneity problem, so the paper uses econometric techniques that control for endogeneity. Using two nationally representative datasets, the authors’ analyses revealed that access to social capital is defined in terms of membership in social organizations.

Freuchte (2011) viewed social capital as the glue that holds the community together. According to him, the importance of social capital for the rural community lies in the fact that it helps the rural community to organize themselves for conflict

resolution and community development. He suggested that social capital can be developed by making an inventory of the community's existing assets and making groups work together on projects. In building up social capital the author pointed out that caution must be taken to avoid the possibility of exclusion of members. He concluded that strengthening a social community-wide network depends upon the quality of relationships among the members, institutions, and their social classes.

Arbab (2011) investigated the relationship between social capital and sustainable development by taking the case study of the city of Zahedan, the center of Sistan and Baluchestan province in Southern Iran. Taking the indices of public trust, participation, and social awareness, the researcher took 183 respondents based on the proportion of each ethnic group through random sampling, and the necessary information was collected using questionnaires. The result showed that the average level of each of the main components of social capital, namely public trust, participation, and awareness is low among the citizens of Zahedan. There is a positive correlation between the low level of social capital indices and the weak situation of sustainable development in the city of Zahedan.

Baiyegunhi, (2013) used the conventional economic behaviour model and examined the effect of social capital on the welfare of 300 rural households collected through a structured questionnaire in Msinga, KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa. The researcher examined the density of relationship, heterogeneity, decision making, meeting attendance, cash and labour contribution to measuring the level of social capital. He used per capita consumption expenditure as a welfare indicator. The researcher found a positive effect of social capital on household welfare and the possession of social as being very crucial for poverty reduction. The study also revealed the important relationship between human capital such as education and possession of social capital. The researcher further urged the government to design policies that will attract the rural people to formal education and help them to understand the importance of social groups and networks for poverty reduction in the rural areas.

The role of social capital in development was discussed by Christiaan Grootaert and Thierry Van Bastelaer in their 10-chapters book. The book which

contains 10 chapters written by various authors and divided into three parts briefly discussed the concept of social capital in relation to poverty and extensively discussed how social capital influences development and ends with a summary of the whole discussion drawing out possible policy implications. Measurement of social capital like human capital has been a very difficult task. No consensus on the measurement technique has existed so far. The book attempts to bring more clarity to the concept of social capital and its measurement issues, bringing forth some implications for the government and donors to invest in and protect social capital in developmental projects. The studies concluded that social capital matters significantly in development projects and plans related to the community as the forms and levels of social capital affects the success of projects and programs.

Moris (1998) examined the effect of social capital on poverty reduction in developing countries, including India. The author used the data set prepared by Ozler, Datt, and Ravallion in 1996 and analyzed social capital at the macro level i.e., the state level. In his paper he asked two pertinent questions: i) Does social capital have an economic payoff in terms of reduced poverty and ii) Do the differences in social capital help to explain the differing performances amongst states at raising rural living standards? He answered the two questions by comparing social capital and the performance of each state in their endeavor to reduce poverty in the states and by using the economic model to assess the impact of social capital in reducing poverty. From the analysis, the author found a strong correlation between social capital and poverty reduction in those states viz. Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Kerala, Punjab, and Tamil Nadu, which were initially endowed with social capital performed better in poverty reduction. He concluded the studies by confirming the relevance of Putnam's (1993) results on his studies about Italy.

Basargekar (2010), analyzed the relationship between social capital and social wellbeing concerning microfinance. Taking 217 samples from the Self-Help Groups formed by the Forbes Marshall Co. Ltd, Pune under Corporate Social Responsibility, the author looked into the changes that occur among the SHG members before and after joining the group. The author found that there was a positive relation between social capital and social wellbeing. Taking membership in

the group enhances their level of awareness, consciousness, decision-making ability, and wellbeing through collection actions that take place in the group. Years of association with the group were also related to the level of social relations they have. Members who enrolled earlier were found to have more social networks than the later ones.

Khawlhing and Kanagaraj (2008) also studied the relationship between social capital, local governance, and community development in Mizoram considering three dimensions viz. socio-political participation, social networks, honesty, and trustworthiness. The data were collected using a pre-tested structured interview schedule from one rural and one urban locality each from Aizawl District, Mizoram. They analyzed the data using cross-tabulation, simple average, factor analysis with the principal component method, Karl Pearson product-moment correlation, and multiple linear regression. They found that the rural community had a greater endowment for social capital than the urban community. With regards to local governance and community development, social capital did not contribute much. They further suggested building up social capital in the urban areas, democratizing the rural communities, and channelizing the existing social capital for socio-economic development in Mizoram.

Choden (2012) made an empirical study on the role of social capital in the development of Tibetan refugees from two settlements viz. Lugsung Samdupling Tibetan Settlement (LSTS) and the Tibetan Dirkey Larsoe Settlement (TDLS) in Karnataka, India. The samples (10 per cent each) were collected through a pre-tested questionnaire and analyzed using Regression Analysis and Binary Logistic Regression. The author analyzed the structural capital and cognitive social capital about age, occupation, duration of stay, and education of the studied population. The role of camp leaders in building social capital and also the Development Programmes initiated by the Central Tibetan Administration (CTA) were also analyzed. The author found that the age, occupation, and education of the population had no significant influence on structural social capital and cognitive social capital. However social capital had an important contribution in the area of education. The camp leaders playing the role of linking social capital between the Tibetan

population and the local community promotes development for the Tibetans. The author further suggested the CTA should take up measures to ensure job opportunities for the increasing number of graduates from the community.

Kildos, (2013) studied the impact of social capital on the social well-being of the Coastal communities of Kanyakumari district, India. The researcher used descriptive designs and collected the sample from six hamlets taking five per cent each of the hamlets. The data collected through a pre-tested interview schedule was analyzed using ANOVA, correlation, and regression. The researcher found a positive relationship between social capital and social wellbeing. The different variables such as age, income level, occupation, and level of education highly contributed to social capital. The Mukkuvars and Paravars (the two communities studied) enjoy the same level of social capital. It however differs in well-being as the social capitals are drawn mostly from within the community. Social capital positively affects household income and reduces poverty. Their results further show that household income and welfare are positively associated with access to social capital or group participation.

“Social capital or capacity lies at the heart of community development,” stated Mattessich (2009) in his article social capital and community building. Building social capacity is part of the community development process. The results of both community development and economic development are the creation and mobilization of assets to benefit the community. It aims at increasing the quality of life and standard of living for all citizens (Phillips & Pittman, 2009). Important factors for quality of life are education, health care, climate, recreation, etc. Social capital also served as a guide to community development practice by integrating this theory into their initiatives or projects. Without a certain level of trust, friendship, or the willingness to share resources a true community and economic development cannot take place. Because they are an integral part of collective action (Hustedde, 2009) Even if it does it will cost heavily on the project initiators or performers. Social capital helps in mobilizing community members to participate in the project.

2.6 Rural Development

Rural development studies have gained importance in development studies because of the way rural issues are being perceived and of course, it needs to be perceived the way it is. The increasing interest in rural development is a result of the realization that a systematic effort is necessary to create better-living conditions in the rural areas where the vast majority of populations of developing countries reside. The spatial nature of settlement in India divides the whole population into rural and urban. The rural population comprises two-thirds of the total population of the country. According to the census of India 2011, 68.84% (833.1 million of 1210.2 million) live in rural areas and the rest 31.16% (377.1 million of 1210.2 million) lives in urban areas. That means the rural population consists of more than two-thirds of the whole population. The literacy rate is 68.9 percent which is below the national average of 74.0 whereas the urban literacy rate was 85.0. Most rural settlers are among the poorest of India's population and farming is still the predominant occupation. When compared with the urban areas most socio-economic indicators show that the rural areas lack behind in those areas. Rural India is backward considering the indicators of the Human Development Index - Life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, and per-capita income, the rural areas are far behind the urban areas. The backwardness of the rural areas impedes the overall development of the country. Considering this, studies on rural development have gained momentum in contemporary times as developing the rural areas would mean developing the nation. Because "When we get rural wrong, we reach incorrect research conclusions and fail to reach the people, places, and businesses our governmental programs are meant to serve (Isserman, 2005, p. 467)."

2.6.1 Understanding the Rural Context

Understanding the rural context is a prerequisite to understanding rural development. This subsection tries to understand the concept of rural by studying its characteristics, and dimensions and drawing an operational definition for the present study.

The multifaceted nature of the concept of 'rurality' has been a challenging issue for researchers to fully understand and define the term 'rural'. Most rural researchers agree that there is no standardized definition that can adequately address

all aspects and dimensions of the rural context. This calls for a deeper study and understanding of the concept. To this effect, Hawley et al (2016) in their article 'Defining and Describing Rural: Implications for Rural Special Education Research and Policy' specifically highlighted the importance of carefully defining and describing the rural context in rural special education research. The authors gave two major questions to be considered while choosing rural definitions. They are: (a) what community characteristics are important in my study's conceptualization of rurality? and (b) What level of classification is most appropriate for the study's objectives? These two questions are pertinent for the present study as the operationalization of the concept of 'rural' based on them can guide and fulfill the objectives of the study.

A rural area in India is defined based on the urban definition. Census of India 2011 gives the rural definition as "All areas which are not categorized as urban area are considered as Rural Areas." It further pointed out that revenue villages are the basic units of rural areas. It is, therefore, imperative to understand what an urban area is. According to the same census, Urban areas consist of all places with a municipality, corporation, cantonment board or notified town area committee, etc. (known as Statutory Town); all other places which satisfied the following criteria (known as Census Town); A minimum population of 5,000; At least 75 percent of the male main workers engaged in non-agricultural pursuits; and a density of population of at least 400 per sq. km.

Based on this urban definition given in the Census of India rural areas will comprise those areas not covered by urban areas; habitations with a population less than 5,000; a minimum of 75 percent of the male main workers engaged in the agricultural pursuit and a density of population less than 400 per sq. Km.

The word 'Rural' also means an area that is marked by a non-urban style of life, occupational structure, social organization, and settlement pattern. Villages are considered the basic units of rural areas. The same census recorded as many as 6, 40,867 rural units (villages) in India which increased by 2,279 in 2001 (it was 6, 38,588 in 2001). As given by Lele & Adu-Nyako (1991) rural areas and people are widely characterized by the following: general poverty trap, low income, and

investment ratchet, underutilized and/or unutilized natural resources, rapidly increasing population, underemployment and/or disguised employment, low productivity, especially of labour, low and traditional technology, limited enterprise or entrepreneurship, high level of illiteracy, ignorance, disease, and malnutrition, near absence -of social and physical infrastructures (like all-season roads, potable water, electricity, good schools, health centers, etc.), and political powerlessness, gullibility, and level of general vulnerability.

2.6.2 Definition and Meaning of Rural Development

Having understood the rural context this section deals with the concepts of development in rural areas and development among the rural mass.

The central idea of development is the enhancement of the abilities of individuals or groups or communities to shape their own lives. Development is both qualitative and quantitative. Rural development aims at enhancing people's abilities so that they can be self-reliant. In the context of rural background, it means developing better physical, social and economic conditions for a specific group of people, the rural poor living in the rural areas. For a long time, the concept of rural development was studied in the realm of agriculture development as the rural economy was basically agrarian. However, the modern meaning is vast and more complicated and there is no universally accepted definition as the term is used in different and divergent contexts. The study here attempts to define, dig into the meaning and bring an overall understanding of rural development based on the review of the literature and draw a comprehensive operational definition for the present study.

Singh's (1986) understanding and explanation of the term are worthwhile to reflect on. He dissected the term by looking at it from different angles and drew meaning from each one. According to him, rural development can be understood as a concept, phenomenon, strategy and discipline. 'As a *concept*, it implies the overall development of rural areas; as a *phenomenon*, it is the result of interactions between various physical, technological, economic and socio-cultural and institutional factors; as a *strategy*, it is designed to improve the economic and social wellbeing of the rural poor and as a *discipline*, it is multidisciplinary in nature.'

The World Bank in Ekpo and Olaniyi (1995) defined rural development as a process through which rural poverty is alleviated by sustained increases in the productivity and incomes of low-income rural dwellers and households. However, Oni (2015) opined the definition of the world bank is defective as the focus is mainly on economic growth and other aspects of development are side-lined. The need for a more holistic and inclusive definition arises taking into account the complexity of rural context and its development.

Moseley (2003) in his book 'Rural development: principles and practice' defines rural development in a more holistic manner considering both the improvement of quality of life and economic wellbeing. According to him, rural development is "the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas." A similar definition was also given by Lee et al. (2012) with a more emphasis on the need for various sectors such as transportation, medical care, cultural welfare, and environmental protection. Singh (1986) says that rural development connotes the overall development of rural areas to improve the quality of life of the rural people. Rudengren et al. (2012) also define rural development as a process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in a relatively isolated and sparsely populated area. Ijere (1990) also regarded rural development as the process of increasing the per capita income and the quality of life of the rural dweller to enable him to become the prime mover of his own destiny. These definitions point to improving the quality of life and enhancing wellbeing.

Jeong (1997), Rowley (1996), and Madhu (2000) bring in the concept of community activities and participation in rural development. Madhu (2000) defines rural development as "activities concerned with the improvement of spatial and socio-economic environment of rural areas to enhance the ability of the individuals to cater to and sustain their wellbeing"

Jeong (1997) defines rural development as a chain of processes that brings improvement in the living conditions for people in local communities through people's participation and commitment as a group. According to Rowley (1996), rural development arises from the need of rural communities to approach

development from a wider perspective focusing on a broad range of development goals rather than merely providing incentives for agriculture or resource-based businesses. This definition points out the need for capacity building through education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure, and social infrastructure which requires the participation of the people and the government.

With regards to infrastructure the world bank in their World Development Report 1994 includes the following in the list of infrastructure:

Public utilities - power, telecommunications, piped water supply, sanitation and sewerage, solid waste collection and disposal and piped gas.

Public works - roads, major dam and canal works for irrigation and drainage.

Other transport sectors-urban and inter-urban railways, urban transport, ports and waterways, and airports (World Bank, 1994).

In the rural context, Rural infrastructure is seen from the lens of agriculture development which lay emphasis on both physical and institutional infrastructure. Rural infrastructure plays an important role in reaching the rural mass who are predominantly poor. In a situation where the important infrastructure is non-available or is scarcely available, it limits market accessibility and gives rise to hardships in traveling and communicating with remote farming areas. Satish (2007) observed that the improvement of rural connectivity, especially roads, greatly affects the development of agriculture and other services.

The concept of sustainability was emphasized by the World Bank (1975) which defined rural development as implying the improvement in the living standard of masses of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of development self-sustaining.

According to the Asian Centre for Development Administration (ACDA, 2004) “rural development is a process which leads to a continuous rise in the capacity of rural people to control their environment accompanied by a wider distribution of benefits resulting from such control is rural development

Rudengren et al. (2012) also point out the changing concept of rural development which traditionally focuses on the exploitation of natural resources through land-intensive activities such as agriculture and forestry to a spatial rather

than thematic approach reflecting a cross-sector outlook involving social, economic, demographic, legal, financial, governance, and administrative aspects in the present times.

The above definitions give focus on three basic points. First, it understands rural development as a process. Secondly, it involves the participation of the government, NGOs, and the people. Thirdly it aims at improving the quality of life and achieving sustainability or self-reliance. Based on these three factors an operational definition of rural development for the present study is drawn as given - Rural development is a process for improving the quality of life and achieving sustainability in rural areas through the participation of government, NGOs, and the people.

2.7 Social Capital and Rural Development

Studies on social capital and rural development had been made at the international, national, and regional levels. Social capital is used in relation to rural agriculture (Rivera et al (2018), rural marginalization (Wiesinger, 2007) rural risk management (Sorensen, 2000), etc. The section presents an overview of prominent studies relevant to the present study.

Looking at rural issues and backwardness only within the scope of unfavorable conditions and lack of resources prompted Wiesinger (2007) to study whether social capital could be a means to understand the missing links in rural development by taking up a study within the EUROLAN project in Austria. After a detailed review of capital, the author conceptualized social capital, rural development, and marginalization at the local level and came out with a figure showing how one social capital affects both rural development and marginalization. Putnam's social capital concept of association, trust, and civicness was applied to understand the role and importance of social capital for understanding socio-cultural aspects of a community. The study found that social capital has an important function in integrating people and allows people to come together and resolve collective problems. It can be used to fill the gap in the missing link. However social capital cannot be the only matter in successful regional development. The study suggested

that policymakers should recognize social capital as an important element for implementing policies related to rural areas.

Dufhues et al (2006) made a review on social capital and rural development intending to make the concept of social capital more tangible and contextual, especially in rural development studies. They found the inconsistency of social capital definition and ambiguity in its concept to be tangibly made use in rural development studies. The authors, therefore, propose a clear definition of social work and highlight the necessity of differentiating the different forms of social capital.

Rivera et al (2018) made a study on the role of social capital in agriculture and rural development by taking case studies among seven countries of the world viz. Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Latvia, Denmark, and Israel explored the significance of social capital for rural farmers. The seven cases studied helped the authors to explore the distinct roles of social capital in diverse situations. They also aimed at revitalizing social capital in the rural areas. The authors found that social capital elements such as trust, networks, and community feelings played positive roles in society. They, therefore, concluded that social capital played a very important role in agriculture and rural development.

In his book 'Rural Development: Principles, Policies and Management' Singh (1986) presented a comprehensive understanding of development as a whole and rural development. The book consists of eighteen chapters which are sub-categorized into three parts presenting a general understanding of the meaning of development and then extensively delved into the meaning, determinants, policies, programmes and various organisational and managerial aspects of rural development. The ideas and thoughts presented in the book are based on the field and teaching experience of the author and it is a widely read book on the subject.

Jain (2011) presents an interesting subject on rural development from a corporate perspective. Her book on 'Public Private Partnership for Rural Development from a Corporate social responsibility perspective' discusses the various aspects of rural development - schemes, administration and Panchayati raj and also the emerging trends and changing scenarios in the subject. It throws light to the understanding, importance and responsibilities of CSRs in changing the rural face

of the country. She opined that the public-private partnership model which has been used as an important tool for large-scale development projects can very well be expanded in various sectors including the rural sector where it has already had its impact tremendously. She also presented practical approaches to the seemingly complex situation of CSRs on rural development.

Gangadharappa et al. (2007) analysed the bearing of social capital on improving the livelihood of farming communities from two villages of Bangalore in Karnataka using an ex-post-facto cause to effect design. They interviewed 120 farmers who were household heads using an interview schedule developed for the purpose based on the Social Capital Assessment Tool (SOCAT) developed by the World Bank (2003). The authors found that there was a need to further investigate other variables that could help in explanation of the status of social capital. They, however, concluded that social capital formation can help the leader of rural development for better interventions.

Serra (2015) empirically investigates the potentials of social capital for improving the performances of India's small farmers in the rural society context by employing both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative methods provided information about the long-standing constraints and problems in livelihood strategies while the quantitative part of the investigation dealt with assessing the effect of social capital on the efficiency of production and farmers vulnerability and risk in the output of the smallholder farmers. She found that the level of technical efficiency correlates with the use of higher levels of social capital and social capital had a positive impact on the productivity of the farmers. The research concluded with a positive note on the relation between social capital and smallholder farmers in their performances (production). The conclusion also highlighted the discussion on the role of social capital on policy making in relation to rural development where policy makers are needed to create adequate framework for development by sustaining mutual trusts and relations among the communities and the communities and other external institutions.

2.8 Rural Development and Community Participation

As highlighted in section 2.3 of this chapter community participation is paramount for the success of any developmental program. Participatory rural development seeks to improve the social, economic, political, and capacities of the rural people (Oni, 2015). Studies and literature available on rural development and community participation studies affirm this. Some of those studies based on available literature reviews are highlighted in this section.

Setokoe, et al (2019) in their paper ‘Community participation in the development of rural areas: a leaders’ perspective of tourism’ in Nqileni village using a quantitative approach. The results of the study revealed the importance of community participation in developmental activities in the studied area. The study further revealed that community participation can enhance capacity building and empowers the community to meaningfully participate in all development activities.

Oni (2015) studied the various aspects of community participation in the implementation of development projects in Nigeria. The author examined the socio-cultural and political factors to be taken into account while using the community participation method in the planning and implementation of developmental projects. In the paper, the author also explained the concept of rural development and highlighted the forms of community participation and the rationale for community participation in development projects. The author found a correlation between the failure of developmental projects and the lack of development in rural areas with the failure of the government to involve the local people in the assessment of needs, planning, and implementation of policies. The paper concluded with the felt need for improving community participation in the developmental process. The author hoped that improvement in this area will help in the success of developmental projects and the alleviation of poverty in rural areas.

Laah, *et al* (2014) investigated spatial variation in the distribution of infrastructural facilities, level of participation, contributions to sustaining the infrastructure, and the challenges facing community participation in the projects in Riyom Local Government Area of Plateau State, Nigeria. It investigated. The data was collected from 174 samples through questionnaires and Focus Group discussions

by government and non-governmental organizations. The result of the studies shows a lower level of participation as community participation was just confined to receiving information and little consultation. The paper recommended more awareness of community participation in infrastructure development.

Saemaul Undong is a new village/community movement with a community participation approach launched by the government to modernize the rural economy of South Korea. Being a model highly praised for performance in the development sector Yunjeong Yang (2016) in his paper 'Community participation for sustainable rural development: revisiting South Korean rural modernization of the 1970s' examined whether it is a real participatory rural development model and the connection between the nature of community development and the long-term sustainability of rural development efforts based on a case study of two rural villages. The author argues that among different forms of participation only 'self-mobilizing', or 'organic' community participation can achieve sustainable community development and negate the top-down or 'induced' form of participation in bringing sustainable development. His argument is based on the findings of the study in which there was a gap in the performances of the two villages on long-term sustainability. The study found that long-term sustainability was possible due to different natures of participation and village governance and not necessarily because of the community participation approach of the Saemaul Undong movement.

Lucky (2019) critically analysed the importance of community participation in rural development in Nigeria and pointed out the challenges on pursuing participation to achieve developmental goals. The author considered community participation from two viewpoints – the involvement of the community in decision making and benefits from the participation. Based on the two viewpoints the author sees community participation as an important tool for sustainable rural development.

Kasar (2019) studied the community participation based on rural development activities undertaken by *Ukhrul District Community Resources Management Society (UDCRMS)* under IFAD using case studies. The author while agreeing to the importance and effectiveness of community participation in success of implementing rural development projects, also pointed out that community

participation should be holistic, having participations from different sections and genders from decision making to the implementation of the project.

Hussain and Miraj (2018) investigated on the importance and need for community participation for sustainability of developmental programmes in Pakistan by systematic reviewing of relevant literature. The authors acknowledge that community participation is needed and important in sustaining the developmental programmes being implemented for the people. They also stressed on the need for involvement of the community members at every step from designing to the implementation of the projects and to understand the flexibility of participation from one area to the other, taking into consideration their socio-cultural conditions. To make participation more effective the members of the community should be equipped with knowledge and skills, they opined.

The literature review helped in identifying research gaps in the subject. The gaps in the literature are identified in the national, regional, and local contexts of India. Some of those gaps are:

Social capital research in the context of India in general and the North East very few. Except for the few studies taken up in this department, there are hardly any Ph. D studies in the subject.

The extensive use of Position Generator Measurement of social capital in relation to rural development is also very scarce in India and abroad. The researcher could find only a few articles in Lin & Erickson's (2008) edited book. Apart from that, no similar studies were found in the country or abroad.

More specifically, studies concerning social capital, community participation and rural development comparing hill and plain villages of tribal people have not been done so far in the North East region and in Manipur state.

Thus, the present study is an honest attempt to bridge the research gaps that exist in the present field of study. It focuses on social capital studies using position generator measurement to see the impact of social capital on rural community development by measuring the differences in development in the hill and plain villages of Chandel District in Manipur.

The literature reviewed in this chapter has highlighted the various aspects of social capital, community development, community participation, and rural development and the relation between the first variable and the other three. Studies on social capital have been taken up in different continents and countries in relation to various developmental aspects with a wide range of methodology such as qualitative, quantitative, participatory, etc. The reviewed literature on these subjects helped in understanding the theoretical, methodological, conceptual, and operational issues of social capital, community development, community participation, and rural development.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to present a review of the literature on the various aspects of social capital and community development. The chapter has also highlighted the major research gaps in the literature. Concerning this, the next chapter presents the methodology used in the present study in terms of research design, sampling, and tools of data collection, data processing, and analysis of the study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The present chapter deals with the research setting and the methodology of the study. For any research, scientific or educational, to achieve the objectives of the study methodology plays a vital role. It is important to select the sample of a study methodologically, select and construct tools systematically, analyse data systematically and draw inferences carefully. In all these processes, the local context has to be kept in mind.

This chapter is presented in two major sections. The first section deals with the setting of the study which includes a brief description of the state of Manipur; the study areas descending Chandel District, two selected sub-divisions Viz i) Khengjoi & ii) Chakpikarong, and the eight selected villages which in the context of the present study includes i) Khengjang, ii) L. Bongjoi, iii) Saibol Joupri, H. Hengcham, v) New Keiphom, vi) Utangpokpi, vii) Ukon Thingkangphai and viii) Singtom The second section deals with the methodological aspects of the study such as research design, sampling, methods of data collection, data processing, and analysis.

3.1 The Setting

This section presents the area of the study representing the empirical research universe and population where the required and relevant data were collected through field studies. Understanding the profile of the study area is an essential part of understanding the population studied. The profile of the study area is described here. At first, a brief profile of the state of Manipur is presented, followed by the profile of the district, that is, Chandel, and then the profiles of the sample villages are presented. The sample villages are categorized into two – the foothill villages and the hill villages. The foothill villages are those villages situated at the meeting points of the hills and valley areas. The hill villages on the other hand are situated in the interior hill areas of the district, far from towns and cities. There are four villages selected from each category.

3.1.1 The State of Manipur

Manipur with an area of 22,356 square kilometres, covering 0.8 percent of the total area of India is geographically located between latitude 23.830 North and

25.680 North and longitude 93.030 East and 94.780 East. It is bounded by Nagaland in the North, Assam in the West, East, and South by Mizoram and the Chin State of Myanmar. It shares a 398 Kms international border with Myanmar. Manipur carries strategic importance for international trade and commerce with Southeast Asian countries because of the long international boundary and the Indo-Myanmar Road that runs through the border town of Moreh. The territory of Manipur consists of hills and central plains with the hills encircling the plains. The hills cover about 92 percent of the total area of Manipur. In 1972 it became a fully-fledged State by the North-Eastern Areas (Re-organisation) Act, 1971. The state was divided into nine administrative districts viz. Bishnupur, Chandel, Churachandpur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Senapati, Tamenglong, Thoubal and Ukhrul. On the 9th of December 2016, the then government added another seven new districts by bifurcating from the existing districts making the total list of districts 16. The newly added districts are Kangpokpi (bifurcated from the then Senapati district according to the boundaries of the previously proposed Sadar Hills District), Noney District (bifurcated from Tamenglong district), Pherzawl (bifurcated from Churachandpur district) Tengenoupal (bifurcated from Chandel district), Kakching (bifurcated from Thoubal district), Kamjong (bifurcated from Ukhrul district) and Jiribam (bifurcated from Imphal East district).

The whole of Manipur is geographically and administratively divided into valleys (specifically the Imphal valley) and hills. The valley is surrounded by hill ranges on all sides. The districts that fall under the valley are Bishnupur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Jiribam, Kakching and Thoubal. The districts that fall under the hill area are Chandel, Churachandpur, Kamjong, Kangpokpi, Noney, Pherzawl, Senapati, Tamenglong, Tengenoupal and Ukhrul. The hill districts have Autonomous District Councils, to which members are elected from each district councils. At present, there are six Autonomous Districts Councils in the state Viz. Churachandpur District Council, Chandel District Council, Kangpokpi District Council, Kangpokpi District Council, Tamenglong District Council and Ukhrul District Council. Formation of Autonomous District Councils in other hill districts are still under process.

According to the 2011 census the Meiteis (including the Pangals) form the majority group, constituting 65.8% of the whole population of the state. They are inhabiting the valley which is about 10.02% of the state's total geographical area. They are the non-tribal group falling under the General Category. Some scheduled caste and other backward classes are also found among them. The hill districts on the other hand are ethnically inhabited by the tribals, divided ethnically into Kukis and Nagas. They are categorised as scheduled tribes and divided into thirty-three tribes. The troubled population constitute about 34.2% of the total population of the state and they inhabit 89.98% of the total geographical area. The tribal population in the hills is further divided into two ethnic groups – the Kuki-Chin and the Naga groups. The Nagas are mainly found in the districts of Senapati, Tamenglong (including Noney), Ukhrul (including Kamjong). The Kuki-Chin groups are mainly found in the districts of Churachandpur (including Pherzawl), Chandel (including Tengnoupal) and Kangpokpi.

Politically the valley people are represented by 40 (out of 60) elected members in the State Assembly while the tribals are represented by only 20 (out of which Kangpokpi A/C is unreserved) elected members in the State Assembly. The 65.8% percent of the population in the valley are represented by 40 members while the 34.2% of the population are represented by 20 members in the state assembly. In the parliament the valley people are represented by two members (one in Lok-Sabha and one Raja-Sabha) and the tribals are represented by only one member in the Lok-Sabha.

The issue of disparity in development between the valley and hill areas has been observed for a long time. Most government offices and important institutions are situated in Imphal valley. The socioeconomic inequalities continue to remain till today.

Religion wise, there is a sharp division among the non-tribals who settled in the valley and the tribals in the hills. The majority of the people inhabiting the valley districts follow Hinduism and some following their indigenous religion. On the other hand, the tribals in the hills are basically Christians. The Christians are further

grouped themselves into different denominations. The major denominations are Baptist, Catholics, Evangelicals, Pentecostals, Presbyterians, and others.

3.1.2 Chandel District

Chandel district is one of the 16 districts of the state of Manipur. It is a tribal district with one Member of Legislative Assembly Constituency (41 Chandel A/C) which is a reserved seat for scheduled tribes. It is one of the most backward districts of the state. It was a sub-division until 1969 when Manipur was a single district territory with 10 sub-divisions. When the districts were reorganized in 1969 the entire Manipur was divided into five districts and 25 sub-divisions. At that time Chandel district (including both the present Chandel and Tengnoupal Districts) was called Tengnoupal. Tengnoupal sub-division became a full-fledged district in 1974 under Manipur Gazette Extraordinary No.30 dated 11-05-74 with three sub-divisions Viz. Chandel, Chakpikarong, and Tengnoupal. Later on, the district headquarters was shifted from Tengnoupal to Chandel under the Extra Ordinary Manipur Gazette Notification No.174 August 1983 the name of the district was changed from Tengnoupal to Chandel District.

On 4th January 1994, another sub-division namely, the Machi sub-division was added to the existing sub-divisions bifurcating from the then Tengnoupal sub-division. Another sub-division Khengjoi came into existence in 2011 bifurcating it from the then Chakpikarong sub-division (In some official records Khengjoi is spelled as Khengjoy. But the researcher here uses Khengjoi as found on the district website and it is the locally accepted spelling). Each sub-division had one Tribal Development Block (T.D Block). The name of the T.D Blocks is the same as that of the Sub-divisions. An exception to the above is Khengjoi Sub-division which has two T.D Blocks – Khengjoi and Khangbarol.

On the 9th of December 2016 Chandel District was bifurcated into two districts and the new district Tengnoupal came into existence. After the bifurcation Chandel district consists of three sub-divisions viz. Chandel, Chakpikarong and Khengjoi and four T.D Blocks Viz, Chandel, Chakpikarong, Khengjoi and Khangbarol.

The district has a separate autonomous district council called Chandel District Autonomous District Council with its Headquarters at Chandel. There are totally 26 members out of which 24 are elected from the 24 District Council Constituencies and two members are nominated to the council. Though Tengnoupal District was bifurcated from Chandel in 2016, the district council continues to remain the same, that is, it still remains as Chandel Autonomous District Council combining both the districts of Chandel and Tengnoupal.

Chandel district lies in the south-eastern part of Manipur. The headquarters is about 61 km away from the state capital, Imphal. The district came into existence on 13th May 1974. It is bounded by Myanmar (erstwhile Burma) in the south and east, Ukhrul and Kakching districts in the north, and Churachandpur district in the south and west. According to the 2011 general census (before the bifurcation of the district) the district has the second least population in the state and is inhabited by almost 20 different tribes. Anal, Aimol, Chothe, Chiru, Gangte, Kom, Lamkang, Maring, Moyon, Monsang, Tarao, Thadou, Vaiphei, and Zou are the prominent tribes scattered all over the district. All these tribes ethnically and historically belonged to the Kuki-Chin group. They have common ancestry, history and close affinity in culture and tradition. However, in recent times, due various political developments and movement some of these tribes identified themselves as Nagas, leaving behind some in the Kuki fold, while others chose to remain neutral between the two and therefore form their own nomenclature. Therefore, in this study the terms Kuki and Nagas are loosely used. At present the tribes under the Kuki fold inhabiting the district are the Gangtes, Thadous, Vaipheis, and Zous.

The district is one of the least populated and is the most backward in Manipur.

This study is primarily taken up among the Kukis of Chandel District. For the purpose of the study Kuki villages include those villages who affiliate themselves to the Kuki Chiefs Association at the District and other subordination units/area/blocks. They mostly inhabited Khengjoi Sub-Division and parts of Chakpikarong Sub-Division. In Khengjoi Sub-Division, there are two constituencies under Chandel Autonomous District Council. They are 18- Songjang, represented by Shri Seithang

Haokip of T. Nampao Village and 24 – Tolbung, represented by Shri Limkhojam Haokip of Tujang Village. Four Sample villages for the study for the hill villages are selected from both these constituencies.

In Chakpikarong Sub-Division they are mostly found in Sugnu Hill Areas (also called Gunpi area in local term), the foothill that connects the Valley and Hills and Kana Area. The Sugnu Hill Area is a separate constituency under Chandel District Autonomous Council. The name of the constituency is 22 - Sugnu Hill Area Coinstituency. When the study was taken up, the constituency was represented by Mr. Ngamkholal Baite, chief of Sugnu Tribal Village as the member in the council. The Kuki Village chiefs in this area organised themselves into Gunpi Area Kuki Chiefs Association (GAKCA) and act as a parent body for all the villages that fall under their jurisdiction. Apart from the chief association there is Kuki Students Organisation, Gunpi Block, a student body organisation among the Kukis in the area. Kana Area has another autonomous district council constituency, viz. 23-Sajik Tampak Constituency, represented by Khupkholen Haokip of Longja Village. The constituency represented by similar Kuki chiefs' association and Kuki Students Organisation exists in the area. The sample villages among the foothill villages were selected from Sugnu Hill Area (Gunpi Area).

In the present study, out of the three Subdivisions, two subdivisions viz. Chakpikarong and Khengjoi Subdivisions were chosen. Chakpikarong subdivision represents the little advanced subdivision while Khengjoi represents the less advanced subdivision. The number of officially recorded main villages having village code numbers in Chakipikarong Subdivision is 108 while that of Khengjoi Subdivision is 63 giving the total number 171. Apart from these main villages, there are many villages recognized as hamlets of the main villages. From each sub-division four villages, each were selected for the study. The villages selected under Khengjoi sub-divisions are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joup, and H. Hengcham while the villages selected under Chakpikarong Block are Utangpokpi, New Keiphom, Singtom, and Ukon Thingkangphai. The categorization of the village is also based on its proximity to the nearest town and their topographical location. The detailed profiles of the sample villages are presented in the next chapter (Chapter IV).

3.2 Research Design

In this section the objectives, methods and materials used are presented.

3.2.1 Objectives

1. To understand the physical and temporal aspects of rural communities in Chandel District from an emic perspective.
2. To probe into the demographic, social, and economic composition of rural communities in Chandel District from an etic perspective.
3. To assess the social capital endowment of households and communities from the social resources' perspective.
4. To assess the community participation in the rural areas of Chandel District.
5. To probe into the relationship between social capital endowment, community participation, and rural development in Chandel District.

3.2.2. Design

The study is cross-sectional in nature and descriptive in design. It employs both participatory and quantitative methods. The larger part of the study is based primarily on the quantitative data collected through a pretested, structured household interview schedule. The qualitative data were collected through key informant interviews and participatory methods.

3.2.2.1 Sampling

The present study is taken up both at the household as well as community (village) levels. Therefore, in the first level the unit of the study is the sample household and at the second level the unit of the study is a village community. The population of the study comprised all the households and villages in Chandel District, Manipur. The rationale behind adopting two levels of a unit of studies is that the benefit or returns from the social networks are at two levels-the individual and the group (Lin, 2001).

A multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select the sub-divisions, communities (villages), and households. The first stage is the selection of sub-divisions. Out of the three fully functional subdivisions two sub-divisions viz. Khengjoi and Chakpikarong subdivision were chosen. Khengjoi sub-division represents the hills while the Chakpikarong represents the foothill areas. In

comparison to the villages located in the hill ranges their location in the foothills is plainer and located proximate to the valley.

The second stage is the selection of villages. From the selected two sub-divisions four villages (communities) were chosen from each sub-division. In each of the sub-divisions, two developed or better villages and two less developed villages were chosen purposely.

The last stage of sampling was the selection of households. From the selected villages using stratified random sampling, households were selected across the poor and non-poor categories proportionately. In consultation with the community leaders in each locality, lists of households were prepared and were used for drawing the households systematically.

3.2.2.2. Tools of Data Collection

In each of the selected settlements, quantitative primary data was collected through a pre-tested structured interview schedule. Kobo Toolbox, an online open data kit (ODK), was used to design the interview schedule and the Kobo Collect, an android app, was used for data collection. The collected data comprise demographic profile of respondents, socio-demographic profile of sample households, living condition, social capital (position generator), community activism and participation, community satisfaction. Data was collected from a total of 224 households with the same number of respondents.

3.2.2.3 Data Processing and Analysis

For processing and analysing data SPSS and 'R' computer software was used. Simple averages, cross-tabulation, percentages, and Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation were used for the analysis of quantitative data.

3.2.2.4 Concepts and Operational Definitions

Communities in the present study refer to the tribal villages which are inhabited by a number of households. These village communities are classified as hill and foothill villages. Hill Villages are those ample villages situated in the interior hilly region far away from towns and cities. Foot Hill Villages are the villages situated in the foothills which are nearer to towns and cities in comparison to the hill

villages in the study. A household consists of family members that live under the same roof, dining together in the same kitchen.

Rural Development is the process of improving the quality of life, living conditions, and economic well-being of the people living in rural areas. In the present study rural development is operationalised in terms of community development. Community Development can be understood as the process of creating conditions for the socio-economic progress of the community with the participation of the members of the community thereby improving their living conditions. In the present study, it is measured in terms of objective and subjective indicators. The objective indicators include housing conditions and living conditions while the subjective dimension includes community satisfaction.

Social capital refers to the access to and use of resources embedded in the social networks. Three sets of measures were used to measure social capital at household level. They are inductive and deductive measures derived from the position generator instruments and civic measures. Position Generator is one of the measurement methods in social capital research where the respondents are asked if they know anyone from their networks who are among the listed occupations. The deductive measures of social capital used in this study are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, Number of Positions Accessed, Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised, Average Prestige Utilised, Total Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised. The inductive measures of social capital used in the study are Access to High Prestige Social Capital, Access to Low Prestige Social Capital, Proximity to High Prestige Social Positions, Proximity to low social positions, Utilisation of High Prestige Social Capital, Utilisation of Low Prestige Social Capital. Civic measures of social capital deal with the involvement of individuals in community life. The civic measures used in this study are community participation and community activism.

3.2.2.3. Mokken Scale Analysis

Mokken scale analysis was used to identify the fitness of indicators into the unidimensional scales of access, proximity and utilisation of social capital,

community participation, community satisfaction and housing. Scalability Coefficients were used to assess the monotonicity of the scales and found most of the scales have single monotonicity. The indicators of access, proximity, utilisation, civic measures and community satisfaction measures were grouped on the basis of the dimensions identified inductively in the Mokken scale analysis (see table 3.1). A statistical software developed for the R platform for Mokken analysis by Vander Ark (2007) was used.

Table 3.1 Mokken’s Scalability and Reliability Coefficients

Sl.No	Scale	No of Items	Scalability Coefficients		Monotonicity
			Scale H	SHT	
I	Community Service Satisfaction				
	Community Satisfaction 01	4	0.581	0.248	Single
	Community Satisfaction 02	6	0.468	0.541	Single
II	Civic Measures				
	Community Activism	8	0.568	0.824	Double
	Community Participation	5	0.421	0.613	Single
III	Access to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	15	0.430	0.449	Single
	Low Prestige	5	0.488	0.810	Single
IV	Proximity to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	10	0.446	0.447	Single
	Low Prestige	6	0.349	0.363	Double
V	Utilisation of Social Capital				
	High Prestige	13	0.421	0.359	Single
	Low Prestige	7	0.405	0.505	Double
VI	Housing and Amenities				
	Housing	8	0.571	0.888	Single
	Amenities	15	0.604	0.734	Single

Source: Computed

3.2.2.4. Reliability Analysis

Table 3.2 Reliability Coefficients of the Scales

Sl.No	Scale	No of Items	Reliability Coefficients		
			`MS`	Alpha	Lambda.2
I	Community Service Satisfaction				
	Community Satisfaction01	4	0.815	0.793	0.812
	Community Satisfaction 02	6	0.839	0.807	0.824
II	Civic Measures				
	Activism	8	0.688	0.640	0.671
	Participation	5	0.795	0.712	0.757
III	Access to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	15	0.840	0.827	0.837
	Low Prestige	5	0.705	0.699	0.705
IV	Proximity to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	10	0.863	0.827	0.846
	Low Prestige	6	0.699	0.683	0.688
V	Utilisation of Social Capital				
	High Prestige	13	0.822	0.806	0.817
	Low Prestige	7	0.691	0.665	0.673
VI	Housing and Amenities				
	Housing	8	0.821	0.797	0.822
	Amenities	15	0.890	0.867	0.883

Source: Computed

The reliability of the scales used to assess the social capital and community development was assessed with the help of reliability coefficients of MS, Alpha and Lambda.2 available with the statistical software developed by Ark (2007) for Mokken scale analysis in the R platform. The inductive measures of social capital, community participation, community service satisfaction as well as housing were found to have high reliability in terms of these three measures mostly.

3.3. Limitations of the study

The first limitation of the study is that the information on livelihood and living conditions collected may not be cent per cent accurate as the people do not maintain their accounts of their assets, income, expenditure, etc. However, the researcher made every effort to enhance the accuracy of the data.

Secondly, the burning down of Chassad village in Kamjong District of Manipur by some miscreants from the neighbouring village on March 16, 2020, caused communal tension in the state for a while. This was the time when the researcher was in the field for data collection (in the first phase). The untoward situation influenced the mental and emotional state of the studied population.

Thirdly, the second limitation is that the covid-19 pandemic during the data collection gave a tremendous setback to the studies which compelled the researcher to collect data in different phases. The first phase was a pre-covid time in the month of February and early part of March 2020. The second phase of collection was done in the post-lockdown and post recovery from in 2021. It is highly possible that the covid-19 experiences and the lockdown might have an impact on the respondents' perception in responding to some important sections in the questionnaire. This will further impact the results of the study.

Fourthly, as highlighted by Snijders and Flap (2008), position generator measures focus on accessing networks of those positions with occupational titles and prestige and do not include traditional occupations that do not have occupational titles and prestige. The same system is being followed in this research as well. This limitation of the measurement may lead to negligence of some important aspects of social capital. The limitation of Position Generator in investigation of expressive actions

with social capital as expressed by Gaag et al (2004) was also faced in the present study also, thereby adding limitations to the study.

Scientific and education researchers have their own scientific and systematic proceedings depending on the nature of the study and discipline in which the study is being carried out. The validity of the methodology used in the study will help in validating the findings and the research implications that will be derived. Understanding of the research methodology will also help in understanding the nature of the study. The chapter, therefore, presented the research methodology used in the present study.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to present the setting of the present study and describe the various aspects of the methodology. In the next chapter, the temporal and physical features of the village communities studied are presented.

CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL AND TEMPORAL FEATURES OF SAMPLE VILLAGES

In the previous chapter we have already put forward the research methods used in this study. In section 3.2 of that chapter the sampling method used in deriving the sample villages and households was discussed. The sample villages selected based on the sampling technique are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joupi and H. Hengcham in the Hills areas and New Keiphom, Utangpokpi, Ukon Thingkangphai and Singtom in the foot-hill areas.

The present chapter presents the physical and temporal features of the sample villages. The information and data put up in this chapter were collected from field observation, key informant interviews and PRA exercises. PRA stands for Participatory Rural Appraisal, a participatory method used to gather vital information through the participation of local people, here rural people, for decision making and implementation of the development project. It is by and large meant “for the Rural community, by the Rural community and with the Rural Community.” According to Chambers (1994) PRA is “an approach and methods for learning about rural life and conditions from, with and by rural people.”

In the present study, out of the three Subdivisions, two subdivisions viz. Chakpikarong and Khengjoi Subdivisions were chosen. Chakpikarong sub-division represents the little advanced subdivision while Khengjoi represents the less advanced sub-division. The number of officially recorded main villages having village code numbers in Chakpikarong Subdivision is 108 while that of Khengjoi Subdivision is 63 giving the total number 171. Apart from these main villages, there are many villages recognized as hamlets of the main villages. From each sub-division four villages, each were selected for the study. The villages selected under Chakpikarong Block are Utangpokpi, New Keiphom, Singtom, and Ukon Thingkangphai while the villages selected under Khengjoi sub-divisions are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joupi, and H. Hengcham. Brief profiles of the selected villages are given below. The categorization of the village is also based on the topographical location and its proximity to the nearest town.

4.1. Hill Villages

The hill villages consist of those sample villages under Kheng Joi Subdivision. They are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joupri and H. Hengcham.

The hill villages here refer to those villages which are far from the district headquarters in the hilly regions of the district. Agriculture remains the main occupation, while fishing and hunting continue to be taken up by men in their free times. The location of the villages, due to bad connectivity of roads has been a major problem in accessing health care, education, government offices and other necessary items. Among the four villages Khengjang and L. Bongjoi are situated in the border area (India and Myanmar border) and had been beneficiaries of some important schemes under Border Area Development Project (BADP). These two villages are much warmer than the other two villages Viz. Saibol Joupri and H. Hengcham which are situated in the hilly colder regions of the district. The two border villages have more access to market and health facilities in the Myanmar side of the border while the other two villages have those access in the second nearest town for them.

One common problem faced by all the villages was the dislocation of villages during the Meitei militancy problem from 2005-2008 (approximate). They left their villages and took shelter in Moreh and Sugnu areas among their tribesmen. That was one of the biggest setbacks in their development. Though their houses were not burnt or destroyed their years of sojourn changed the social, religious, and economic life of the people. After their return to the villages, they had to restart their social and economic life almost from the start. Saibol Joupri had to shift their village from the old location (the present site where Model Residential School construction is going on) to the present location for security's sake.

Within the last decade or two, there was tremendous change in the economic activities of the people in the area. Timber logging population in the border areas and Poppy cultivation become higher hill ranges. These two activities become profitable among all economic activities. Therefore, many people got engaged in those two activities. It had impacted the social, religious, and economic lives of the people. Many who were engaged in jhum farming left their occupation and began to engage themselves in those activities. Before the popularisation of those two activities, L.

Bongjoi, for example, had cent per cent of the families engaged in jhum cultivation. However, during the data collection it was found that no family was engaged in jhum cultivation. Their land remained untouched or un-cultivated. Even the worship services were disturbed as many of the families were engaged in poppy cultivation in the colder regions, far away from their villages. Engaging in the said activities also gave economic boost to many people in the area. The timber businessmen organised themselves into an association called Dingpi Area Kuki Trucks Association (DAKTA). As they are economically better off than other lay people they began to influence the economic and social life of the people. Though they are basically an association of businessmen, there are instances where they play the role of philanthropic organisation through their yeoman service and as a sponsor group on many occasions.

4.1.1 Khengjang Village

Khengjang is the first village selected for study from Kheng Joi Subdivision. The village is about 39 KM South of Chandel, the District headquarter. It is a border village on the Indo-Myanmar border. Chakpikarong town is the nearest town to the village in the district. It is about a kilometer or two away from the Myanmar border. The Chakpikarong-Khengjoi road connects Khengjang with Chakpikarong and the DC Road connects the village with Moreh border town situated now in the Tengenoupal district. Pu Sylvester Thongpum Haokip is the chief of the village. The people living in Khengjang belong to the Thadou-Kuki tribe.

The majority of the families are engaged in agriculture and allied activities and petty business. The village, according to the people, plays significant importance for various social and religious organizations that used to hold conferences, gospel camps, and other programs. In October 2019, it hosted the Khengjoi area Kuki Students Association Sports. The village is selected to be the permanent venue for Border Area Sports Association. There are two Christian denominations/churches in the village Viz. Catholic Church and Kuki Christian Church (KCC). The former forms a majority while the latter comprises only 4 households.

In terms of services and opportunities, the village has one government primary school christened Khengjang Zamvung Primary School and another private primary school christened Stella Maris School, two Anganwadi Centre (Khengjang A and Khengjang B) with one ASHA, a waiting shed, two tea shops, a water tank, and large size leveled playground, a 500 seated community hall of concreted wall and floor with a tin roof, a 3 roomed guest house with a pucca toilet attached that could make visitors stay comfortably. Post Office and police station are located at Molcham village which is about 2 km from the village. Other services and opportunities like a hospital, higher secondary schools, banks, markets, etc. are in Moreh town which is 79 kilometers away from the village. Concerning health care and markers in most cases, the villagers go to Tamu, Khampat, and Zohmun villages located in Myanmar. Earlier the village had a pipeline water supply from the stream in the hills. However, the pipeline got destroyed and is no more functioning, making the villagers struggle to get safe drinking water. Fortunately, the village authority managed to garner some funds from NeRCORMP and NREGS and dug a few bore wells in the village for safe drinking water. Apart from the village authorities' initiatives some households also have borewells making it convenient to get sufficient and safe drinking water. In terms of source of energy, all households used solar panels and batteries. The government has been working to provide electricity to the villagers. They have already put up the transformer, posts, and electric wires in the village but the current is yet to be sent.

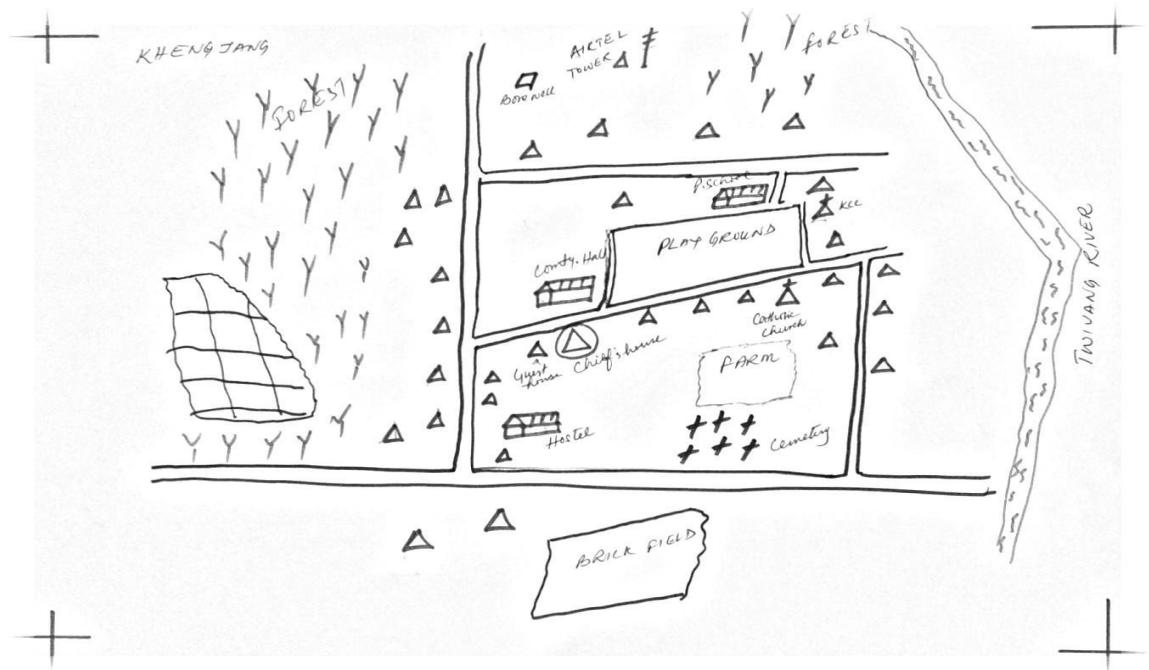
The socio-economic and educational activities of the village were badly affected during the Meitei underground conflict in the area from 2005-to 2008. It gave a blow to the all-around development of the village. All of them left their houses and took shelter in Moreh town and the nearby village in Myanmar. They were made refugees for over three years. They returned to the village after the crisis but not all of them came back to settle in the village. The number of households decreased.

Table 4.1 Timeline of Khengjang Village

Year	Particulars
1955	Establishment of Catholic Church
1957	Primary School started by Catholic fathers
Late 1970s	Shifted to present site of the village
1975	Khengjang Zamvung Primary School Opened
1980	Playground Constructed
1993-1995	Kuki-Naga Ethnic Clash Disturbance
1998	Beginning of Anganwadi Centre
2000	The first Post Graduate Felicitated
2004	Community Hall Constructed
2005	Deserted village due to Meitei underground inflicted unrest
2008	The return to the village after the unrest
2015	The Building of Residential Hostel
2015	Starting of Stella Maris School
2017	Putting up of transformer for electricity (not yet functional)
2019	Hosted the Khengjoi Area Kuki Students Association Sports

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.1 Social Map Khengjang Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

1. Mr. Thongpum Haokip (chief)
2. Mr. Paokholun Khongsai (VA Secretary)
3. Mrs. Hatneikim Baite
4. Mr. Vincent Khongsai
5. Mr. Dominic Haokip
6. Mr. Lawrence Khongsai

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.1.2 L. Bongjoi Village

L. Bongjoi constitutes the second sample village from Khengjoi sub-division with village code no. 270971. It is located at about 40 km away from the district headquarters in Chandel. The Chakpikarong-Khengjoi road passes through the village. The economy of the villagers was primarily jhum cultivation cultivating paddy and other vegetables for subsistence. However, in the last six to seven years most of the villagers engaged themselves in poppy cultivation in the Dingpi area, a colder region of the district where poppy cultivation is undertaken. During the visit

for fieldwork, not even a single family was found engaged in the cultivation of paddy in the jhum field.

Their history has it that the villagers once settled in Khengjoi village, Chandel District, Manipur. From there they shifted to a place called Saljang near the present site of L. Bongjoi village. It was that time in 1951 that they received the Catholic faith from the Catholic missionaries. In some record books/souvenirs, the names L. Bongjoi and Saljang are interchangeably used. After settling there for a few years, they were invited by the then chief of Khengjoi to come back to the village again. They obliged the request and went back. Later on, in 1957 Pu Thangkohen Baite with some of his kinsmen established L. Bongjoi village in the present site. The letter L in the name of the village stands for Lungkoi which is the name of one of the old villages which they had settled long ago. After the chief died with the decision taken by the family circle the chieftainship was taken over by his younger brother Pu Jamngam Baite as his minor son Jamkhotong was not yet able to take over the chieftainship. Later, Jamkhotong Baite s/o Thangkohen Baite took over the chieftainship from him.

The village was affected by two ethnic clashes. The Kuki-Naga Clash of the early 1990s affected the village on a small scale. The other conflict rose out of the high-handedness of the Valley based Meitei undergrounds/militants from 2005-to 2007 which devastated the whole village. The crisis is locally called *Meilhei gal* (Manipuri war) by the native villagers where Meilhei for them is the valley based insurgent groups and not the whole Meitei community of the state. All the villagers numbering about 25 households left their village and took shelter in and around Moreh and Sugnu areas in Chandel District, Manipur. The village was left barren for about 2 years. Within that, the central arm forces operated the whole area and cleansed the Meitei militants from the area. They reached back their village by the end of 2007 and resumed their settlement. This affected the socio-economic and cultural life of the village to a great extent.

In terms of services and opportunities, Anganwadi Centre, ASHA, waiting shed, ring Common Service Center (CSC), Government Aided Primary School, Community Hall, work shed, village authority house, water tank for rainwater

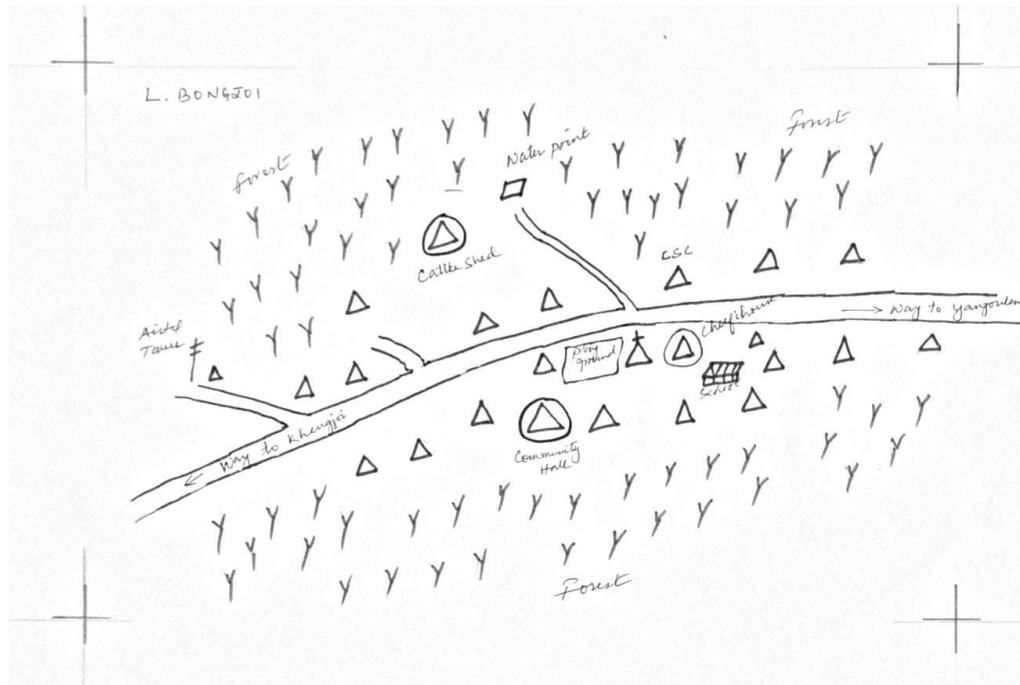
harvesting, a newly constructed water tank under Jal Jeevan Mission, one variety shop, and a rice mill are found in the village. For health care, the villager goes to Sugnu or Moreh towns on the Indian side or Khampat town on the Myanmar side. For education, most of them go to Sugnu and Moreh. Most marketing is done at Zohmun on the Myanmar side.

Table 4.2 Timeline of L. Bongjoi Village

Year	Particulars
1940s	First Migration from Khengjoi and Settlement at Saljang
1951	Receiving Catholic Faith
1955	Back to Khengjoi village
1957	Establishment of the present village (L. Bongjoi)
1962	Established Catholic Church
1973	L. Bongjoi Post Office Opened
1993-1995	Kuki-Naga Ethnic Clash Disturbance
2005	Deserted village due to Meitei underground inflicted unrest
1996	Anganwadi centre opened
2008	ASHA
2009	Common Service Centre
2008	Returned to village
2012	Beginning of Primary School
2010	The building of Community Hall
2020	Putting up of Airtel Tower in the village
2021	The New Church building inaugurated
2021	Jal Jeevan Mission Water Tank

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.2 Social Map L. Bongjoi Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Mr. Jamthong Baite (chief) | 2. Mrs. Vahlhing Baite (chief's wife) |
| 3. Mr. Hemkhojam | 4. Mrs. Hoikhoneng Khongsai |
| 5. Mr. Ngamminsat | 6. Miss Mercy |

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.1.3 Saibol Joupri Village

Saibol Joupri was established by (L) Sojam Khongsai with some of his kinsmen in the year 1969. After his death, the chiefship was taken over by his son (L) Thongsei Khongsai. The untimely demise of the chief made his son Mr. Jamkholal Khongsai the chief of the village at a very young age.

The village is situated towards the south of the district headquarters Chandel. It is under Khenjoi Sub-Division in Chandel District, Manipur. The village is 10km away from Khenjoi, the Sub-Division headquarters. Situated in the hill range of the Dingpi range it enjoys a cold climate and is cloudy for most of the year. According to the 2011 census record the village Code No. is 270980. In 2009 the village was

shifted from its original site to the present site near Joupi village junction. The Tengenupal-New Samtal road passes through the village. It has 22 households.

In terms of services, the village has a primary health Sub-Centre, Primary School, community hall, ASHA, two Anganwadi centers, and two variety stores. The 30 Assam Rifles Headquarter is situated within a stone's throw from the village providing security to the area. The ICICI bank inside the army camp is a fully functional bank that provides banking facilities to the people of the area. Apart from the bank some villagers also sometimes enjoy the facilities provided by the CDS (canteen) in the camp. There is also a transit hostel and a public toilet. The village was electrified in 2009. Water for domestic consumption is drawn from the nearby stream and stored in a public water tank. During the rainy season rainwater collected is collected using syntax and other containers are made use in the house.

The livelihood of the people revolves around jhum cultivation. The majority of the villagers directly or indirectly engage in poppy cultivation. Some of them either have a house of their own or rented a house in Sugnu Hill Area for their children's education and other purposes. The ongoing project of Model Residential School in the village is hoped to bring about educational development in the area.

The whole village professes the same faith-catholic faith. Rev. Fr. John Jamkhotil Khongsai is an ordained catholic priest from the village. He is the older brother of the current chief, Mr. Jamkholal Khongsai. Rev. Sr. Cicilia Khongsai FCC, a catholic nun, also hails from this village. The villagers are deeply rooted in the catholic faith and have hosted many church conferences and revival camps in the past.

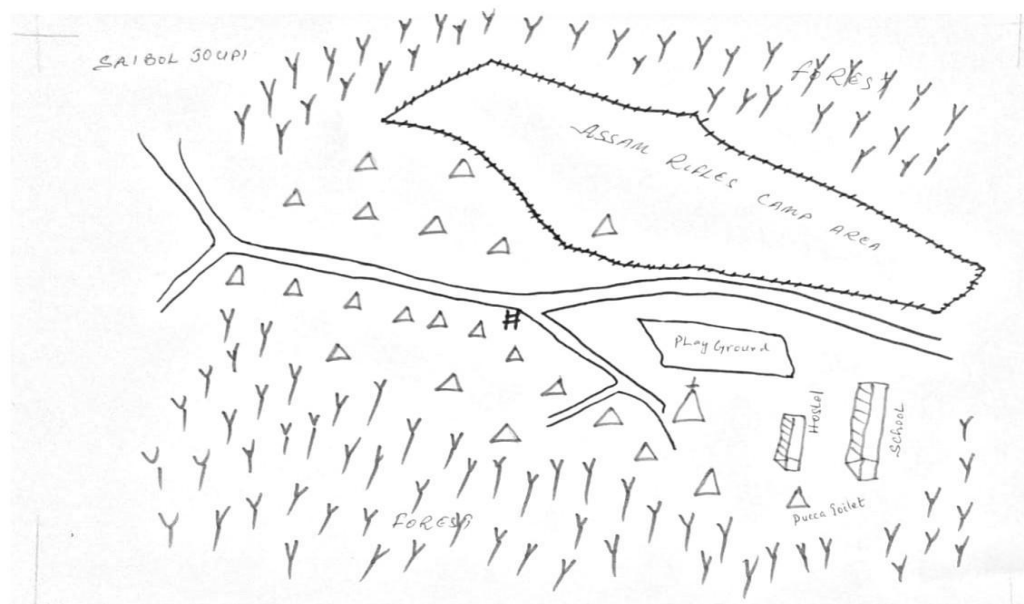
Jhum cultivation, gathering of wild vegetables and fruits and hunting remains the main occupation of majority of the population. The land they occupied is not favourable for paddy cultivation, therefore, other cash crops like maize, sesame and vegetables such as potato, cabbage, mustard, yam, pumpkin, gourd, white pumpkin, bitter gourd are widely cultivated in the area.

Table 4.3 Timeline of Saibol Joupi Village

Year	Particulars
1969	Establishment of the village
1972	Established Catholic Church
1993-1995	Kuki-Naga Conflict
1996	Anganwadi centers
2007	First Professed Catholic Nun of the village
2007	30 Assam Rifles Headquarter
2009	Shifted village to the present site
2009	Electrified
2012	First ordained Catholic Priest of the village
2004	KCYO Silver Jubilee
2005	First catholic nun professed
2005	Deserted village due to Meitei underground inflicted unrest
2000	ASHA
2007	Returned to village
2010	The building of Community Hall
2012	Saibol Primary School
2015	The ICICI Bank
2016	Common Service centre
2017	Youth Transit Hostel
2017	Separate toilets for boys and girls
2021	Catholic Congress

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.3 Social Map of Saibol Joupi Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

1. Mr. Jamkholal Khongsai (chief)
2. Mr. Letboi Khongsai (VA Secretary)
3. Mrs. Lhingneo
4. Mr. Thonglal
5. Mis Neopi

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.1.4 H. Hengcham Village

H. Hengcham constitutes another sample village from Khengjoi Sub-Division. The first Manipur Police Service Officer of the sub-division Mr. Augustine Jangminthang Khongsai MPS, who is currently posted in Kakching District as Additional SP, hails from this village.

Situated in the hilly terrains of the Dingpi range the village is connected to the nearest town Chakpikarong through a motorable road. It is about 53 km away from district headquarters Chandel. Started by (L) Hollhun Khongsai, the village exists for almost 30 years and has about 25 households.

In terms of services, the village has two Anganwadi centers, ASHA, and V/Set Wifi connection. The variety of stores located at Joupi village facilitates the availability of some essential items at a little costlier rate. It has a work shed

constructed under BRGF, and a public toilet constructed under NeRCORMP. The village was electrified in 2009 and there is a 33kv substation located near Joupi village. Some developmental schemes/activities such as plantation of plumb, lemon, banana, Chinese teak, piggery, poultry, tailoring, etc. had been implemented in the villages in the past years.

The villagers enjoy water supply through pipelines from the stream. The water is stored in a public tank for domestic consumption.

For primary education, the villagers mostly rely on the government-aided primary school at Joupi village. For higher studies, the villagers mostly go to Sugnu, the second nearest town to the village. For health care facilities the villagers mostly go to Sugnu town.

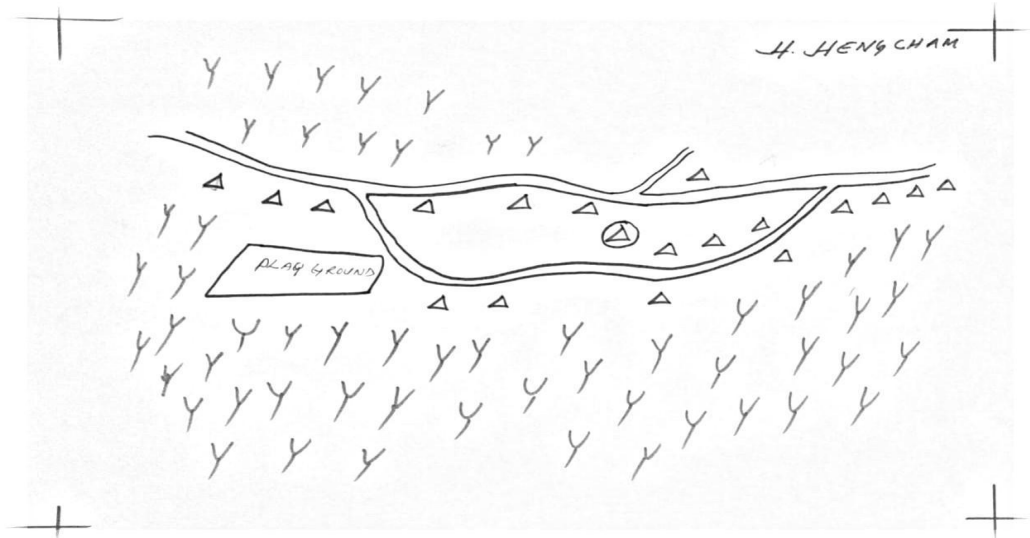
The villagers mostly engaged in jhum cultivation. Their social and economic lives revolve around jhum cultivation. The poppy plantation is also taken up by the majority of the villagers. This has become one of the main sources of income for most of them. The Tengnoupal-New Samtal road passes through the village. This makes the villagers get connected with the border villages.

Table 4.4 Timeline of H. Hengcham village

Year	Particulars
Late 1980s	Established
2008	ASHA Worker inducted
2009	Electrified
2011	Water Tank (IWMP)
2012	Angawadi Centre
2012	Public Toilet
2010	Work Shed under BRGF
2010	Play Ground
2014	Felicitation of MPS Officer
2015	V/Set Connection

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.4 Social Map of H. Hengcham Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

1. Mr. Micheal Khongsai (chief's younger brother)
2. Mr. Minthang Khongsai
3. Mrs. Kimboi
4. Mr. John
5. Mr. Lalboi

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.2 Foothill Villages

The hill villages consist of those sample villages under Chakpikarong subdivision. The selected villages are New Keiphom, Utangpokpi, Ukon Thingkangphai and Singtom villages.

As already mentioned in Chapter -I, the foothill villages are located at the adjoining areas, the end of the valley of Kakching district and beginning of the hills of the Chandel district. It is on the boundary between Kakching district and Chandel District. In comparison to the hill villages, they are nearer to the district headquarters, Chandel. The nearest town, Sugnu, is in Kakching district. From the said town people get many of their basic needs. Agriculture is taken up by many people as the main occupations but not so much as the hill villages do. Wetland cultivation is common among them. As compared to the hill villages, a higher number of people engaged themselves in governments and private jobs. Compared to

the hill villages accessing health care, education, banks, government offices and other necessary services are easier. The Community Health Centre situated at Sugnu Town gives them first aid and other emergency cares. There are about 7 high schools and two higher secondary schools in the area which gives ample opportunity for the people to get high school and higher secondary school level education. The nearest police station and bank (SBI) are located at Sugnu town.

4.2.1 New Keiphom Village

New Keiphom is the first village selected from Chakpikarong Subdivision. The village was established in 1988. It is located at the foothill of Chingchakoh Hill, the highest hill in the Sugnu area. The nearest town is Sugnu which is about 1 Km. away. In terms of their faith, the community professes the Catholic faith. St. Joseph's Parish Centre and School are just 400 meters away from the village.

In terms of services and opportunities, the village has an Anganwadi Centre, one ASHA worker, two variety stores, a chicken center, one tea shop, a water tank, a bore well, a hand pump, and a community hall, and a newly levelled playground. The primary occupations of the villagers are diverse. Some are in defense services, some teach in private schools, some run petty businesses, some earn their daily wages and some are farmers.

Other services and opportunities like hospitals, police stations, banks, markets, etc. are in Sugnu town which is about 1 kilometer away from the village. All the children go to school with most of them getting admitted to St. Joseph's Higher Secondary School run by the Catholic church.

The village follows the catholic faith and the local church is a unit under St. Joseph's parish, Sugnu, one of the oldest parishes in Manipur. Rev. Fr. Stephen Ngamkholal Baite, a catholic priest, hails from this village. The annual religious feasts and days of obligations like Ash Wednesday, Good Friday, Easter, Christmas, etc. are celebrated/commemorated following the church rules. Apart from the Church organization, the village also has an active Men Society, Women Society, and Catholic Youth Association (CYA). The village also is known for the existence of the St. George Prayer Mount at the top of Chinchakoh hill. The prayer mount was started by Rev. Fr. George Ginkhosei Baite, the then parish priest of Sugnu with the

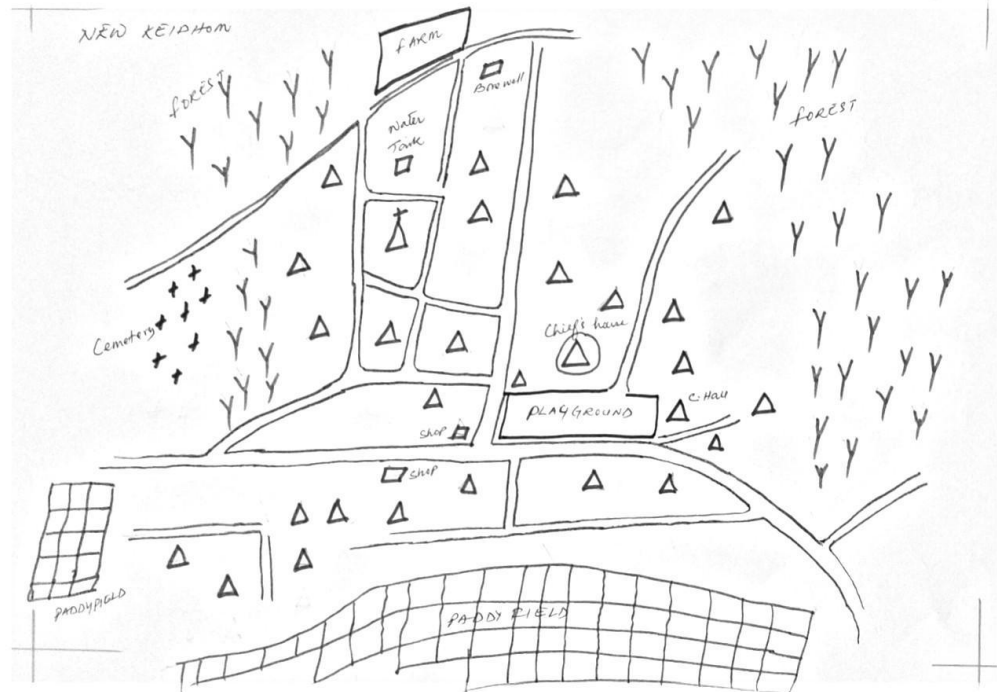
permission of the then chief of New Keiphom village in 2003. The parish women's society took up the initiative to put up Stations of the Cross on the way to the mount and a strong concrete crucifix at the top of the hill. This made the prayer mount more prayer friendly for the faithful. People from different Christian denominations climb the mount to pray on Good Fridays every year.

Table 4.5 Timeline of New Keiphom Village

Year	Particulars
Late 1980s	Established
1993-1995	Kuki Naga Ethnic Conflict
1993	First Church Constructed (Temporary)
1996	A new church building inaugurated
2000	Hand pump installed
2002	Electrified
2003	St. George's Prayer Mount
2004	EGS Centre
2005	Kuki Catholic Congress
2006	ASHA
2007	Community Hall
2007	Anganwadi Centre
2009	A Catholic Priest Ordained
2015	VSAT Connection in the village
2018	Playground
2019	Bore well
2019	Water Tank for water supply
2020	Village Mini Library set up
2020	New Community Hall constructed

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.5 Social Map of New Keiphom Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Mr. John Baite (chief) | 2. Mr. Helun Baite |
| 3. Mrs. Hoichong (Anganwadi worker) | 4. Mr. Peter Lungdim |
| 5. Mrs. Helam Lupho | 6. Mr. Thomas Guite |

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.2.2. Utangpokpi Village

Utangpokpi village constitutes the second sample village under the Chakpikarong subdivision. The village is in Chakpikarong TD block/Sub-Division of Chandel district in Manipur, 21 km away from district headquarters Chandel. Sugnu is the nearest town and is 1 km away. It was founded by (L) Mr. Thangngul Baite and his kinsmen in around the early part of the 20th century. In the early days, they settled at Maribung/Nungphara, which is near to Chingchakoh hilltop, and started the process of the village settlement. One, Pu Nehkthoang Baite, took the initiative to get the village and land recognized by the government. Later, they shifted to

Mongkot kholui and from there they shifted to the present site. Mr. Thangkholen Baite is the current chief of the village. There are 72 households as per census record 2011.

Drinking water is supplied through water pipes from Bollon and Joudung streams and collected in a reservoir. There is also a newly dug bore well that supplies water to the villagers. The village has a separate transformer and electricity is the main source of power for the village. From the Integrated Water Management Project (IWMP) of the government, the villagers planted trees, and fruit trees such as lemon and banana plants and benefited much from it. There was a Village Volunteer Force Camp in the village before they were merged with the SSB. The campsite is now christened Khawkuan Heritage.

The village has a well-organized church and community organizations. The village follows the presbyterian way of worship. It is under Eastern Manipur Presbytery (EMP) which is under Manipur Synod. Church activities, festivals, and celebrations are organized on a routine basis depending on the occasion and season. Apart from the annual celebrations like Good Friday, Easter, Christmas, etc. one prominent traditional, as well as a religious celebration of the church, is the Anthah lop (feast of new fruits/vegetables) in the month of August. The church members bring together the new fruit or vegetable from their fields to the church and a big celebration usually takes place. The church also celebrates Mothers' Day, Fathers' Day, Children's Day, and other days of importance annually. Other occasions like Youth Club Day, seasonal festivals, Khopi maicham (village prayer day) are also observed in the village.

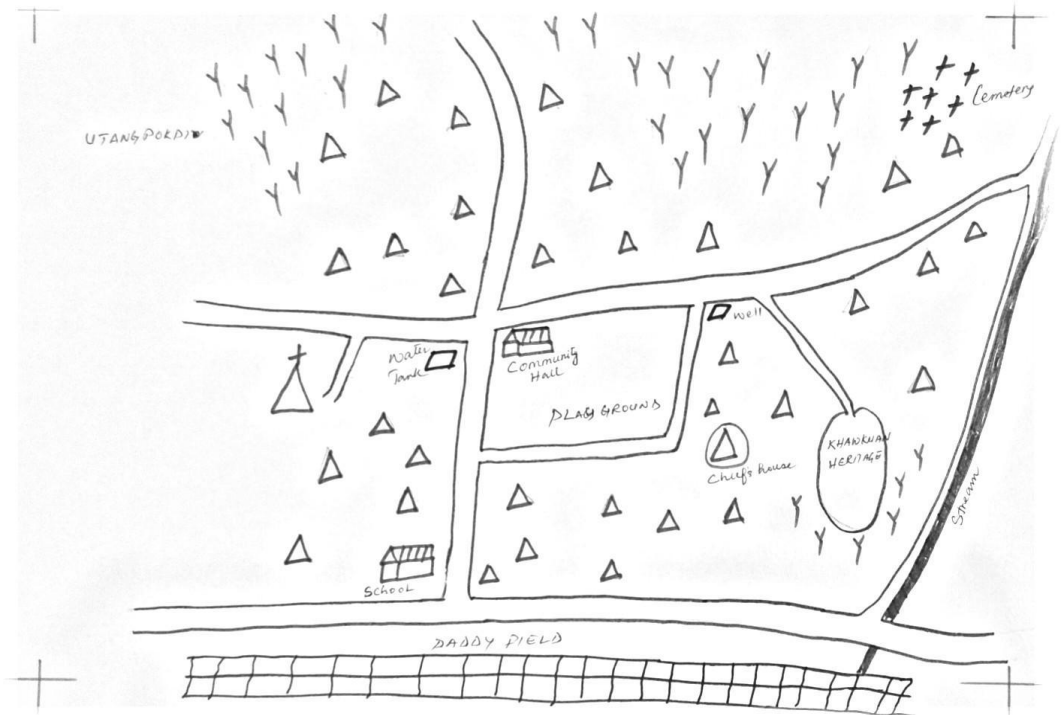
In terms of services and opportunities, government-aided primary school under ADC Chandel, community hall, playground, Anganwadi Centre, ASHA, waiting shed, ring well is present in the village. For other services like hospital, school, market, police station, fire services, and post office. Serou town, located beyond the chakpi river, also provides marketing opportunities. For banking, the villagers mainly depended on Chakpikarong SBI Branch. However, after the opening of the new SBI branch in Sugnu, some have started using the services provided there.

Table 4.6 Timeline of Utangpokpi Village

Year	Particulars
Late 1930s	Established village at Maribung area
1950	Shifted to Mongkot Kholui
1953	Baptist Church Founded
1968	VVF Camp Established
1970	Shifted to present village site
1980's	Electrified
1996	Anganwadi Centre Opened
2001	Pastor Ordination of Rev. Thangkhoisei Baite
2005	Community Service Centre
2006	ASHA
2010	Play ground
2017	Community Hall
2015	Primary School Under ADC

Source: PRA Exercise

Fig: 4.6 Social Map of Utangpokpi Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

1. Mr. Jangpao Baite (chief's younger brother)
2. Mr. Hegin Baite
3. Miss Chachan Manchong
4. Mrs. Lalam
5. Mr. Thangboi

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.2.3 Ukon Thingkangphai Village

Ukon Thingkangphai, Chandel District, Manipur is the third sample village selected from Chakpikarong Subdivision. It was established under the leadership of (L) Mr. Thangthong Baite with his kinsmen. After Pu Thangthong the chiefship was handed over to Mr. Doulun Baite and after his demise the present chief Mr. Thangjangam Baite is looking after the village.

During the Kuki-Naga conflict in the early nineties, the villagers joined with Sinam Thingkangphai, a nearby village, and formed a grouping center at Sinam Thingkangphai village for safety. As the conflict subsided around 1996/1997 the villagers moved back to the village and continued their life again. However, much

damage to social and economic life had already occurred during the conflict. The villagers had to restart their social and economic activities.

Table 4.7 Timeline of Ukon Thingkangphai Village

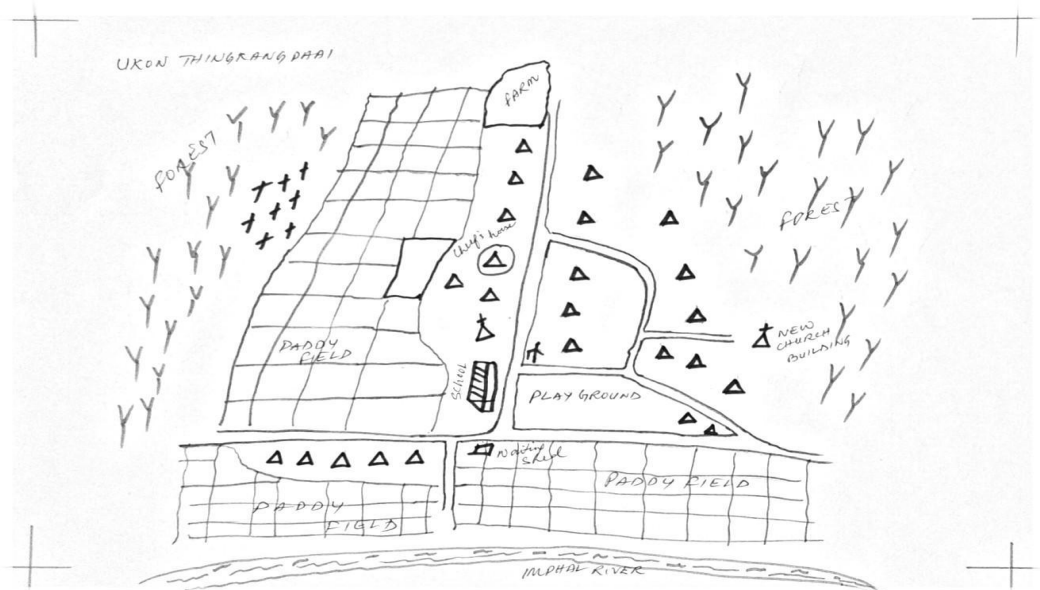
Year	Particulars
Late 1930s	Established
1950s	Shifted to present site of the village
1952	Catholic Church Founded
1968	Ukon Primary School Opened
1985	Water Supply under PHED
1987	Water Tank
1988	Play Ground
1987	Primary school opened
1973	Hosted BSO Conference
1993	Kuki Naga Ethnic Conflict
1994	Village deserted
1997	Resettlement in the village
2012	ASHA
2012	Anganwadi Centre
2007	Village Electrified
2008	First Catholic Nun Professed
2009	First Catholic Priest Ordained
2013	Hand pump
2015	Govt. Junior High School Under ADC Chandel
2017	Community Service Centre

Source: PRA Exercise

The whole village is a firm believer in the Catholic faith and has an ordained catholic priest Rev. Fr. Phillip Paokhomang Baite CM and five professed catholic nuns Viz. Sr. Margaret Nengneilhing Baite SH, Sr. Alphonsa Vahjaneng Baite FCC, Sr. Grace Hoikhonei Baite DC, Sr. Mercy Baite DC and Sr. Rebecca Chinneichong Baite SABS.

In terms of services, the village has a fully functioning Government Junior High School, Anganwadi Centre, ASHA, public toilet, a playground, and a hand pump. The village is connected to the nearest town Serou with a PWD road. The villagers do their marketing in this town. For other services like Highschool, health care, post office and police station the villagers depend on the services available at Sugnu town. For banking facilities, the villagers mostly depend on SBI Chakpikarong town.

Figure 4.7 Social Map of Ukon Thingkangphai Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Mr. Thangjangam Baite (chief) | 2. Thongkholet Baite |
| 3. Mr. Solomon | 4. Mr. Seiminlal |
| 5. Mrs. Lalam | |

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.2.4 Singtom Village

Singtom village is the fourth village selected from Chakpikarong Subdivision. At present Mr. Boipa is the chief of the village. The Sugnu - Chakpikarong road passes through the village. It is 17 KM away from the district headquarters Chandel and 6 KM away from its sub-division office Chakpikarong. The village has 66 households. The nearest town is Serou which is about 1 Km. The village is inhabited by different clans of the Zou tribe. Many important and memorable events of the tribe had taken place in the village. It is also one of the earliest Catholic communities in the Archdiocese of Imphal, Manipur and the Catholic Church stands firm in the village. It has a well-established catholic church. The first Zou Catholic priest Rev. Fr. Mark Thangkhanai and the first Zou Catholic Nun Rev. Sr. Mary Augustine SABS hails from this village. Other religious priests are Rev. Fr. Athanasius Mung and his younger brother Rev. Fr. Anthony Sen. Other religious nuns are Sr. Maria Chinglun FCC and Sr. Maria Goretti FCC.

In terms of services and opportunities, the village has an Anganwadi Centre with one ASHA, has a waiting shed, two variety stores, one tea shop, a water tank, a community hall, and a newly levelled playground. The Chakpi river and which is just 200 meters away from the village is an important natural resource. The stone and sand quarries at the bank of the river act as an important source of income for the owners of the village and provide employment opportunities to the non-owners. It has a well-established Government Junior High School which is also one of the polling stations of 41 Chandel A/C.

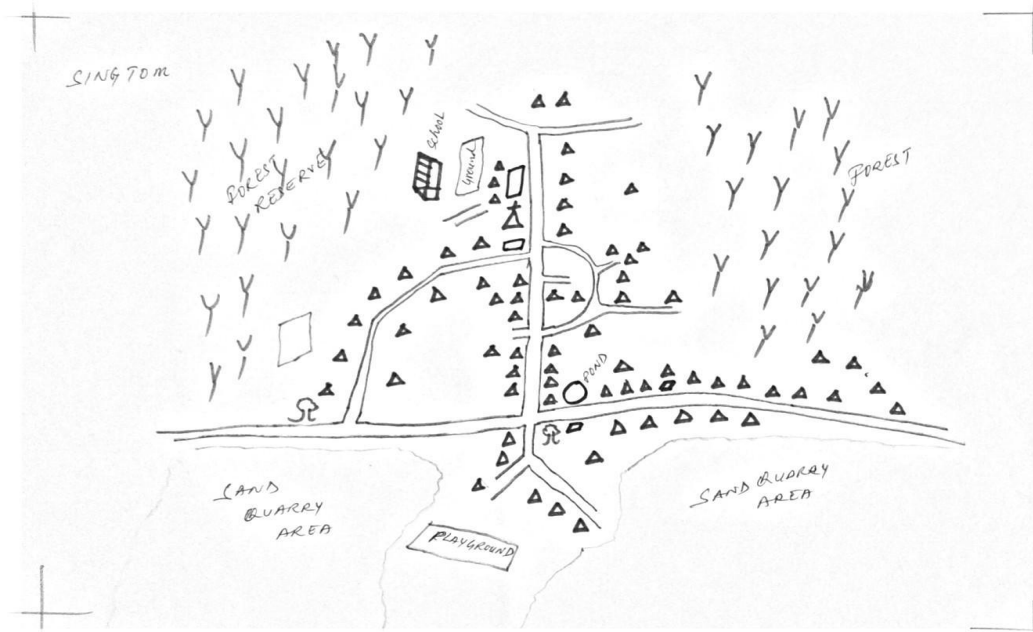
Other services and opportunities like hospitals, High school, higher secondary schools, police stations, banks, markets, etc. are located in Sugnu town which is about 2 kilometres away from the village. Singtom village also held the record of being the first fully vaccinated village in the Chandel district.

Table 4.8 Timeline of Singtom

Year	Particulars
Late 1920s	Established
1945	Catholic Church Founded
1958	First Catholic Missionary Visit and Holy Mass
1969	Singtom Primary School opened
1970's	Electrified
1983	First priest ordained
1987	First catholic nun professed
1985	Hosted ZSP Conference
1996	Anganwadi Centre opened
2016	Taithul Phungpi Organisations Silver Jubilee
2006	ASHA worker inducted
2015	Play ground
2015	Community Service Centre
2016	Govt. Junior High School Under ADC Chandel

Source: PRA Exercise

Figure 4.8 Social Map of Singtom Village



Source: PRA Exercise

Participants:

1. Mr. John
2. Mr. Thomas Paupi
3. Miss Teresa Zote
4. Mrs. Sarah
5. Miss Christina

Facilitator: N. Samuel Douminthang Baite

4.3 Comparative findings of the villages

The following findings are drawn from field observations, PRA Exercises and Timeline of the sample villages.

1. Social and religious life:

The first aspect Social can be understood as the activities that take place outside in the public or community away from home or family. During the field visit it was observed that the hill villages were quiet during week days as majority of them were engaged in farming and other activities away from their homes. The village becomes lively only in the weekends. It was learnt that since many children and youth left their villages for studies, some parents also left their villages during the academic session to be with their children in other places, the villages used to lively

in the months of December and January when these people return to villages. The cultivation of poppy in the hill areas also affected the social and cultural life of the villagers to a great extent. For villages like Khengjang and L. Bongjoi, since cultivation is not possible in their land, some of the villagers had to go colder region in Dingpi areas, either for cultivation or earning daily wages. It was learnt that during the cultivation season, many villagers left the village for months thereby affecting the social life in the village.

On the other hand, social and cultural life in the foothill remains almost constant throughout the year. Though there may be more activities or functions in the months of December and January, life in these villages seems do not have much differences.

The nature of livelihood and educational activities affected religious life in the hill villages to a great extent. As mention in the social and cultural life, during cultivation and academic seasons the hill village have a drier look, as many were engaged in the fields while the children and youths are out in the towns and cities for studies. In some of the villages there were instances where they couldn't have even a weekly church service due to the lack of congregation. However, in the foothill villages, religious activities were constant throughout the year. The percentage of church or religious services and other religious activities in the foothill villages were better than that of the hill villages.

2. Basic services

The basic services considered here are health care, education, transportation, bank, community hall, recreational centres and power supply. Power supply is studied in Chapter VI of this book, so it is not described here.

All the villages have Accredited Social Health Activist (ASHA) and Anganwadi Centres. However, for other health care services the foothill villages have better access to healthcare. The fully functional primary health centre at Chakpikarong and the Community Health Centre at Sugnu town are better access by the foothill villages for emergency and welfare needs.

Primary schools are available in all the villages but one in Hill village and one in the Foothill village. However, access to Higher education (High School and

above) shows a wide range of differences. For the Hill villages access to higher education is expensive and it's a herculean task as they have to travel from far flung areas either to Sugnu town or Moreh town and others. On the other hand, for the foothill villages educational facilities up to higher secondary level are available within a square kilometre or two. Access to colleges and higher institutions are far better for the foothill village.

In terms of transportation there is a vast difference. The hill villages are not connected with any public transport system. The foothill villages on the other hand have public transportation at easy access. All the villagers are connected to all weathered road blacktop roads. Public bus plying on Sugnu-Chakpikarong road passes near New Keiphom and through Utangpokpi and Singtom villages. Ukon Thingkangphai villager can access nearest public bus at Serou town which is a couple of kilometres away.

In terms of bank services, the hill villages lack behind the foothill villages. ICICI bank at Saibol Joupi does provide banking facilities to the people but in a very limited scale. In addition to this, the financial and banking knowledge of the people in the hill villages are also lower than the foothill villages. The foothill villages have easy access to the SBI banks at Chakopikarong and Sugnu, and other parts of the state such as Chandel, Kakching, Churachandpur etc.

Community hall is available in all the villages but one in the hill and one in the foothill villages.

Two of the hill villages did not have playgrounds, and one village has a small size playground. However, in the foothill, all villages have open playgrounds.

3. Social Unrest or Ethnic Conflicts

In terms of social unrest or ethnic all the villages both in the hill and foothills were affected by the Kuki-Naga conflicts of the early 1990s. In addition to the untoward happening, the hill villages faced another conflict, caused by the high handedness of the valley-based Meitei underground, from 2005-2009. The incident resulted in deserting of villages by all the hill villages and shifted on one (Saibol Joupi) in the aftermath.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to describe the physical, temporal features and social setting of the sample villages. From the descriptions of the villages, the timeline, and social maps the context of the study is given more clarity. Having drawn the basic understanding of the study context, the following chapter presents the community composition of the sample villages which also attempts to have more understanding on the community context, its social, educational, and economic composition.

CHAPTER V

COMPOSITION OF VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

The previous chapter discussed the physical and temporal features of the sample villages. The vital information collected field observation, key-informant interviews and PRA exercises were considered and put in that chapter. Following this, the present chapter presents the community composition of the sample villages based on the data collected using interview schedule. The chapter attempts to discuss the demographic, social, and economic structural bases of the sample households and their family members. “Social structure is the pattern of social arrangements in society that are both emergent from and determinant of the actions of the individuals” (Touhang 2016).

As given in Chapter IV a total of eight villages were taken as sample villages which were sub-classified into Hill Villages and Foothill Village. The hill villages comprise Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joui and H. Hengcham. The foothill villages comprise New Keiphom, Utangpokpi, Ukon Thingkangphai and Singtom. Both the types of villages are in the rural district, i.e., Chandel, and the term hill and foothill villages, therefore, are used to differentiate the topographical locations of the two types of villages.

The chapter is divided into three broad sections. The first section describes the demographic structural bases of the sample households. This is studied at both the individual and household levels. At the individual level, the structural bases studied are age group, gender, marital status, and education. At the household level, it includes the type of family, size of family, and form of family. The second section presents the social structural bases of the sample households which include the tribe and denomination of the respondents or households. The third section describes the economic structural bases of the sample village both at the individual and household levels. At the individual level earning and dependency profile, primary and secondary occupations are studied. At the household level, land ownership patterns are studied.

5.1 Demographic Composition of the Sample Households

In social research, the understanding of the socio-demographic and economic profile of the studied population plays a vital role for the readers to acquaint themselves with the background well. The value system, tradition and cultures, the standard of living, and the quality of life they have are some important factors in shaping one's perceptions and attitudes. The socio-demographic and economic profiles of the sample household and population of both the categories – hill villages and foothill villages, are presented with the aim to provide an overview understanding of the studied population. They are studied both at the individual and household levels and it is presented in three subsections.

5.1.1 Demographic Profile of Sample Villages

The first subsection is the demographic profiles of the sample village presented at the individual level. The structural bases studied in this section are age group, gender, marital status, and education of the whole population (See tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5. 4)

5.1.1.1 Age Group

The first characteristic considered under the demographic composition in the study is the age group of the sample households. Age is an important demographic indicator which is significant in understanding the characteristics of any given or studied population. The age group is divided into five categories - Children (≤ 14), Adolescents (14 - 18), Young (18 - 35), Middle (35 - 60) and Elderly (60+). The distribution of population based on age group is presented in Table 5.1

Based on the classification of age groups when considering the whole sample population from the given table it was seen that the young population constitute one-third (33 percent) of the whole population and they are the majority group. They are followed by the children which constitute a little less than one-third (29 per cent). The third in the group was the middle age group which constitutes one-fourth of the whole population. They are followed by the adolescents which constitute a little less than one-tenth (9 per cent) of the population. The least in the group was the elderly which constitute only four per cent of the whole population.

When considering the hill and foothills separately the same pattern was seen again. When comparing the two categories of villages, though a similar pattern of composition was seen, there are slight differences in the constitution. We can see that the children group in the hill villages with 35 per cent was much higher than the foothill

Table 5.1 Demographic Composition of Sample Villages: Age Group

Sl. No	Village	N	Age Group										Mean Age	SD
			Children (<= 14)		Adolescents (14 - 18)		Young (18 - 35)		Middle (35 - 60)		Elderly (60+)			
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
I	Hill Villages	474	164	35	42	9	142	30	107	23	19	4	24.3	17.5
1	Khengjang	166	59	36	12	7	53	32	37	22	5	3	23.4	17.3
2	L. Bongjoi	115	51	44	8	7	33	29	20	17	3	3	21.3	17.6
3	Saibol	113	36	32	12	11	33	29	24	21	8	7	26.0	17.7
4	H. Hengcham	80	18	23	10	13	23	29	26	33	3	4	28.0	17.1
II	Foothill villages	747	195	26	70	9	257	34	196	26	29	4	26.4	16.6
5	New Keiphom	145	38	26	8	6	57	39	34	23	8	6	26.5	16.8
6	Utangpokpi	214	67	31	29	14	55	26	50	23	13	6	25.2	18.2
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	150	38	25	12	8	59	39	35	23	6	4	26.9	16.5
8	Singtom	238	52	22	21	9	86	36	77	32	2	1	27.2	15.0
	Total	1221	359	29	112	9	399	33	303	25	48	4	25.6	17.0

Source: Computed

villages with 26 per cent while the young age group in the hill villages with 30 per cent less than the young age group of the foothill villages with 34 per cent. The middle age group of the hill villages with 23 per cent also was lesser than the foothill villages with 26 per cent. The percentage of composition of adolescents and elderly in both the types of villages are the same with nine per cent and four per cent respectively.

From the analysis it was observed that the sample population was significantly a young population.

5.1.1.2 Gender

Gender was another vital demographic trait which influence the socio-economic study of a given population to a great extent. This is because many social, cultural, religious, and economic roles and responsibilities are assigned to people based on their gender. The second characteristic studied under Demographic Composition of Sample Villages was gender. The gender composition of the sample population based on the field survey is presented in Table 5.2

Table 5.2 Demographic Composition of Sample Villages: Gender

Sl. No	Village	Gender				Total		Sex Ratio
		Female		Male		Freq.	%	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%			
I	Hill Villages	236	50	238	50	474	100	0.99
1	Khengjang	76	46	90	54	166	100	0.84
2	L. Bongjoi	60	52	55	48	115	100	1.09
3	Saibol	60	53	53	47	113	100	1.13
4	H. Hengcham	40	50	40	50	80	100	1.00
II	Foothill Villages	380	51	367	49	747	100	1.04
5	New Keiphom	80	55	65	45	145	100	1.23
6	Utangpokpi	106	50	108	50	214	100	0.98
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	73	49	77	51	150	100	0.95
8	Singtom	121	51	117	49	238	100	1.03
	Total	616	50	605	50	1221	100	1.02

Source: Computed

From the given table (4.2) it was seen that the gender composition was equally distributed. Taking the whole sample village both the hills and the foothill village, each gender constitutes 50 per cent each. In the hill villages the same pattern was seen with 50 per cent each for both the genders giving the sex ratio of 0.99. However, in the foothill villages, though not significant, female population with 51 per cent was two per cent higher than the male population with 49 per cent giving the sex ratio of 1.04.

The equal distribution of gender composition was an interesting and encouraging fact that tells us about the acceptance of both the genders in the society.

5.1.1.3 Marital Status

The third demographic characteristics studied on the sample villages was marital status. Marital status in traditional societies plays a very important role in ascribing the level of prestige and esteem of the person. Even some of the customary roles and responsibilities are given to the person based on their marital status. In the present study marital status of the sample population was categorized into unmarried, married, divorced/separated, and widowed/widower. The marital status composition is presented in Table 5.3

Table 5.3 Demographic Composition of Sample Villages: Marital Status

S I. N o	Village	N	Marital Status							
			Unmarried		Married		Divorced		Widowed/ widower	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Village	474	278	59	184	38	0	0	12	3
1	Khengjang	166	99	60	62	37	0	0	4	2
2	L. Bongjoi	115	73	63	41	36	0	0	1	1
3	Saibol Joupj	113	66	58	44	39	0	0	3	3
4	H. Hengcham	80	40	50	36	45	0	0	4	5
II	Foothill Village	747	425	57	298	40	4	1	20	3
5	New Keiphom	145	78	54	62	43	1	0	5	3
6	Utangpokpi	214	128	60	82	38	0	0	4	2
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	150	78	52	64	42	3	3	3	2
8	Singtom	238	141	59	89	37	0	0	8	3
	Total	1221	703	58	478	39	4	0	32	3

Source: Computed

From the given table it was observed that most of population in the hill villages (59 per cent) and foothill villages (57 %) were unmarried. This was followed by married members which constitute 38 per cent in the hills and 40 per cent in the foothill villages. The widowed members surprisingly constitute a significant percentage with 3 per cent in the hills and 3 per cent in the foothill villages. The higher rate of widows in the foothill villages is still further surprising. The cases of divorce/separation are very rare where there was no divorced person in the hill village and only a minimal of one per cent divorced found in the foothill villages.

According to the 2011 census the percentage of widows and widowers in India stood at 7.4% and 1.8% respectively. The high rate of widow/widower among the studied population is surprisingly an alarming situation the cause of which needs a further investigation.

5.1.1.4 Education of Adult Members

In the modern world education is not just a privilege but a necessity. In India according to the Right to Education Act (2009) it has become a right, a right of every child from the age of six to fourteen to get free and compulsory education.

The fourth component taken into consideration for understanding the demographic composition of the studied population is the status of adult education. The educational qualification of adults is classified into illiterate, primary (1-5), Middle School (6-8) High School (9-10), Hr. Sec. School (11-12) and College & Above. The distribution of the composition of adult education of the studied population is presented in Table 5.4

From the table (5.4) it was observed that literacy rate was much better in the foothills than the hill villages as expected. Illiteracy dominates the hill villages with about one-fourth (26 per cent) of the population while less than one-tenth (8 per cent) of the population in the foothill villages are illiterate. Primary level of education in the hill was one-fourth (25 per cent) in the hills while it was only just a little above one-tenth (12 per cent) in the foothill villages. A similar trend on adults who attained at least middle school was observed both in the hills (12 per cent) and foothill villages (14 per cent). In terms of high school level education there was a huge difference between the two types of villages. In the hill villages high school level education constitutes a little above one-tenth (13 per cent) while in the foothill villages it constitutes a significant number of above one-fourth (27 per cent). There was also a vast difference in the higher secondary and college level education. Only one-tenth of the population in hill village attained higher secondary level of education while about one-fifth (19 per cent) of the adult population in the foothill attained the same. With regards to higher education (college and above) it was observed that about one-seventh (15 per cent) of adults in hill villages attained the

said level of education while a one-fifth of the adults in the foothill villages attained the same.

Table 5.4 Demographic Composition of Sample Villages: Education of Adults

Sl.No	Education Status	N	Illiterate		Primary (1-5)		Middle School (6-8)		High School (9-10)		Hr. Sec. School (11-12)		College and above	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Villages	268	70	26	67	25	31	12	35	13	26	10	39	15
1	Khengjang	95	33	35	17	18	12	13	13	14	8	8	12	13
2	L. Bongjoi	56	18	32	20	36	5	9	5	9	3	5	5	9
3	Saibol Joupi	65	10	15	16	25	8	12	10	15	7	11	14	22
4	H. Hengcham	52	9	17	14	27	6	12	7	13	8	15	8	15
II	Foothill villages	482	37	8	58	12	68	14	130	27	91	19	98	20
5	New Keiphom	99	11	11	13	13	12	12	20	20	17	17	26	26
6	Utangpokpi	118	13	11	20	17	16	14	42	36	20	17	7	6
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	100	12	12	18	18	9	9	23	23	17	17	21	21
8	Singtom	165	1	1	7	4	31	19	45	27	37	22	44	27
	Total	750	107	14	125	17	99	13	165	22	117	16	137	18

Source: Computed

From the overall observation it was clearly found that the adult population in the hills are highly concentrated in the lower levels of education while it was the opposite in the foothill villages, i.e., the foothill villages have more adults in the higher levels of education.

The finding is no surprise as educational facilities in the hills and foothills tremendous variations. When the foothill villages could access over a decade high schools and a couple of higher secondary schools within two or three kilometres radius the people of the hill villages had to travel days to access high school and higher secondary education facilities. St. Joseph's High School, Sugnu is one of the oldest catholic educational institutions in Manipur. It has been catering to the educational needs of thousands of people in Chandel District and in particular, the population in and around Sugnu town. This school is easily access by the selected foothill villages from their homes while the same level of privilege is not available for the people in of the hill villages. To get access to this school and others in and

around Sugnu town, they usually leave their villages, travel long distance, and get schooling by staying in rented houses or in the boardings/hostels.

A beam of hope in the field of education that emerges for the studied hill villages for high school level education is the newly established St. Vincent's School at Joldam village and the ongoing construction of Residential School under Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE) at Saibol Joupi village.

5.1.2 Familial Profile of Sample Villages

Family is an important institution in any society and it is universal. The Oxford dictionary (7th edition) defines a family as a group consisting of one or two parents, their children, and their close relations. Looking at the structural formation of the family and the immediate environment it gives a child to expose itself to the first social group a family can be called the first society. It is in the family that a child develops an attitude that in the long run impacts society. As given by Ahuja (1999) family, as a social unit refers to a group of persons of both sexes, related by marriage, blood, or adoptions, performing roles based on age, sex, relationships, and socially distinguished as making up a single household or a sub-household.

In this study family structure refers to the way in which a family is organized according to rules, power, and hierarchies. The familial profile of sample villages is presented at the household level. The family characteristics studied are the type of family, size of family, and form of family (see tables 5.5, 5.6, 5.7).

5.1.2.1 Type of Family

There can be different classifications of families based on different factors such as marriage, nature of residence, ancestry, authority, size or structure, religion, etc. Based on size or structure and the depth of generations, Rao (2007) classified families into nuclear or single-unit families and joint or undivided families. A nuclear family consist of members of two generations, a couple and their children. A joint family or extended family consists of members who at least belong to three generations: husband and wife, their married and unmarried children; and their married as well as unmarried grandchildren (Rao, 2007). In this study in addition to the two types of family given by Rao a third type Viz. Single was added in order to

incorporate singles (Widow/widower or any others) who live separately in a different house forming a household in the census.

Table 5. 5 Familial Composition of Sample Villages: Type of Family

Sl. No.	Village	Type of Family						Total	
		Joint		Nuclear		Single			
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Village	22	25	65	75	0	0	87	100
1	Khengjang	11	38	18	62	0	0	29	100
2	L. Bongjoi	4	22	14	78	0	0	18	100
3	Saibol Joupì	4	18	18	82	0	0	22	100
4	H. Hengcham	3	17	15	83	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill village	39	28	92	67	6	4	137	100
5	New Keiphom	10	36	14	50	4	14	28	100
6	Utangpokpi	11	31	24	69	0	0	35	100
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	11	46	11	46	2	8	24	100
8	Singtom	7	14	43	86	0	0	50	100
	Total	61	27	157	70	6	3	224	100

Source: Computed

From the given table (Table 5.5) it was observed that both the two types of villages exhibited a similar trend. When considering the whole sample households' absolute majority, 157 out of 224 families, belong to a nuclear type of family which comprises 27 per cent of the whole sample households. The existence of a significant number of joint families was also observed. It comprises 61 families giving a percentage of 27 per cent. There was minimal existence of single-member households with only three per cent.

In most tribal communities, the traditional responsibility to take care of the parent (s) and unmarried sibling (s) rests either on the eldest son or the youngest son. In all the sample villages but one (Singtom), the responsibility lies with the eldest son. Once the younger male siblings are married the parents or the eldest son take the responsibility to settle the newly-wed couple in a separate house to begin their own family life. The female siblings, in a patriarchal family, leave the parental house and

join the husband's family. While having a random discussion with the respondents regarding family issues it was observed that joint families tend to have more issues than nuclear families. The reason mostly is a misunderstanding among in-laws. Though the issue is not a new phenomenon the increase in the number of such cases could be observed in recent times.

5.1.2.2 Size of Family

The second indicator of the family structure of the studied villages is the size of a family. It was classified into small (below 3.15 members), medium (3.16-5.46 members), large (5.47-7.78 members) and very large (7.79 and above) (see table 5.6)

Table 5. 6 Familial Composition of Sample Villages: Size of Family

Sl. No	Village	Size of Family								Total	Mean	S D	
		Small (<= 3.15)		Medium (3.16 - 5.46)		Large (5.47 - 7.78)		Very Large (7.79+)					
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%				
I	Hill Villages	14	16	31	36	30	34	12	14	87	100	5	2
1	Khengjang	4	14	9	31	11	38	5	17	29	100	6	2
2	L. Bongjoi	1	6	6	33	6	33	5	28	18	100	6	2
3	Saibol Joupi	4	18	8	36	8	36	2	9	22	100	5	2
4	H. Hengcham	5	28	8	44	5	28	0	0	18	100	4	1
II	Foothill villages	26	19	48	35	40	29	23	17	137	100	5	3
5	New Keiphom	6	21	9	32	8	29	5	18	28	100	5	3
6	Utangpokpi	4	11	12	34	12	34	7	20	35	100	6	3
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	7	29	3	13	5	21	9	38	24	100	6	4
8	Singtom	9	18	24	48	15	30	2	4	50	100	5	1
	Total	40	18	79	35	70	31	35	16	224	100	5	2

Source: Computed

Table 5.6 presents the size of the family of the studied households. The number of medium-size families constitutes the majority with 35 per cent. This was followed by the large families with 31 per cent. The families in small size families constitute about 18 per cent and are ranked third. The least in the rank was the very large family category with 16 per cent. The average size of the family was worked out at 5 for the total villages.

When comparing the hill and foothill villages though the overall pattern was similar, some differences could be observed in two areas. The percentage of small family households in the hill villages was worked out at 16 per cent and 19 per cent for the foothill villages. The percentage of medium was the same in both the types of villages with 36 and 35 percentages in the hills and foothill villages respectively. A significant difference was observed in the large family category where the households with large families in the hill villages constitute 34 per cent while it was 29 per cent for the Foothill villages. A considerable difference in the number of very large families was also observed. In the hill villages, very large families constitute 14 per cent while it was 18 per cent in the foothill villages.

5.1.2.3 Form of Family

In the present study forms of the family are studied under three conditions – stable, broken and reconstituted. The categorization and analysis are based on family cohesion. A stable family may be understood as one where there is a required degree of peace, love, respect, and good behaviour that exists and no separation among the members of the family has ever taken place. A broken family may be understood as one that lacks the essence of a stable family. A reconstituted family may be understood as those families which were broken once and now have regained their stability as a normal family.

Table 5.7 presents the forms of families of the sample villages. A vast majority of the sample families in the hills (82 per cent) and the foothill villages (84 per cent) were stable. However, hill villages showed less prevalence of broken families (6 percent) than foothill villages (12 per cent). Reconstituted families also showed a wide difference between the two types of villages which stood at 11 percent and 5 percent for hill villages and foothill villages respectively.

Taking the whole sample households into consideration, the stable families were found to be the highest among the forms of families. Broken families and reconstituted families were found to be having the same percentage of eight percent each.

Table 5.7 Familial Composition of Sample Villages: Form of Family

Sl. No	Village	Form of Family						Total	
		Stable		Broken		Reconstituted		Freq.	%
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
I	Hill Village	71	82	6	7	10	11	87	100
1	Khengjang	28	97	1	3	0	0	29	100
2	L. Bongjoi	14	78	2	11	2	11	18	100
3	Saibol Joupi	16	73	2	9	4	18	22	100
4	H. Hengcham	13	72	1	6	4	22	18	100
II	Foothill villages	118	86	12	9	7	5	137	100
5	New Keiphom	21	75	6	21	1	4	28	100
6	Utangpokpi	33	94	0	0	2	6	35	100
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	16	67	6	25	2	8	24	100
8	Singtom	48	96	0	0	2	4	50	100
	Total	189	84	18	8	17	8	224	100

Source: Computed

5.2 Social Structural Bases of Sample Villages

This section presents the social structural bases of the sample households in the studied villages. Social structure may be understood as a pattern of social relationships that exist among the members of a given society. The social structure was studied in terms of tribe and denomination.

5.2.1 Social Profile of Sample Villages: Tribe

The first social profile discussed is 'tribe' (see table 5.8). The study area selected for the present study is a rural area and it is basically a tribal belt. 'A tribe is a unit of socio-political organisation consisting of a number of families, clans, or other groups who share a common ancestry and culture and among whom leadership is typically neither formalised nor permanent (Touhang 2016)'. The tribal groups in the sample villages consist of AKT, Thadou, Vaiphei, and Z,ou (see table 4.8). Any Kuki Tribe was listed in Scheduled Tribes (Part C States) Order, 1951, Part VI - Entry 1. Later it was de-listed by Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes Orders (Amendment Act 63 of 1956). The same was once again relisted/ reinserted as

Scheduled Tribe under the Scheduled Castes & Scheduled Tribes Orders (Amendment) Act, 2002 (No 10 of 2003) Part X. Thadou, Vaiphei and Zou tribes were classified as separate tribes under the Constitution Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes Lists (Modification) Order, 1956, Part X-Manipur.

Table 5. 8 Social Composition of Sample Villages: Tribe

Sl. No.	Villages	Community/Tribe								Total	
		Thadou-Kuki		Zou		Vaiphei		AKT			
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Villages	38	44	0	0	9	10	40	46	87	100
	Khengjang	27	93	0	0	0	0	2	7	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	2	11	0	0	9	50	7	39	18	100
	Saibol Joupi	5	23	0	0	0	0	17	77	22	100
	H. Hengcham	4	22	0	0	0	0	14	78	18	100
II	Foothill villages	51	37	50	36	36	26	0	0	137	100
	New Keiphom	20	71	0	0	8	29	0	0	28	100
	Utangpokpi	19	54	0	0	16	46	0	0	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	12	50	0	0	12	50	0	0	24	100
	Singtom	0	0	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100
	Total	89	40	50	22	45	20	40	18	224	100

Source: Computed

From the given table it was observed that the Thadou tribe consists of 40 per cent which was two-fifths of the sample households. It was followed by the Zou tribe with 22 per cent which was slightly more than one-fifth of the total sample households. The third in line was the Vaiphei tribe with 20 per cent which is exactly one-fifth of the total sample households. The tribe with the least number of households was the AKT group with 18 per cent which was slightly below one-fifth of the total sample households.

5.2.1 Social Profile of Sample Villages: Denomination

The second component studied under the social structure is the denomination to which the respondents or sample households belong (see table 5.9).

Table 5.9 presents the denomination of the sample villages. It was observed that the absolute majority i.e., 83 per cent are Catholics. This was followed by the

Presbyterians which consist of 16 percent. A minimal per cent (1%) of the households was found to belong to Kuki Christian Church.

Table 5.9 Social Composition of Sample Villages: Denomination

Sl. No	Denomination	Village								Total	
		Roman Catholic		Presbyterian		KCC		Baptist			
I	Hill Villages	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	Khengjang	29	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	18	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	100
	Saibol Joupj	22	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	100
	H. Hengcham	15	83	0	0	3	17	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill villages										
	Ukon	24	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	100
	Thingkangphai										
	Singtom	50	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	100
	New Keiphom	27	96	0	0	0	0	1	4	28	100
	Utangpokpi	0	0	35	100	0	0	0	0	35	100
	Total	185	83	35	16	3	1	1	0	224	100

Source: Computed

5.3 Economic Composition of the Sample Households

In this section, the economic composition of members of the households in the sample villages was described in terms of dependency, primary occupation, secondary occupation, and land ownership (see table 5.10, 5.11, 5.12, 5.13).

5.3.1 Earners and Dependents

The first variable considered under Economic Composition of the Sample Households was the earners and dependency profiles of the sample households (see Table 5.10). Earners are those members of the family who are breadwinners for the family with their primary or secondary occupations. The dependents are those members of the households who are not the breadwinners of the family due to their age or other disabilities. They depend on the earners of the family for their basic needs.

Table 5.10 Economic Composition of Sample Villages: Earners and Dependents

Sl. No	Village	Earner or Dependent				Total		Dependency Ratio
		Dependent		Earner		Freq.	%	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%			
I	Hill Villages	279	59	195	41	474	100	1.4
1	Khengjang	97	58	69	42	166	100	1.4
2	L. Bongjoi	72	63	43	37	115	100	1.7
3	Saibol Joupri	67	59	46	41	113	100	1.5
4	H. Hengcham	43	54	37	46	80	100	1.2
II	Foothill villages	472	63	275	37	747	100	1.7
5	New Keiphom	87	60	58	40	145	100	1.5
6	Utangpokpi	143	67	71	33	214	100	2.0
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	87	58	63	42	150	100	1.4
8	Singtom	155	65	83	35	238	100	1.9
	Total	751	62	470	38	1221	100	1.6

Source: Computed

Table 5.10 presents the earners and dependency composition of the sample households. In Khengjang village the difference in dependency and earner ratio was not so high. It was 59: 41 per cent. In L. Bongjoi village the dependency–earner percentage difference was much higher than that of Khengjang. It was 63:37. In Saibol Joupri village dependency–earner 59:41, the difference was not so high. The difference in H. Hengcham village 54:46 per cent.

In New Keiphom the dependency–earner ratio was 60.0:40.0 per cent giving the dependency ratio of 0.67. In Utangpokpi the dependency–earner ratio was 67:33 per cent with dependency ratio of 0.50. In Ukon Thingkangphai the ratio was 58.0:42.0 per cent giving the dependency ratio of 72. In Singtom village the ratio was 65:35.

From the overall data analysis, it was observed that about two-thirds (62 per cent) of the whole population are dependent on only just above one-third (38 per cent)

earners. The dependency ration was the hill villages accounting to 1.4 was lower than that of the foothill villages which stood at the ratio of 1.6.

The higher rate of dependency for the foothill village could be link with the educational status of the villages in Table 5.4 in which it was observed that the foothill villages have higher population concentration in the higher educational levels. The high dependency rate in the foothill villages may be possibly due to the engagement of more youths in educational sector for their educational pursuits while youths in the hill villages tend to join the labour force or the earning team of the family much sooner than those of the youths in the foothill villages.

5.3.2 Primary Occupation of Earners

The second characteristic considered in the Economic Profile of Sample Villages was Primary Occupation of Earners. The occupation of earners considered were wage labourer, skilled labourer, cultivator, government worker, government officer, petty business, and large business. These are the most common occupations prevailing in the study area (See Table 5.11).

Some significant differences in the pattern of the distribution of the occupation between the hill and foothill villages could be observed. The hill villages have high concentration of cultivators with 44.1 per cent of the earners taking up the occupation while in the foothill villages, the above-mentioned occupation was taken up by only 13.1 per cent of the earners. The foothill villages are concentrated more on all other occupations. There was a wide difference in wage labourer with about one-fifth (22.6 per cent) of the hill villages engaged in the occupation while about one-third (34.5 per cent) of the foothill villages engaged themselves in the same. Less than one-tenth (7.2 per cent) of the hill villages engaged themselves in in skilled labourers while one-tenth (10.2 per cent) of the foothill villages engaged themselves in the said occupation.

Table 5.11 Economic Composition of Villages: Primary Occupation of Earners

Sl. No	Village	N	Primary Occupation						
			Wage Labourer	Skilled Labourer	Cultivator	Government Worker	Government Officer	Petty Business	Large Business
I	Hill Village	195	44 (22.6)	14 (7.2)	86 (44.1)	20 (10.3)	3 (1.5)	25 (12.8)	3 (1.5)
1	Khengjang	69	31 (44.9)	6 (8.7)	16 (23.2)	5 (7.2)	1 (1.4)	9 (13.0)	1 (1.4)
2	L. Bongjoi	43	8 (18.6)	2 (4.7)	23 (53.5)	3 (7.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (14.0)	1 (2.3)
3	Saibol Joupi	46	5 (10.9)	4 (8.7)	25 (54.3)	5 (10.9)	0 (0.0)	5 (10.9)	1 (2.2)
4	H. Hengcham	37	0 (0.0)	2 (5.4)	22 (59.5)	7 (18.9)	1 (2.7)	5 (13.5)	0 (0.0)
II	Foothills Village	275	95 (34.5)	28 (10.2)	36 (13.1)	68 (24.7)	8 (2.9)	39 (14.2)	1 (0.4)
5	New Keiphom	58	20 (34.5)	9 (15.5)	6 (10.3)	11 (19.0)	3 (5.2)	9 (15.5)	0 (0.0)
6	Utangpokpi	71	26 (36.6)	4 (5.6)	14 (19.7)	14 (19.7)	1 (1.4)	12 (16.9)	0 (0.0)
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	63	36 (57.1)	3 (4.8)	15 (23.8)	6 (9.5)	1 (1.6)	2 (3.2)	0 (0.0)
8	Singtom	83	13 (15.7)	12 (14.5)	1 (1.2)	37 (44.6)	3 (3.6)	16 (19.3)	1 (1.2)
	Total	470	139 (29.6)	42 (8.9)	122 (26.0)	88 (18.7)	11 (2.3)	64 (13.6)	4 (0.9)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Another wide range of difference is seen in employment in government sector with only about one-tenth (10.3 per cent) of the hill villages engaged in the occupation while in the foothill villages about one-fourth (24.7) of the earners engaged themselves in the said occupation. Petty business was taken up in both the types of villages. However, the difference was not so significant. Though there was little difference in engagement in government officer as occupation the concentration in the sector in both the types of villages was very less. Though the concentration of earners in both the types of villages was in large business was minimum, interestingly the hill villages have more earners (1.5 per cent) than the foothill villages engaged in the occupation (0.4 per cent).

The existence of earners engaged in skill labourers and petty business in both the types of villages was seen as a positive move towards self-reliance and sustainability in livelihood.

5.3.3 Secondary Occupation of Earners

The third variable considered in the Economic Profile of Sample Villages was Secondary Occupation of Earners. The secondary occupation of the earners was broadly classified into wage labourer, skilled labourer, cultivator, business. Those earners with no secondary occupations are categorised as 'none' (see Table 5.12).

Table 5.12 Economic Composition of Sample Villages: Secondary Occupation of Earners

Sl. No	Village	N	Secondary Occupation				
			None	Wage Labourer	Skilled Laborer	Cultivator	Business
I	Hill Village	112	286 (90.8)	21 (5.1)	2 (1.5)	3 (2.1)	1 (0.5)
1	Khengjang	69	65 (94.2)	4 (5.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
2	L. Bongjoi	43	36 (83.7)	6 (14.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.3)	0 (0.0)
3	Saibol Joupi	46	43 (93.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.3)	1 (2.2)	0 (0.0)
4	H. Hengcham	37	33 (89.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.7)	2 (5.4)	1 (2.7)
II	Foothills Village	129	292 (89.1)	12 (3.6)	5 (1.1)	11 (3.6)	8 (2.2)
5	New Keiphom	58	53 (91.4)	1 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	2 (3.4)
6	Utangpokpi	71	59 (83.1)	6 (8.5)	1 (1.4)	5 (7.0)	0 (0.0)
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	63	56 (88.9)	3 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	4 (6.3)	0 (0.0)
8	Singtom	83	77 (92.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	5 (6.0)
	Total	470	422 (89.8)	20 (4.3)	6 (1.3)	14 (3.0)	8 (1.7)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

From the given table (5.12) observing the whole sample villages it was found that earners of the households having secondary occupation are very less. Only one-tenth (10.2 per cent) of the whole earning population have secondary occupations while the rest of the earners (90 per cent) do not have one. Only 20 earners (4.3%)

have engaged themselves in wage labourer apart from their primary occupations, six earners (1.3%) are engaged in skilled labourer, 14 earners (3.0%) are engaged in cultivation and eight earners (1.7%) in business.

The engagement of earners of hill villages in wage labourers (5.1%) was higher than the earners of foothill villages (3.6%). The same pattern goes with skilled labourer which was 1.5 per cent in the hills and 1.1 per cent in the foothill villages. In the case of cultivation and business it was the opposite from the other two. The number of earners in the foothill villages (3.6%) took up cultivation as their secondary occupation which was higher than the percentage of the same occupation in hill villages which was 2.1 per cent. At least 2.2 per cent of the earners in the foothill villages took up business as their secondary occupation while only one per cent took up the same in the hill villages.

High income risk was not uncommon in developing countries. The lack of having a secondary occupation shows that the earners are likely to have a single source of income which can put them into the risk of poverty. Dercon (2002) stated that apart from climatic risks and economic fluctuations, a large number of individual factors have shocked households in developing countries vulnerable to serious hardship.

5.3.4 Land Ownership Pattern

The fourth and last variable considered under Economic Profile of Sample Villages was Land Ownership Pattern. The types of land were classified into Own Land with Patta, Own Land without Patta and Forest Land. Those who did not possess any of such land fell under the 'No Land' category (See Table 5.13).

From the given table (5.13) it was found that a vast majority of households both in the hill villages (70%) and (94%) does not have land of their own. A considerable number of them have land with patta, 10 per cent in the hill villages and 39.5 in the foothill villages. There are also some households having land but without patta, 3.6 per cent in the hill villages and 19.3 in the Foothill villages. The forest land holding was same for all the villages as only eight households, four households each from hills and foothills, are in possession of the said type of land.

Table 5.13 Economic Composition of Sample Villages: Land Ownership Pattern

Sl.No	Village	No Land	Own Land with Patta	Own Land without Patta	Forest Land	Total
I	Hill Villages	77 (70.0)	12 (10.0)	4 (3.6)	4 (2.0)	110 (100)
1	Khengjang	27 (93.0)	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.0)	29 (100)
2	L. Bongjoi	15 (83.0)	2 (11.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (6.0)	18 (100)
3	Saibol Joui	17 (77.0)	4 (18.0)	1 (5.0)	1 (5.0)	28 (100)
4	H. Hengcham	18 (100.0)	5 (28.0)	3 (17.0)	1 (5.0)	35 (100)
II	Foothill villages	94 (82.5)	45 (39.5)	22 (19.3)	4 (2.0)	114 (100)
5	New Keiphom	26 (93.0)	3 (11.0)	5 (18.0)	1 (5.0)	24 (100)
6	Utangpokpi	30 (86.0)	10 (29.0)	14 (40.0)	1 (6.0)	50 (100)
7	Ukon Thingkangphai	11 (46.0)	10 (42.0)	3 (13.0)	1 (0.0)	22 (100)
8	Singtom	27 (54.0)	22 (44.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)	18 (100)
	Total	171 (76.0)	57 (30)	26 (12.0)	8 (4.0)	224 (100)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

The number of households having land with patta and land without patta was much higher among the foothill villages than that of the hill villages. This of course is much expected as the foothill villages are located near to the valley where wetland paddy fields with pattas are more easily accessible to them.

Looking at the overall data, the land holding was slightly better in the foothill villages as a considerable number of households have land with patta and land without patta.

At this juncture it is important to take note of the land holding system among the sample villages. In the selected villages, generally, the chief is the sole and legal owner of the land, both the settlement area (village) and the forest area. The land all the resources technically belongs to him. However, most of the resources are shared among the villagers and the villagers enjoy a certain degree of freedom to enjoy those resources by the fact that they are domiciles of the village. In this sense, though they legally do not own the land, they passively enjoy the ownership and actively enjoy the resources.

Some households, though living in a village under chieftainship, possess some plot of land of their own.

The chapter discussed the demographic, social and economic composition of the sample households of the studied population. The importance of the chapter lies in the fact that, it in fact presented the structural context of the studied population both in the hill and foothill villages which was very much necessary for understanding the background information. It stands as a foundation for the chapters that are to follow.

CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL CAPITAL AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

In the previous chapter community composition of the sample village was discussed in terms of demographic, social and economic structural bases of individuals and households. In the present chapter the analyses of the structures of social networks are presented. The analysis is taken up both at the community (village) level and topographical locations i.e., the hill and the foothill. Using the position generator measurement of social networks, the access and utilisation of social capital are analysed and from there the impact on the community's development is analysed and discussed.

The first section presents the discussion of the findings of analysis of three elements of social capital viz., access, proximity, and utilisation which are measured inductively and deductively with the help of position generators. The second section discusses the results of the analysis of civic measures of social capital. In the third section the relationship between the inductive, deductive, and civic measures are discussed.

6.1 Access to and Utilization of Social Capital

This section deals with access to social capital and utilisation of the existing social capital assessed with the help of position generator instruments which is quite popular in the west but not so widely used in India. This section is presented in terms of four subsections. The first subsection presents a brief introduction to the position generator as a tool for measurement of social capital and how it was used in the present study. In the second subsection, the results of the analyses of initial responses to the position generator measurement of social capital. In the third subsection, the results of the analysis of the inductive measures of social capital are discussed while the fourth subsection presents the results of the deductive analyses of social capital.

6.1.1 Position Generator: An Instrument for Measurement of Social Capital

In this study, a position generator is used to assess households' access to, proximity to and use of the resources embedded in social networks. Position

generator is a measurement tool that focuses on the presence of social resources rather than relationships in networks (Lin & Dumin, 1986; Lin, Fu, & Hsung, 2001). It is a tool deliberately designed to cover social capital in the “general” life of the modern individual, without considering specific areas of goal attainment, life domains, or sub populations (Gaag, 2008). The purpose of the position generator measurement as given by *van der Gaag, Snijders and Flap (2008)* is “to look for the presence of altars, the resources of the altar, and the availability of these resources to a focal individual”. The first general question that is asked to the respondents is if he/she knows anyone from the occupational positions given in the list. This, in technical language, is called access to social positions. If the answer is negative then there is no further question asked to the respondent. If the answer is positive the respondent is further asked about the relationship with the person in the position. These relations are acquaintances, friends, kinship, and family members. This is what is called proximity to social relations. The respondent is further asked if he/she has benefited from the person in the position. This is technically called utilization of social positions.

For the present study, a position generator was constructed with 24 positions and their occupational prestige was assessed with the help of 30 key informants so as to assess the households access to, proximity and utilisation of social capital (see Household Interview Schedule in the appendix).

6.1.2 Initial Responses to Position Generator

The initial responses of the respondents to the position generator questions on access, proximity and use of social positions were analysed with the help of simple averages. The patterns of the inter village differences are presented in the following three clauses viz., patterns of access to social position, patterns of proximity of social position and patterns of the use of social positions.

6.1.2.1 Patterns of Access to Social Positions

Access to a social position is based on the question asked to the respondents whether she/he has known anyone in the position from the given list of occupations. The responses from all the respondents (224) were recorded and analysed (Table 6.1) In the table the villages are coded in the following ways: Khengjang-V01, L. Bongjoi

- V02, = Saibol Joupi - V03, H. Hengcham - V04, New Keiphom - V05, Utangpokpi
 - V06, Ukong Thingkangphai - V07 and Singtom- V08

Table 6. 1 Patterns of Access to Social Positions: Initial Responses

Position	Hill Villages								Foothill Villages								Total	
	V01		V02		V03		V04		V05		V06		V07		V08			
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Nurse	.97	.19	.94	.24	.73	.46	.78	.43	.89	.31	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	.92	.27	.92	.28
Shop Owners	.97	.19	.50	.51	.91	.29	.94	.24	1.00	.00	.80	.41	.92	.28	.96	.20	.89	.31
Carpenter	.93	.26	.56	.51	.86	.35	.94	.24	.86	.36	.91	.28	.96	.20	.80	.40	.86	.35
High Teacher	.34	.48	.28	.46	.86	.35	.78	.43	.93	.26	1.00	.00	.83	.38	.84	.37	.76	.43
Police Constable	.14	.35	.22	.43	.91	.29	1.00	.00	.93	.26	1.00	.00	.96	.20	.78	.42	.75	.43
Truck Driver	.45	.51	.72	.46	.77	.43	1.00	.00	.64	.49	.86	.36	.88	.34	.26	.44	.64	.48
Primary Teacher	.28	.45	.33	.49	.68	.48	.89	.32	.75	.44	.69	.47	.46	.51	.74	.44	.62	.49
Vehicle Owner	.31	.47	.17	.38	.82	.39	.94	.24	.46	.51	.97	.17	.33	.48	.14	.35	.49	.50
MLA/MDC	.31	.47	.17	.38	.73	.46	.61	.50	.89	.31	.63	.49	.46	.51	.20	.40	.48	.50
MO	.34	.48	.28	.46	.45	.51	.61	.50	.39	.50	.60	.50	.13	.34	.68	.47	.47	.50
Pol. Officer	.21	.41	.28	.46	.95	.21	1.00	.00	.39	.50	.34	.48	.13	.34	.18	.39	.38	.49
SDO/BDO	.41	.50	.22	.43	.64	.49	.56	.51	.71	.46	.31	.47	.29	.46	.12	.33	.38	.49
NGO Worker	.34	.48	.22	.43	.41	.50	.33	.49	.39	.50	.11	.32	.13	.34	.72	.45	.37	.48
CSO Leaders	.59	.50	.39	.50	.41	.50	.44	.51	.61	.50	.40	.50	.25	.44	.10	.30	.37	.48
VLW	.00	.00	.11	.32	.36	.49	.39	.50	.04	.19	.20	.41	.46	.51	.88	.33	.36	.48
Lineman	.41	.50	.17	.38	.14	.35	.11	.32	.14	.36	.74	.44	.08	.28	.56	.50	.36	.48
Lecturer	.83	.38	.11	.32	.23	.43	.39	.50	.43	.50	.31	.47	.21	.41	.20	.40	.34	.47
Bk. Manager	.21	.41	.22	.43	.73	.46	.61	.50	.46	.51	.34	.48	.04	.20	.22	.42	.33	.47
S O	.03	.19	.06	.24	.59	.50	.50	.51	.04	.19	.83	.38	.13	.34	.12	.33	.28	.45
Tehsildar	.03	.19	.06	.24	.23	.43	.06	.24	.11	.31	.11	.32	.08	.28	.68	.47	.23	.42
DFO	.00	.00	.06	.24	.09	.29	.17	.38	.04	.19	.60	.50	.08	.28	.34	.48	.21	.41
Lawyer	.00	.00	.06	.24	.50	.51	.28	.46	.29	.46	.23	.43	.08	.28	.04	.20	.17	.37
SWO	.00	.00	.11	.32	.18	.39	.11	.32	.04	.19	.14	.36	.04	.20	.20	.40	.11	.32
DAO	.03	.19	.00	.00	.09	.29	.11	.32	.04	.19	.17	.38	.08	.28	.14	.35	.09	.29

Source: Computed

Table 6.1 presents the mean scores of the initial responses to the question on the access to social positions in Position generator measurement. The first question

raised to the respondents was if they know or have access to anyone from his/her social networks from the given list of occupations. 100 per cent of the respondents say they know at least one alter (person) from the given occupations. From the analysis of all the villages, it was found that the most popular items that were known to the respondents are nurses (including ASHA Workers) (.92), shop owners (.89), carpenters (.86), high school teachers (.76), and police constables (.75). They occupy the first highest five occupational positions accessed by the respondents. The mean ranges from .75-.92. They fall under the **'very high'** category of positions accessed. The next five on the list are the truck driver (.64), primary teacher (.62), vehicle owner (.49), MLA/MDC (.48), and Medical Officer (.47). They can be put under the category of **'high'**. The next category i.e., **'medium'** category is police officer (.38), SDO/BDO (.38), NGO workers (.37), CSO leaders (.37), VLW (.36), lineman (.36), lecturer (.34) and bank manager (.33). **'Low'** access position category there are three positions Viz. Section Officer (.28), Tehsildar (.23) and DFO (.21). The lawyer, SWO, and DAO are the **'very low'** access social positions on the list.

On closer observation, a few more observations can also be drawn from the analysis. Firstly, it is seen that occupations that are located nearby the villages and familiar to the respondents are likely to get a higher access rate while the occupations which are distantly located or not familiar to the respondents are found to get a lower rate of access. Secondly, some of the high prestige occupations such as DAO, DFO, SWO, Lawyer, etc. are seen to be the least accessed positions by the respondents of the sample villages. This is similar to the finding of van der Gaag et al (2008) in their similar study of the Dutch populations (1004 respondents) in the Netherlands where they found that there is no relation between the prestige of occupation and the overall popularity of the occupations.

6.1.2.2 Patterns of Proximity to Social Positions

According to Jill Rowley (2015), a self-described social selling evangelist, “social proximity is a relationship-based approach of assigning opportunities and accounts based on the social connections and engagement of your sales team.” It is more on who you know, rather than who is nearby. Yang-chih Fu (2008) stated that “the position generator effectively reflects one’s range of connections, but it remains

unclear who represents the acquaintances listed in the instrument.” Therefore, in order to address the issue a wide range of occupational positions (24 positions) were considered in the study. The relation of the ego to the PG alter was examined through

Table 6.2 Patterns of Proximity to Social Positions: Initial Responses

Position	Hill Villages								Foothill Villages								Total	
	V01		V02		V03		V04		V05		V06		V07		V08			
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
MO	2.8	.8	2.9	.8	2.2	1.4	2.4	1.3	2.6	1.1	3.0	.3	1.9	1.0	2.0	1.2	2.4	1.1
Nurse	2.5	.9	1.3	1.3	2.5	1.1	2.2	1.0	2.0	1.3	2.6	.9	1.9	1.1	1.9	1.3	2.1	1.2
Lecturer	.3	.8	.4	1.0	2.4	1.0	2.6	.7	2.7	1.0	2.8	.8	2.0	1.1	1.6	1.1	1.8	1.3
High Teacher	.8	1.2	.4	.9	2.0	1.0	1.5	1.2	2.3	1.0	2.3	1.0	1.9	1.2	2.0	1.3	1.7	1.2
Prim. Teacher	1.6	.8	.6	.6	2.5	1.1	2.1	1.1	1.2	.5	1.0	.7	.9	.3	1.9	1.0	1.5	1.0
Veh. Owner	.6	1.1	.7	1.2	1.6	1.3	2.2	1.0	2.0	1.3	1.7	1.4	.8	1.1	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.3
Truck Driver	.4	.6	.2	.4	2.2	1.2	2.4	.8	1.0	1.3	2.0	1.0	.7	1.2	.3	.8	1.1	1.3
Pol. Constable	.5	.8	.2	.5	2.2	1.2	2.6	.8	.9	1.2	1.6	.7	.5	.8	.3	.9	1.0	1.2
Police Officer	.4	.9	.8	1.3	2.5	1.0	2.7	.7	.9	1.3	.9	1.4	.1	.3	.4	.9	.9	1.3
MLA/MDC	2.4	1.2	.2	.5	.5	1.1	.9	1.4	.9	1.3	.7	1.2	.3	.7	.4	.9	.8	1.3
SDO/BDO	1.0	1.3	.2	.4	.2	.7	.2	.5	.1	.4	1.7	1.3	.1	.3	1.2	1.3	.7	1.2
VLW	.7	1.1	.3	.7	1.0	.8	.7	.6	1.1	.7	1.3	1.3	.5	.5	.2	.5	.7	.9
Tehsildar	1.2	1.2	.7	.9	.8	1.1	.7	1.0	.9	.9	.9	1.2	.3	.6	.1	.5	.7	1.0
Bank Manager	.4	.7	.3	.5	.7	1.0	.7	.6	.5	.8	.7	.7	.1	.3	1.1	1.0	.6	.8
CSO Leaders	.6	1.0	.3	.8	.5	.7	.4	.7	.5	.7	.3	.8	.2	.6	1.3	1.1	.6	.9
NGO Workers	.0	.0	.2	.5	.7	1.1	.8	1.2	.1	.4	.4	.8	.5	.7	1.5	1.0	.6	1.0
Section Officer	.4	.9	.3	.8	1.2	1.1	.6	.5	.8	1.0	.7	1.2	.1	.4	.3	.7	.5	.9
Lineman	.6	.8	.5	1.0	.6	.5	.7	.8	1.0	.9	.7	1.1	.4	.7	.1	.4	.5	.8
Carpenter	.0	.2	.1	.2	.4	.8	.1	.2	.1	.3	.1	.3	.1	.3	1.5	1.2	.4	.9
SWO	.0	.2	.1	.2	1.4	1.4	.8	1.1	.1	.4	1.0	.6	.1	.3	.1	.3	.4	.8
Lawyer	.0	.0	.1	.2	.1	.3	.2	.4	.0	.2	.6	.5	.1	.3	.6	1.0	.3	.6
Shop Owners	.0	.0	.1	.2	.6	.7	.3	.5	.4	.6	.6	1.1	.1	.3	.0	.2	.2	.6
DAO	.0	.0	.1	.3	.3	.7	.1	.3	.0	.2	.3	.8	.0	.2	.4	.9	.2	.6
DFO	.1	.6	.0	.0	.1	.3	.1	.3	.1	.6	.4	.9	.1	.3	.2	.5	.2	.5

Source: Computed

four relationships Viz. family, kinship, friends, and acquaintances. Family is a member of the household who lives under the same roof with the respondent. Kins are those members related to the respondents through blood, marriage or adoption but do not live within the same roof. Friendship, according to Putnam (2000)

represents an informal social connection, one that is of central importance given its function in connecting individuals into much larger social networks. Acquaintance is a person casually known to the respondent but not as a close friend or relative.

In table 7.2 the villages are coded in the following ways: Khengjang-V01, L. Bongjoi - V02, = Saibol Joupi - V03, H. Hengcham - V04, New Keiphom - V05, Utangpokpi - V06, Ukong Thingkangphai - V07 and Singtom- V08

Table 6.2 presents the analysis of the proximity of social positions of the sample population. From the analysis data from all the sample villages the proximity levels can be divided into four levels based on their mean. Very high (2.1-2.4), high (1.7-1.8), medium (1.0-1.5), low (0.6-0.9) and very low (0.2-0.5). In the very-high category there are two positions viz. Medical Officer and Nurse. In the high category there are two positions viz. lecturer and high school teacher. In the medium category there are four positions viz. Primary Teacher, Vehicle Owner, Truck Driver and Police Constable. In the low category there are eight positions viz. Police Officer, MLA/MDC, SDO/BDO, Village Level Worker, Tehsildar, Bank Manager, CSO Leaders and NGO Workers. In the very low category, there are eight positions viz. Section Officer, Lineman, Carpenter, Social Welfare Officer, Lawyer, Shop Owners, District Agriculture Officer, and District Forest Officer

6.1.2.3 Patterns of Utilization of Social Resources in Networks

The utilization of social position is the third measurement in the social position generator where a respondent is asked if he/she benefited from the occupational positions of the person mentioned in sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.2. All the positive (yes) and negative (no) responses were recorded. The positive responses were tallied and tabled as given in the following (see Table 6.3). The rank of utilization is arranged in descending order.

Table 6.3 presents the Utilization of Social Positions from sample villages. The level of utilization is categorized into very high, high, medium, low, and very low. In the high category, there are four social positions viz. Shop Owners (.9), Carpenter, Nurse (.8), and High School teachers (.7). Followed by them is the high category which includes Police Constable (.6), truck driver (.5), and Primary Teacher (.5). In the medium level of utilization, there are five social positions. They are

Vehicle Owner (.4), MO (.3), Police Officer (.3), Village Level Worker (.3), and Bank Manager (.3). In the low category there are NGO Workers (.2), Section Officer (.2), CSO Leaders (.2), SDO/BDO (.2), Lineman (.2), MLA/MDC (.2), and Lecturer (.2), DFO (.1), Tehsildar (.1), SWO (.1), and Lawyer (.1). In the last category, there is only one least or very low utilized social position that is DAO with (.0) mean.

Table 6.3 Patterns of Utilization of Social Resources

Position	Hill Villages								Foothill Villages								Total	
	V01		V02		V03		V04		V05		V06		V07		V08			
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Shop Owners	.9	.3	.5	.5	.9	.4	.7	.5	1.0	.2	.8	.4	.9	.3	.9	.2	.9	.4
Carpenter	.9	.3	.5	.5	.9	.4	.7	.5	.7	.5	.8	.4	.9	.3	.7	.5	.8	.4
Nurse	.6	.5	.8	.4	.5	.5	.4	.5	.8	.4	1.0	.2	.9	.3	.8	.4	.8	.4
High Teacher	.2	.4	.2	.4	.7	.5	.6	.5	.8	.4	.9	.3	.8	.4	.8	.4	.7	.5
Pol.Constable	.0	.0	.1	.2	.8	.4	.7	.5	.6	.5	.9	.3	.9	.3	.7	.5	.6	.5
Truck Driver	.2	.4	.7	.5	.6	.5	.8	.4	.4	.5	.7	.4	.8	.4	.2	.4	.5	.5
Prim.Teacher	.1	.4	.2	.4	.7	.5	.7	.5	.6	.5	.4	.5	.4	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5
Vehicle Owner	.2	.4	.2	.4	.8	.4	.9	.2	.3	.5	.8	.4	.3	.5	.1	.4	.4	.5
MO	.3	.5	.3	.5	.4	.5	.2	.4	.3	.5	.6	.5	.1	.3	.4	.5	.3	.5
Police Officer	.1	.3	.2	.4	.7	.5	.7	.5	.2	.4	.2	.4	.1	.3	.1	.4	.3	.4
VLW	.0	.0	.0	.0	.3	.5	.1	.3	.0	.2	.1	.3	.4	.5	.7	.5	.3	.4
Bank Manager	.1	.4	.2	.4	.6	.5	.4	.5	.3	.5	.3	.4	.0	.2	.2	.4	.3	.4
NGO Workers	.2	.4	.1	.3	.3	.5	.2	.4	.2	.4	.1	.3	.1	.3	.5	.5	.2	.4
Section Officer	.0	.0	.1	.2	.5	.5	.3	.5	.0	.0	.7	.5	.1	.3	.1	.3	.2	.4
CSO Leaders	.2	.4	.2	.4	.3	.5	.3	.5	.2	.4	.3	.5	.2	.4	.1	.2	.2	.4
SDO/BDO	.2	.4	.2	.4	.3	.5	.3	.5	.1	.4	.2	.4	.3	.4	.1	.3	.2	.4
Lineman	.1	.3	.0	.0	.1	.3	.1	.3	.1	.3	.6	.5	.1	.3	.2	.4	.2	.4
MLA/MDC	.0	.2	.1	.2	.4	.5	.4	.5	.2	.4	.1	.3	.3	.5	.1	.3	.2	.4
Lecturer	.4	.5	.0	.0	.1	.4	.2	.4	.1	.4	.2	.4	.2	.4	.1	.3	.2	.4
DFO	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.2	.2	.4	.0	.0	.5	.5	.0	.0	.2	.4	.1	.3
Tehsildar	.0	.2	.0	.0	.2	.4	.1	.2	.1	.3	.1	.2	.0	.2	.3	.5	.1	.3
SWO	.0	.0	.1	.3	.2	.4	.1	.3	.0	.2	.1	.3	.0	.2	.1	.3	.1	.3
Lawyer	.0	.0	.0	.0	.3	.5	.2	.4	.1	.3	.1	.3	.0	.0	.0	.1	.1	.3
DAO	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.2	.1	.3	.0	.2	.1	.2	.0	.0	.1	.2	.0	.2

Source: Computed

Similar to the access of social position analysis it is observed that occupations that are locally located and familiar to the respondents are likely to get a higher utilization rate while the occupations which are not locally located or not familiar to the respondents are found to get a lower rate of access. Another interesting fact about

the utilization is that many of the low prestige social positions such as shop owners, carpenters, vehicle owners, nurses, etc. were highly utilized by the respondents.

6.1.3 Inductive Measures of Social Capital

Social capital is a complex and multidimensional construct which has latent structure. In its individual form it refers to social relationships with alters who have different personal characteristics, social resource endowments, and also the patterns of relationships between network members (Gaag, 2008). The inductive measures of social capital are those derived from the analysis of the data sets derived from the position. The raw data on the three elements of social capital viz., access, proximity and utilisation are assessed with the help of IRT tool.

The present subsection presents the results of the analysis of inductive measures of social capital in the following three clauses. The first clause presents a brief overview of the process of identification of the latent traits in the position generator data sets.

6.1.3.1 Identification of Latent Traits in Position Generator Data

IRT models are the most elaborate and complete method to reveal scales in ordinal data, and are based on three assumptions (Najarzadeh, Soleimani and Reed, 2014). First assumption is that the responses to question-naire items are determined stochastically by the latent traits that are being modeled, and that can only be observed with error through their responses. Second assumption is that questionnaire items have only a small number of categorical responses (usually 2–5) which are ordinal and discrete rather than continuous. The results of IRT will be more appropriate and yield better representative results than those of factor analyses if some of the items are dichotomous or very skewed. For such items, factor analysis is inappropriate (Bartholomew et al., 2002). Third and last, in most IRT models it is assumed that the included items are locally independent: the responses to the items are independent given the latent trait value, which means that they are not influenced by other systematic variations between respondents (Najarzadeh, Soleimani and Reed, 2014).

Table 6.4 Summary of Results of Latent Traits Analysis: Mokken Scaling

SL. No.	Elements	Dimension 1	Dimension 2
1	Access	MO (24.9) High School Teacher (16.4) Primary School teacher (7.2) Vehicle Owner (4.6) Police Constable (7.2) Police Officer (16.3) MLA/MDC (17.4) SO (12.8) SDO/BDO (20.2) Bank Manager (15.6) Skilled labourer (11.5) DSWO (2.4) Lawyer (17.5) DAO (21.8) DFO (19.7)	VLW (6.9) Tehsildar (8.0) NGO Worker (12.7) Lineman (5.6) Shop Owner (3.9)
2	Proximity	Vehicle Owner (4.6) Truck Driver (5.2) Police Constable (7.2) Police Officer (16.3) MLA/MDC (17.4) SDO/BDO (20.2) Bank Manager (15.6) SO (12.8) Lawyer (17.5) DAO (21.8)	MO (24.9) Primary School teacher (7.2) VLW (6.9) Tehsildar (8.0) NGO Worker (12.7) DFO (19.7)
3	Utilisation	MO (24.9) Vehicle Owner (4.6) Truck Driver (5.2) Police Constable (7.2) Police Officer (16.3) SDO/BDO (20.2) Bank Manager (15.6) 13.8 DSWO (2.4) Lawyer (17.5) DAO (21.8) DFO (19.7)	Nurse (10.6) High School Teacher (16.4) Primary School Teacher (7.2) VLW (6.9) Tehsildar (8.0) NGO Worker (12.7) SO (12.8)

Source: Computed

The IRT model was used to derive the inductive measures of social capital from the three sets of data collected through the position generator. The procedure followed is similar to the ones adopted in the earlier studies where position generators (Lin & Dumin, 1986) and resource generators (Van der Gaag, M.P.J. & Snijders, T.A.B, 2005) were used. Cumulative Moken scaling which is non-parametric as given by Ganzeboom and Treiman, 2013) was used. The 'Mokken'-scale analysis was done with the help of a statistical software developed by Ark (2007) in the R platform for all the three sets of social capital measurement items in the questionnaire to identify latent traits in social capital because cumulative models are closest in meaning to the idea of having 'more' or 'less' access to subcollections of social capital. There is a trade-off between reliability and homogeneity during the scaling process; we decided to concentrate on scales with sufficient reliability, leading to scales with rather poor homogeneity. These investigations lead to the discovery of subscales that have a cumulative nature. This implies respondents who

access very unpopular items on a scale would also access more popular items on the same scale at the population level.

Two scales were identified from the study: High prestige social capital and low prestige social capital. A "high prestige social capital" indicates access to positions such as doctor, agriculture officer, college lecturer, SDO/BDO, DFO, lawyer, elected MLA/MDC, high school teacher, and police officer. Because the scale is cumulative, respondents who access the doctor—the least accessed position—also have access to the other positions. Like this, respondents who access the second-least popular item (agricultural officer) will also access the more popular things (lawyer, doctor, manager, etc.). A cumulative scale for access to an NGO worker, skilled labourer, nurse, etc. is known as low prestige social capital.

From the total list of 24 the social positions 15 positions were included in the **first dimension**. They are Medical Officer, High School Teacher, Primary Teacher, Vehicle Owner, Police Constable, Police Officer, MLA/MDC, SDO/BDO, Bank Manager, Section Officer (SO), Carpenter/Skill Labourer, District Social Welfare Officer (DSWO), Lawyer, District Agriculture Officer (DAO) and District Forest Officer (DFO). The **second dimension** of social capital included five social positions. They are Village Level Worker, Tehsildar, NGO Worker, Lineman and Shop Owners. Four positions Viz. Nurse, University/college Lecturer, Truck Driver and CSO Leaders, which did not have significant differences between the two types of villages were removed.

With regards to **proximity to social positions** out of 24 positions the **first dimension** consisted of 10 social positions Viz. Vehicle Owner, Police Constable, Police Officer, MLA/MDC, SDO/BDO, Bank Manager, Section Officer (SO), District Agriculture and Truck Driver. **The second dimension** consisted of six social positions viz. MO, Primary Teacher, Tehsildar, NGO Worker and DFO. Four positions Viz. High School Teacher, CSO Leaders, Carpenter and Shop Owners, which did not yield significant differences were removed.

With regards to **utilisation of social capital**, the **first dimension** consisted of 13 positions Viz. MO, Vehicle Owner, Truck Driver, Police Constable, Police Officer, SDO/BDO, Bank Manager, CSO Leaders, SO, DSWO, Lawyer, DAO and

DFO. The **second dimension** includes seven positions viz. Nurses/ASHA, High School Teacher, Primary School Teacher, VLW, Tehsildar, NGO workers and Lineman.

6.1.3.2 Patterns of Intervillage Differences in the Elements of Social Capital

The elements of social capital considered here are access to social capital, proximity to social positions and utilisation of social capital. Each of these elements are further sub-categorised into high and low prestige scales. In the following table the patterns of intervillage differences in social capital elements are presented (see table 6.5).

Table 6.5 Patterns of Intervillage Differences in the Elements of Social Capital

Sl.no	Type of Village	Access to Social Capital				Proximity to Social Positions				Utilisation of Social Cap			
		High Prestige		Low Prestige		High Prestige		Low Prestige		High Prestige		Low Prestige	
		\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
I	Hill Villages												
	Khengjang	.24	.17	.35	.17	.33	.43	.29	.28	.11	.13	.18	.14
	L. Bongjoi	.20	.26	.21	.29	.28	.51	.27	.45	.17	.22	.19	.13
	Saibol	.50	.18	.33	.18	.88	.49	.60	.38	.20	.17	.37	.16
	Hengcham	.54	.19	.38	.17	1.05	.48	.59	.37	.37	.17	.40	.17
II	Foothill Villages												
	New Keiphom	.54	.25	.38	.26	1.09	.70	.52	.54	.38	.27	.43	.18
	Utangpokpi	.32	.17	.51	.32	.34	.38	.65	.53	.20	.14	.55	.28
	U.Thingangkaphai	.35	.09	.88	.22	.29	.25	1.55	.52	.14	.10	.56	.27
	Singtom	.59	.19	.43	.26	1.26	.48	.75	.55	.40	.25	.36	.25
	Total	.42	.24	.44	.30	.74	.63	.67	.59	.26	.22	.39	.25

Source: Computed

From the table it is observed that when compared between the hill and foothill villages in terms of access to both high prestige social capital and low prestige social capital the foothill village had much higher level of access. With regards to proximity of social positions also the foothill villages had higher levels of proximity both in terms of high prestige proximity to social positions and low

prestige proximity to social positions. A similar pattern was also observed with regards to utilisation of social capital wherein the utilisation mean of both the high prestige social capital and low prestige social capital was higher in the foothill villages than the hill villages. The analyses clearly showed that in all the elements of social capital the foothill villages had higher means of access, proximity and utilisation.

6.1.3.3 Intervillage Differences in Inductive Measures of Social Capital

The results of the analysis of data for the differences in Inductive Measures of Social Capital between the hills and foothills villages using ‘t’ test is presented in the table 6.6. In the table the type of social capital is categorised into high prestige social capital and low prestige social capital and the access to those types of capitals are analysed.

Table 6.6 Differences in Inductive Measures of Social Capital

Sl. No	Inductive Measure	Type of Village				‘t’
		Hill Village		Foothill Village		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	Access to High Prestige Social Capital	.40	.28	.44	.20	1.3
2	Access to Low Prestige Social Capital	.34	.25	.51	.31	4.2**
3	Proximity to High Prestige Social Positions	.80	.69	.70	.58	1.3
4	Proximity to low social positions	.47	.49	.79	.61	4.1**
5	Utilisation of High Prestige Social Capital	.26	.25	.26	.20	0.3
6	Utilisation of Low Prestige Social Capital	.26	.22	.47	.23	6.4**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.0

The results of the inductive analysis of position generator data show that in access to proximity and utilisation of high prestige social capital there are no significant differences between the households between the hill and foothill villages. However, in the access to, proximity to and utilisation of low prestige social capital, significant differences could be observed between these two types of villages. The households of the foot hill villages have greater access to, proximity to and utilisation of social resources embedded in the social networks as compared to those in the hill villages (see table 6.6). The t ratios for the difference between the households of the hill and foothill village with reference to access (1.3), proximity

(1.3), and utilisation (0.3) of high prestige social capital are not level significant at 5 percent level. On the contrary, the t ratios for the difference between the households of these two types of villages in access (4.2), proximity to social positions (4.1), and utilisation of low prestige social positions (6.4) were all significant at 1 percent level. In access to low prestige social capital the households of the foothill villages (.51) have significantly greater mean scores than those of the hill villages (.34) Similarly, the mean score of the households in proximity to low prestige social capital. is greater for the households of foothill villages (.79) as compared those of the hill villages (.47). Likewise, when compared with the hill villages (0.26) the households of foothill villages (.47) have greater utilisation of low prestige social capital.

6.1.3.4 Relationship Among Inductive Measures of Social Capital

The relationship between the inductive measures of social capital such as access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions, proximity to low prestige social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were assessed with the help of Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation (see table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Relationship Among Inductive Measures of Social Capital: Pearson's

Sl. No	Inductive Measure	IIM01	IM02	IM03	IM04	IM05	IM06
1	Access to high prestige Social Capital	1	.330**	.885**	.465**	.829**	.384**
2	Access to low prestige Social Capital	.330**	1	.114	.794**	.266**	.666**
3	Proximity to high prestige Social Positions	.885**	.114	1	.219**	.787**	.169*
4	Proximity to low prestige Social Positions	.465**	.794**	.219**	1	.331**	.650**
5	Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital	.829**	.266**	.787**	.331**	1	.374**
6	Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	.384**	.666**	.169*	.650**	.374**	1

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The results show that there are significant positive relationships among the inductive measures as expected. A positive relationship between the dimensions of high and low prestige within each of the elements of social capital access, proximity and use could be observed. Access to high prestige social capital had significant positive relations with Access to low prestige social capital (.330). Similarly, the relationship between proximity to high prestige social positions and proximity to low

prestige Social Positions, Utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were all positive and significant at 1 percent level.

Likewise access to low prestige social capital had the same significance with access to high prestige social capital, proximity to low prestige social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were all positive and significant at 1 percent level, except for proximity to high prestige social positions which did not have any significant value. Further, the strength of the relationship between the high prestige dimension across the three elements are stronger.

Further, between the high prestige dimensions across these three elements of social capital access, proximity and utilisation, a stronger positive relationship could be observed as compared to those of the relationship between the dimensions within these elements individually.

Proximity to high prestige social positions had significant relations with access to high prestige social capital, proximity to low prestige social positions and utilisation of high prestige social capital at a 1 percent level. However, with regards to the relation with utilisation of low prestige social capital, it had a significance at 5 percent value and no significance with that of access to low prestige social capital. Proximity to low prestige social positions had significant relations with access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high level social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were significant at 1 percent level.

Similarly, utilisation of high prestige social position and utilisation of low prestige social positions have significant relations with access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions and proximity to low prestige social positions were positively significant at 1 percent level.

6.1.4 Deductive Measures of Social Capital

Deductive measures of social capital are those scores derived directly from the data using the theoretical propositions; social resources theory of Nan Lin (1986) in the present study. From the responses received from the items in Position Generator there are about six possible measures through which access to and use of

the resources embedded in the social networks could be measured. Lin and Dumin (1986) have given three traditional position generator measures viz, *i) highest excess prestige* (the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation); *ii) range in accessed prestige*:(the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige) *iii) the number of positions accessed* (the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone) (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008). In addition to these, Van der Gaag et al (2008) added two more measures viz *i) the average accessed prestige* (the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows/uses, and *ii) total accessed prestige* (the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations).”

Except for the first and the last one, all the other four measurements are based on the prestige/status scales of the occupation included in the position generator. According to Ganzeboom and Treiman (1996) occupational prestige scales refer to the evaluation of occupational standing in society. Treiman (1977) when elaborating structural theory of prestige determination put forward the existence of occupational prestige hierarchies which are remarkably agreed upon by the members. Lin (1982) in his social resource theory stated that valued resources in most societies are represented by wealth, power, and status. This landmark gave rise to the occupational prestige as a scale in position generator measures of social capital. Based on this there are four types of measures in position generator viz. average prestige, highest prestige, range in prestige and total prestige.

Taking the local context into account among the prominent occupations related to development, 24 prominent occupations were chosen for the study. The positional prestige of the selected occupations was determined by analysing the responses from 30 respondents.

6.1.4.1 Occupational Prestige Assessment

According to Pieter-Paul Verhaeghe and Yaojun Li (2019) the position generator measurement of social capital is based on two assumptions. Firstly, it assumes that a society's occupational structure accurately reflects its resources distribution. Secondly, it assumes the necessity of knowing someone in the position/occupation for accessing the resources. As given by Lin and Dumin (1986)

there are three traditional position generator measures. They are i) *highest accessed prestige*: the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation; ii) *range in accessed prestige*: the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige and iii) *the number of positions accessed*: the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone (van der Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008). In addition to these measures van der Gaag et al (2008) added two more measures viz i) the *average accessed prestige* (the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows someone), and ii) *total accessed prestige* (the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations/positions).

Occupational prestige in the local social structural and cultural context is used to derive deductive measures of social capital. Occupational prestige scales refer to the evaluation of occupational standing in society (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996). It is calculated by dividing the sum of the prestige/status score of access occupation by the total number of access occupations. The underlying idea of occupation prestige is that occupation with higher prestige is associated with more or better resources and it is the quantity of the overall social networks that matter for accomplishing goals.

In order to quantify the deductive measures, the prestige of each of the positions must be determined. Van der Gaag and Snijders (2003) used the standard categorization of jobs by the Dutch Central Office of Statistics to impute the prestige associated with each position. The categorization used was based on Sixma and Ultee's prestige measures (1992) and the results of surveys conducted (Bakker et al., 1997). Najarzadeh, Soleimani, and Reed. (2014) attempted to assess the job prestige in Iran with the help of a questionnaire to measure the prestige of jobs included in the position generator. A set of 17 select scholars of humanities and sociology ranked these jobs. They assigned 1 to 27 ranks to these positions. The average ranks were considered as the prestige of each occupation. In the context of present study too, there is no official ranking of job prestige in India, especially in Manipur, a questionnaire with 24 positions was designed to measure the prestige of jobs which were included in the position generator. The questionnaire was sent out to 30 scholars in the areas of humanities and social sciences, public leaders, church leaders,

educated members of the community including women leaders. These key informants were asked to pair wise rank these 24 positions. The average number of votes to each position in the pair wise ranking was considered as the prestige score. The result of the scores from the respondents is given in Table No.6.8.

For the purpose of properly understanding the selected occupations in the present study the occupations are described as follows:

Doctor : Any physician or person with an MBBS (or equivalent) degree and works in the health sector both government and private.

DAO : It stands for District Agriculture Officer.

College Lecturer: A person working as an educator in the college in both government, non-government, and private sectors.

SDO/BDO: It stands for Sub-Divisional Officer or Block Development. In most cases, IAS or MCS officers posted at the sub-division or block.

DFO : It stands for District Forest Officer, usually held by Indian Forest Service officers.

Lawyer: A person having a minimum qualification of Bachelor of Law.

MLA/MDC: Members elected from State Assembly or Autonomous District constituencies to represent the people at the state assembly or autonomous district councils.

High School Teacher: An educator teaching both in government and private educational sectors/institutes.

Police Officer: Police personal with a minimum rank of Assistant Sub-Inspector (ASI) of Police.

Bank Manager: A banker starting from Probationary Officer and above.

Leaders of CSO: Members holding any post in any Civil Society Organisations.

NGO Workers: Any member employed in any Non-governmental Organisations.

Carpenter/skilled labourer: A skilled worker working in woods, masonry, who are primarily construction or furniture or mechanics in different fields.

Nurse/ASHA: A trained health worker with a minimum qualification of B. Sc Nursing or an Accredited Social Health Activist working in the village.

Tehsildar/Lambu: A government employee whose primary duty is collection of taxes

in the tehsils with regards to land revenue or house tax. In the local context they also verified certificates issued from the SDO/BDO Offices.

Primary School Teacher: Any teacher engaged in teaching primary classes both in the government and private sectors. Police Constable: A police personnel with the rank of head constable and below.

Village Level Worker: A government employee who acts as development agent for the betterment of the village.

Lineman (also called line worker): An employee in the electric department whose primary duty is to maintain transmission and distribution of electricity in the area.

Driver: A person having a valid driving license engaged in driving any vehicle with four-wheeler and above in government, private and commercial sectors.

Vehicle Owner: A person who owns a vehicle with four-wheelers and above.

Shop Owners: A person who owns a business enterprise engaged in selling commodities.

Social Welfare Officer: It stands for District Social Welfare Officer, a person employed in any ministry responsible for social welfare, child welfare, health, etc.

From the Table 6.8, it is found that 'doctor' with a score of 24.9 is the most prestigious occupation among the selected occupations. This is followed by 'DAO - District Agriculture Officer) with a score of 21.8 among the selected occupations. The third highest prestigious occupation is college lecturer with a score of 21.4 among the selected occupations. The fourth position in the row is the SDO/BDO (Sub-Divisional Officer/Block Development Officer SDO/BDO) with a 20.2 score. The list goes on and the Social Welfare Officer with 2.4 scores is found to be the lowest prestigious occupation among the selected occupations.

Table 6.8 Assessment of Positional Prestige

Sl. No.	Descriptive Statistics	Vote01	Score	Level
1	Doctor	623	24.9	High
2	DAO	545	21.8	High
3	College Lecturer	534	21.4	High
4	SDO BDO	505	20.2	High
5	DFO	493	19.7	High
6	Lawyer	437	17.5	High
7	Elected MLA/ MDC	434	17.4	High
8	High School Teacher	409	16.4	High
9	Police Officer	408	16.3	High
10	Bank Manager	389	15.6	High
11	Leaders of CSO	345	13.8	High
12	SO, of Electricity Dept	321	12.8	Low
13	NGO Workers	318	12.7	Low
14	Carpenter/Skilled Labourer	288	11.5	Low
15	Nurse/ASHA	266	10.6	Low
16	Tehsildar/Lambu	201	8.0	Low
17	Primary School Teacher	197	7.9	Low
18	Police Constable	180	7.2	Low
19	Village Level Worker	172	6.9	Low
20	Linemen	140	5.6	Low
21	Driver	130	5.2	Low
22	Vehicle Owner	116	4.6	Low
23	Shop Owners	98	3.9	Low
24	Social Welfare Officer	61	2.4	Low

Source: Computed

The occupations included in the position generator were classified into high and low levels based on their occupational prestige score. The positions with high prestige include Doctor, DAO, College Lecturer, SDO BDO, DFO, Lawyer, Elected MLA/ MDC, High School Teacher, Police Officer, Bank Manager, and Leaders of CSO which occupy top eleven positions in the order. The occupations viz., SO, of Electricity Dept, NGO Workers, Carpenter/Skilled Labourer, Nurse/ASHA, Tehsildar/Lambu, Primary School Teacher, Police Constable, Village Level Worker, Linemen, Driver, Vehicle Owner, Shop Owners, and Social Welfare Officer which occupied the lowest 13 positions were found as low prestige positions (see table 6.8).

6.1.4.2 Deductive Measures

The most popular metrics are three logical ones that Lin (2001) directly deduced from the theory. They are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, Number of Positions Accessed, Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised, Average Prestige Utilised, Total Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised.

Maximum Prestige Accessed is the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation; *Range of Prestige Accessed* is the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige; *Average Prestige Accessed* is the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows someone, *Total Prestige Accessed* is the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations; and *Number of Positions Accessed* is the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone.

Maximum Prestige Utilised is the occupation that gets the highest number of scores when calculating the utilisation of social capital; *Range of Prestige Utilised* is the difference between highest and lowest utilised positions; *Average Prestige Utilise* is the mean of the utilisation of all occupations in which the respondent knows someone; *Total Prestige Utilised* is the cumulative prestige of all utilised occupations and *Number of Positions Utilised* is the number of occupations utilised in which a respondent knows someone.

Imputing the occupational prestige scores in the raw data three elements of access, and use of social capital these five deductive measures have been computed.

These deductive measures of social capital are further analysed for inter village differences.

6.1.4.3 Differential Patterns of Deductive Measures of Social Capital

The intervillage differences in social capital derived from deductive measures are analysed and discussed in this sub-clause. Tables 6.9 and 6.10 present the results of analysis of the patterns of differences in the deductive measures of access to and utilisation of social capital.

6.1.4.3.1 Deductive Measures of Social Capital: Access to Social Positions

In analysing the differential patterns of deductive measure of social capital, the first measure considered is access to social positions by different villages (see table 6.9). In the given measure different deductive measures considered are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed and Number of Positions Accessed.

Table 6.9 Deductive Measures of Social Capital: Access to Social Positions

Sl.No	Type of Village/ Village	N	Maximum Prestige Accessed		Range of Prestige Accessed		Average Prestige Accessed		Total Prestige Accessed		Number of Positions Accessed	
			\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
I	Hill Village	87	21.6	4.4	21.5	4.4	5.7	3.4	136.4	82.5	10.2	5.6
	Khengjang	29	23.3	2.1	23.3	2.1	4.7	2.2	111.8	52.4	8.1	3.5
	L. Bongjoi	18	17.3	6.5	17.3	6.5	3.3	3.5	79.1	82.9	6.2	5.9
	Saibol	22	22.9	2.1	22.9	2.1	6.8	2.7	162.1	65.7	11.7	4.3
	Hengcham	18	23.1	3.0	23.1	3.0	7.0	2.6	167.5	62.3	12.5	3.9
II	Foothill Village	137	22.5	2.9	22.4	3.0	6.1	2.7	146.2	65.4	11.3	4.1
	New Keiphom	28	22.0	2.8	21.6	2.7	6.7	3.8	160.5	90.1	12.3	5.7
	Utangpokpi	35	20.9	3.3	20.9	3.3	4.7	2.4	113.0	58.6	9.3	3.6
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	23.6	2.7	23.6	2.7	5.8	1.1	138.4	26.3	11.0	1.4
	Singtom	50	22.7	2.9	22.5	2.9	7.4	3.0	177.6	71.2	13.2	4.5
	Total	224	22.1	3.6	22.0	3.6	5.9	3.0	142.4	72.5	10.8	4.7

Source: Computed

From the table 6.9 it is observed that in all the measures the mean score of the foothill villages were consistently higher than that of the hill village. The mean access to maximum prestige was 21.6 for the hill village while it was 22.5 for the foothill villages. The mean score of range of prestige was 21.5 for the hill villages while it was 22.4 for the foothill villages. The mean score on average prestige accessed was 5.7 for the hill villages while it was 6.1 for the foothill villages. The mean score on total prestige accessed was 136.4 for the hill villages while it was 146.2 for the foothill villages. The mean score on number of prestige access was 10.2 for the hill villages while it was 11.3 for the foothill villages.

A clear difference, therefore, in terms of accessed to social capital is observed between the hill and foothill villages in which the foothill villages were constantly having higher access in all the measurements.

6.1.4.3.2 Deductive Measures of Social Capital: Utilizations of Social Resources

The second measure considered in analysing the differential patterns of deductive measure of social capital is utilisation of social resources by different villages (see table 7.10). In the given measure different deductive measures considered are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed and Number of Positions Accessed.

From the given table (6.10) it is observed that in two measures the hill villages had higher level utilisation than the foothill villages. The mean utilisation to maximum prestige was 5.29 for the hill village while it was 3.77 for the foothill villages. The mean score of range of prestige was 5.25 for the hill villages while it was 3.77 for the foothill villages. The mean score on average prestige utilised was 3.14 for the hill villages while it was 2.20 for the foothill villages. The mean score on total prestige utilised was 75.34 for the hill villages while it was 52.60 for the foothill villages. The mean utilisation of Number of Positions Utilised was 5.19 for the hill villages and 3.26 for the foothill villages.

Table 6.10 Deductive Measures of Social Capital: Utilizations of Social Resources

Sl.No	Type of Village/ Village	Number	Maximum Prestige Utilised		Range of Prestige Utilised		Average Prestige Utilised		Total Prestige Utilised		Number of Positions Utilised	
			\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
I	Hill Village	87	5.29	19.29	5.25	19.22	3.14	3.86	75.34	92.47	5.19	7.21
	Khengjang	29	19.6	5.4	19.6	5.4	2.7	1.8	64.5	44.2	4.9	2.8
	L. Bongjoi	18	16.4	6.9	16.4	6.9	2.4	2.5	57.1	61.0	4.6	4.2
	Saibol	22	20.7	4.0	20.7	4.0	3.8	2.0	92.2	47.2	7.2	3.2
	Hengcham	18	21.8	4.8	21.8	4.8	5.0	2.3	120.5	55.3	9.6	3.8
II	Foothill Village	137	3.77	21.04	3.77	21.04	2.20	4.41	52.60	105.88	3.62	8.56
	New Keiphom	28	21.3	3.5	21.3	3.5	5.2	3.0	124.6	71.5	9.9	4.7
	Utangpokpi	35	20.5	3.7	20.5	3.7	4.3	2.0	102.0	47.8	8.6	3.3
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	21.3	3.8	21.3	3.8	3.7	1.1	90.1	26.0	7.5	2.1
	Singtom	50	20.4	3.6	20.3	3.6	5.2	3.2	124.7	77.9	9.7	5.2
	Total	224	20.4	4.5	20.3	4.5	4.2	2.6	100.7	62.6	8.0	4.3

Source: Computed

6.1.4.4 Intervillage Differences in Deductive Measures of Social Capital

The differences in deductive measures of social capital across the types of villages comparing the hill and foothill village using 't' test are presented in table 6.11

From the table it is observed that the mean difference in the deductive social capital measures of access to social capital viz. Maximum Prestige Accessed, range of prestige accessed, average prestige accessed, total prestige accessed and the number of positions accessed between the households holds between the hill and foothills villages.

Table 6. 11 Differences in Deductive Measures of Social Capital across Type of Villages

Sl. No	Deductive Measure	Type of Village				't'
		Hill Village		Foothill Village		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
I	Access to Social Capital					
	Maximum Prestige Accessed	21.6	4.4	22.5	2.9	1.8
	Range of Prestige Accessed	21.5	4.4	22.4	3.0	1.9
	Average Prestige Accessed	5.7	3.4	6.1	2.7	1.0
	Total Prestige Accessed	136.4	82.5	146.2	65.4	1.0
	Number of Positions Accessed	10.2	5.6	11.3	4.1	1.7
II	Utilisation of Social Capital					
	Maximum Prestige Utilised	19.3	5.3	21.0	3.8	2.9**
	Range of Prestige Utilised	19.2	5.3	21.0	3.8	3.0**
	Average Prestige Utilised	3.9	3.1	4.4	2.2	1.6
	Total Prestige Utilised	92.5	75.3	105.9	52.6	1.6
	Number of Positions Utilised	7.2	5.2	8.6	3.6	2.3**

Source: Computed ** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. The mean score of Range of Prestige Accessed was higher among the foothill villages (22.4) than the hill villages (21.5). However, the differences between the two villages were not significant. The mean score of Average Prestige Accessed was higher in the foothill villages (6.1) than the hill villages (5.7). However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. The mean score of Total Prestige Accessed was higher in the foothill villages (146.2) than the hill villages (136.4). However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. The mean score of Number of Positions Accessed was higher in the foothill villages (11.3) than the hill villages (10.2). However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages.

The mean score of Maximum Prestige Utilised was higher in the foothill villages (21.0) than the hill villages (19.3). A significant difference was found between the two types of villages in this measure with 0.01 p value. Similarly, a significant difference was found between the two villages in terms of Range of Prestige Utilised. It was much higher for the foothill villages (21.0) and the hill

villages (19.2). The mean score of the Average Prestige Utilised was higher for the foothill villages (4.4) than the hill villages (3.9). However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. The means score of the Total Prestige Utilised was higher for the foothill villages (105.9) than the hill villages (92.5). However, no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. In the case of Number of Positions Utilised, significant differences between the two villages were found. It was higher for the foothill villages (8.6) than the hill villages (7.2).

From the overall analysis it is clearly seen that the foothill villages were higher in all the deductive measures of social capital. No significant differences were found in most of the measures. However, in three dimensions viz. Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised, significant differences were observed with a significant difference at 1 percent level.

6.1.4.5 Relationship Between Deductive Measures of Social Capital

The first component studied in the deductive measures is the relationship among the deductive measures of social capital using Pearson's r. (See Table 6.12). The deductive measures categorised into access and utilisation were sub-grouped into 10 dimensions, five dimensions from access to social capital and five dimensions from utilisation of social capital.

The dimensions considered were coded in the following ways:

DM01 = Maximum Prestige,	DM02 = Range of Prestige,
DM03 = Average Prestige,	DM04 = Total Prestige,
DM05 = Number of Positions;	DM06 = Maximum Prestige,
DM07 = Range of Prestige,	DM08 = Average Prestige,
DM09 = Total Prestige,	DM10 = Number of Positions

From the given table (Table 6.12) it is observed that the deductive measures of social capital were all correlated. All the dimensions of deductive measures of social status were significantly related with each other at 1 percent level.

**Table 6.12 Relationship Between Deductive Measures of Social Capital:
Pearson's r**

SI. No	Deductive Measure	DM01	DM02	DM03	DM04	DM05	DM06	DM07	DM08	DM09	DM10
I	Social Capital Access										
DM01	Maximum Prestige	1	.979**	.636**	.636**	.601**	.733**	.731**	.479**	.479**	.435**
DM02	Range of Prestige	.979**	1	.560**	.560**	.525**	.706**	.711**	.396**	.396**	.354**
DM03	Average Prestige	.636**	.560**	1	1.000**	.983**	.584**	.570**	.829**	.829**	.798**
DM04	Total Prestige	.636**	.560**	1.000**	1	.983**	.583**	.569**	.829**	.829**	.798**
DM05	Number of Positions	.601**	.525**	.983**	.983**	1	.571**	.557**	.836**	.837**	.831**
II	Social Capital Utilisation										
DM06	Maximum Prestige	.733**	.706**	.584**	.583**	.571**	1	.997**	.664**	.664**	.616**
DM07	Range of Prestige	.731**	.711**	.570**	.569**	.557**	.997**	1	.644**	.644**	.597**
DM08	Average Prestige	.479**	.396**	.829**	.829**	.836**	.664**	.644**	1	1.000**	.981**
DM09	Total Prestige	.479**	.396**	.829**	.829**	.837**	.664**	.644**	1.000**	1	.981**
DM10	Number of Positions	.435**	.354**	.798**	.798**	.831**	.616**	.597**	.981**	.981**	1

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

6.2. Community Participation and Activism: Civic Measures of Social Capital

Community participation and community activism were the two civic measures of social capital used in this study.

Hamdi (1994) defined community participation as ‘the process by which professionals, families, community groups, government officials get together to work out something preferably in a formal or informal partnership.’ The present study employs Putnam’s (1995) civic engagement perspective in social capital studies. He gave five different forms of civic engagements – political (voting, participation in public meetings or rallies), religious (ceremonious and services), school (in Parent Teacher Association), works (labour unions) and service groups (philanthropic organisations). In the present study, except for school union all the other four areas were considered. Community participation of the respondents studied from the responses they gave to eight participatory items. The following are the different components studied under community participation are given as follows: Cultural Festivals/ Programmes, Volunteer Works, Donations in kind and cash, attending family rituals/programmes, religious festivals/programmes, Meetings of community

organisations, voting in the MP Election, voting in the MLA election, Voting in the MDC Election and Games and Sports.

Community participation of the respondents was measured based on the frequency of their participation as never, sometimes, mostly, and always. The duration for which the participation was considered was six months.

6.2.1. Patterns of Community Participation

Patterns of community participation across the sample villages are analysed and presented in table 6.13. The different areas of participation consisted of both political and non-political dimensions. There are totally 10 items which were chosen to fit the theoretical as well as local context. Attending family rituals programmes, attending religious festivals programmes, attending cultural festivals programmes, donation in kind and cash, meeting of community organisations, voting in MDC election, participation in games and sports, participation in volunteer works, voting in MLA election, voting in MP Election.

The mean participation of each village in different items are presented to show the level of participation in the different items.

From the given table (6.13) it is observed that attending family rituals programmes and attending religious festivals programmes with mean participation of 2.4 are the highest. They are followed by cultural festivals programmes with mean participation of 1.6 and donation in kind and cash with mean participation of 1.5. They all belonged to the high category of participation. There are three items in the medium level of participation with 1.4 mean participation each. They are: meeting of community organisations, voting in MDC Election and participation in games and sports. In the low level of participation there are three items: Volunteer work with mean participation of 1.3, Voting in MLA Election with mean participation of 1.2 and voting in MP election with mean participation of 1.1.

Table 6.13 Patterns of Community Participation

Community Participation	Khengjang		L. Bongjoi		Saibol		Hengcham		New Keiphom		Utangpokpi		Ukon Thingkangphai		Singtom		Total	
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Attending family rituals programmes	2.8	0.5	2.2	0.8	2.4	0.7	2.7	0.6	2.3	1.0	2.0	0.8	2.5	0.6	2.6	0.7	2.4	0.8
Religious festivals programmes	2.6	0.6	1.9	0.9	2.8	0.4	2.8	0.5	2.6	0.6	2.0	0.8	2.7	0.6	2.0	0.8	2.4	0.8
Cultural Festivals programmes	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.8	0.9	2.2	0.7	1.6	0.8	1.2	0.6	1.5	0.5	1.9	0.7	1.6	0.8
Donation in kind and cash	1.5	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.5	0.7	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.9	1.6	0.7	2.0	0.6	1.7	0.8	1.5	0.9
Meeting of community organisations	1.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.6	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.7	1.1	1.0	0.6	1.7	0.8	1.5	0.8	1.4	0.9
Voting in MDC Election	1.9	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	0.9	1.4	0.9	1.2	0.8	1.4	1.1
Games and sports	1.7	1.2	0.8	1.0	1.9	0.7	1.4	1.0	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.7	1.3	0.7	1.8	0.7	1.4	1.0
Volunteer works	1.9	1.1	1.2	0.7	1.0	0.7	1.2	0.6	1.3	0.9	0.7	0.7	1.7	0.5	1.4	0.8	1.3	0.8
Voting in MLA Election	2.0	1.2	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.4	0.9	1.2	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.6	1.2	1.1
Voting in MP Election	1.5	1.4	0.6	1.0	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.5	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.9	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.7	1.1	1.1

Source: Computed

6.2.2. Patterns of Community Activism

Paul Hawken (2007) viewed that activism can take place in different forms such as undertaking civil disobedience, protest, demonstration, campaigning, boycotts, lobbying, writing letters, petitions and attending meetings. The field of activism can vary according to the needs of the people and the situation. It can occur in various political, economic, social, and work arenas. Though there can be varied forms of activism the aim of community activism is improvement and achieving the universal value of justice and respect.

The various forms of community activism studied were: attending neighbourhood council meeting, meeting of community leaders to discuss local

issues, meeting/making phone call or writing letters to government officials, meeting, making phone call or writing a letter to a politician, participation in a protest or demonstration, informing a police or court about a local problem, alerting newspaper, radio or TV about a local problem. The period considered these forms of activism was six months. The respondents were given the option to respond ‘yes’ or ‘no’ to these variables.

Table 6.14 Patterns of Community Activism

Community Activism	Hill Villages								Foothill Villages								Total	
	Khengjan g		L. Bongjoi		Saibol		Hengch am		New Keiphom		Utangpok pi		Ukon Thingkang phai		Singtom			
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Attended neighbourhood council meeting	0.9	0.3	1.0	0.0	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.0	0.9	0.3	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.1	0.9	0.3
Attended public discussion group	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.3	0.5	0.5
Met community leader on local issues	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.5
Met with a political leader or sent a letter	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4
Met with a government er or sent a letter	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3
Participated in a protest or demonstration	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3
Notified police or court about a local problem	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Alerted newspaper related to a local problem	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1

Source: Computed

From the given table (6.12) it is observed that attended neighbourhood council meetings with mean activism of 0.9 and attended public discussion group with mean activism of 0.5 are at the high level of activism. In the medium level of activism there are three items. They are meeting community leaders on local issues with mean activism of 0.3, Met with a political leader or sent a letter with mean activism of 0.2 and Participated in a protest or demonstration with mean activism of

0.1. Notifying police or court about a local problem and Alerted newspaper related to a local problem with a mean activism of 0.0 are the least forms of activism carried out by the respondents.

6.2.3. Intervillage Differences in Community Participation and Activism

The intervillage differences in civic engagement viz. Community participation and community activism are analysed and discussed in table 6.15.

Table 6.15 Community Participation and Activism

Sl. No	Type of Village / Village	N	Community Participation		Community Activism	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD
I	Hill Village	87	1.6	0.6	0.3	0.2
	Khengjang	29	1.9	0.6	0.2	0.2
	L. Bongjoi	18	1.2	0.8	0.2	0.2
	Saibol Joupri	22	1.5	0.8	0.3	0.2
	H. Hengcham	18	1.3	0.4	0.2	0.2
II	Foothill Village	137	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.2
	New Keiphom	28	1.5	0.4	0.2	0.2
	Utangpokpi	35	1.6	0.4	0.3	0.1
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	1.6	0.2	0.3	0.0
	Singtom	50	1.6	0.5	0.4	0.2
	Total	224	1.6	0.6	0.3	0.2
	Civic Measure	t				
	Community Participation	1.617				
	Community Activism	.694				

Source: Computed

From the table (6.13) it is observed that the mean score for participation was a point higher in the hill villages (1.6) than the foothill villages (1.5). The total mean score of participation from both the types of villages was 1.6.

In the hill villages, community participation for Khengjang village was the highest with the mean score of 1.9 and L. Bongjoi village with a mean score of 1.2 was the lowest. Saibol Joupri had a mean score of 1.5 and H. Hengcham had 1.3 mean score of community participation. In the foothill villages except for New Keiphom with 1.5 mean score of community participation, all other villages, Viz. Utangpokpi, Ukon Thingkangphai and Singtom had 1.6 mean scores of participations.

With regards to community activism there was no difference between the two types of villages. For both the types of villages the activism mean score was 0.3

For the hill villages, the community activism of Saibol Joupri village with the mean score of 0.3 was a point higher than all the other villages, Viz. Khengjang, L. Bongjoi and H. Hengcham with 0.2 mean scores. For the foothill villages Singtom with an activism mean score of 0.4 was the highest. This was followed by Utangpokpi and Ukon Thingkangphai Villages with a mean score of 0.3. The lowest mean activism recorded was New Keiphom with a mean score of 0.2

6.2.4. Relationship Among Inductive, Deductive and Civic Measures

This section presents discussion on the relationship between deductive, inductive and civic measures of social capital. The inductive measures that are considered here underutilisation of social capital are maximum prestige utilised, range of prestige utilised, average of prestige utilised total prestige utilised and number of positions utilised. The deductive measures used in the study to assess the access and utilisation of social capital are maximum prestige accessed/utilised, range of prestige accessed/utilised, average of prestige accessed/utilised, total prestige accessed/utilised and number of positions accessed/utilised. The civic measures of social capital are community participation and community activism. The Karl Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were used to assess the relationship among these three sets of measures (See Table 6.16).

The results show that the inductive as well as deductive measures across the access and utilisation elements of social capital and civic measures were interrelated positively and significantly as expected. However, there are variations in the substantive strength of the relationships between the dimensions of the three elements of social capital. The inductive measures of access to and use of social capital such as access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions, proximity to low prestige social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital have significant and positive relations with the deductive measures of social capital viz., maximum prestige accessed, range of prestige accessed, average of prestige accessed, total prestige accessed and number of positions accessed. Similarly, these inductive measures of social capital have significant and positive

relations with the civic measures of community participation and community activism.

Table 6.16 Deductive-Inductive and Civic Measures of Social Capital: Pearson's

r

Inductive/Civic Measures	Access to Social Positions					Utilisation of Social Positions				
	Maximum Prestige Accessed	Range of Prestige Accessed	Average Prestige Accessed	Total Prestige Accessed	Number of Positions Accessed	Maximum Prestige Utilised	Range of Prestige Utilised	Average Prestige Utilised	Total Prestige Utilised	No. of Positions Utilised
Access to high prestige Social Capital	.547**	.481**	.947**	.947**	.945**	.528**	.516**	.797**	.797**	.945**
Access to low prestige Social Capital	.410**	.359**	.493**	.493**	.562**	.388**	.379**	.469**	.470**	.562**
Proximity to high Social Positions	.379**	.325**	.795**	.795**	.794**	.376**	.369**	.649**	.649**	.794**
Proximity to low prestige Social Positions	.441**	.400**	.571**	.571**	.602**	.416**	.411**	.508**	.510**	.602**
Utilisation of high Social Capital	.400**	.318**	.789**	.789**	.802**	.551**	.533**	.904**	.904**	.802**
Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	.240**	.188**	.445**	.445**	.502**	.414**	.401**	.652**	.652**	.502**
Community Participation	.399**	.373**	.459**	.459**	.453**	.314**	.306**	.398**	.398**	.373**
Community Activism	.295**	.234**	.612**	.611**	.615**	.335**	.321**	.643**	.643**	.620**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The deductive measures of access to and use of such as access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions, proximity to low prestige social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital have significantly and positively related to both the civic measures of social capital of community participation and community activism.

In this chapter the various aspects of social capital and community participation and activism were studied. From the inductive and deductive measures, it was found that the pattern of distribution of social capital was similar in most cases both the types of villages. In the inductive measures access to low prestige social capital, proximity to low prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were found to be significantly higher among the foothill villages. In the deductive measures access had no significant differences between the two villages. However, the differences lie in the usage of social capital. The foothill villages were found to be more prominent in using the available social capital than the hill villages.

Utilisation of maximum prestige, range of prestige and number of positions were significantly higher among the foothill villages than the hill villages. The next chapter will discuss the patterns of rural development comparing the hill and foothill villages.

CHAPTER VII

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The previous chapter analysed the structures of social networks both at the household levels and the community (village) level. The differences between the hill and the foothill villages in social capital measurements were discussed. In this chapter an attempt is made to understand the patterns and levels of rural development from a community development perspective.

Rural community development is analysed in terms of three sets of indicators viz, living conditions, housing condition and community satisfaction. The first two sets of indicators are objective in nature while the last one is subjective. Per capita Household Income and Expenditure were the two indicators of community development. Housing condition Index and Household Amenities Index where the objective dimension of community development is discretely measured in terms of living conditions and housing indicators. The subjective dimension of community development is represented by community satisfaction which has two dimensions primary and secondary community service satisfaction.

7.1 Living Conditions

Living conditions, in simple terms, means the circumstances that affect the way a community lives and their wellbeing. It is often related to the quality or standard of life of the people. In the present study, two indicators Viz. income and expenditure, were considered to understand the living conditions of the studied population.

7.1.1 Level of Per capita monthly income

Per capita monthly income is the first indicator used to understand the living conditions of the studied population. The per capita monthly income levels are divided into three levels – low (-8332.41 - 7293.09), medium (7293.10 - 22918.60) and High (22918.61+) (see table 7.1).

From the given table (no. 7.1) the overall observation showed that absolutely majority (71.1%) of the households belonged to low-level per capita monthly income category, about one-fourth (26.8%) belonged to medium-level per capita monthly

income category and only 2.2 per cent of the total households belonged to high-level per capita monthly income category.

Table 7.1 Level of Per Capita Monthly Income

Sl.No	Type of Village	Level of Per Capita Monthly Income			Total	Mean	SD
		Low (-8332.41 - 7293.09)	Medium (7293.10 - 22918.60)	High (22918.6 1+)			
I	Hill Villages	76 (87.4)	10 (11.5)	1 (1.1)	87 (100)	4113	3426
	Khengjang	27 (93.1)	2 (6.9)	0 (0.0)	29 (100)	3242	3692
	L. Bongjoi	18 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	18 (100)	1694	1069
	Saibol	18 (81.8)	4 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	22 (100)	4980	3817
	Hengcham	13 (72.2)	4 (22.2)	1 (5.6)	18 (100)	6535	5126
II	Foothill Villages	83 (60.6)	50 (36.5)	4 (2.9)	137 (100)	7683	10354
	New Keiphom	23 (82.1)	5 (17.9)	0 (0.0)	28 (100)	4586	4187
	Utangpokpi	29 (83)	6 (17)	0 (0)	35 (100)	5340	4537
	Ukon Thingkangphai	23 (95.8)	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	24 (100)	2834	2635
	Singtom	8 (16.0)	38 (76.0)	4 (8.0)	50 (100)	17973	30059
	Total	159 (71.0)	60 (26.8)	5 (2.2)	224 (100)	7293	15626

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

When the hill and the foothill villages are compared the per capita monthly income of the foothill villages were better than that of the hill villages. Among the hill villages the absolute majority of the households (87.4%) belonged to the low-

level income. One-tenth of the households (11.5%) of the households were within the medium level income and only one percent of the households had a high-income level. Among the foothill villages, on the other hand, three-fourth (60.6 %) the households belonged to low level income category, about one-third (36.5%) of the households belonged to medium income level category and four households (2.9%) belonged to high level income category.

7.1.2 Level of Per capita Monthly Expenditure

The second indicator in living conditions is the level of per capita monthly expenditure of the studied households. The per capita monthly expenditure levels are categorised into three levels – Low (174.96 - 8367.88), Medium (8367.89 - 16560.82, High (16560.83+) (see table 7.2).

From the given table (no. 6.2) the overall observation showed that three-fifth (66.1%) of the households belonged to low-level per capita monthly expenditure category, one-fourth (25.4%) belonged to medium-level per capita monthly expenditure category and almost one-tenth (8.5%) of the total households belonged to high-level per capita monthly expenditure category.

When the hill and the foothill villages are compared the per capita monthly expenditure of the foothill villages were higher than that of the hill villages. Among the hill villages the absolute majority of the households (88.5%) were within the low-level expenditure category. One-tenth of the households (10.3%) of the households were within the medium level expenditure category and only one percent of the households had a high-expenditure level. Among the foothill villages, on the other hand, a little above three-fourth (66.1 %) the households belonged to low level expenditure category, one-fourth (25.4%) of the households belonged to medium expenditure level category and a little below one-tenth (8.5%) belonged to high level expenditure category.

Table 7.2 Level of Percapita Monthly Expenditure

Sl. No	Type of Village	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure			Total	Mean
		Low (174.96 - 8367.88)	Medium (8367.89 - 16560.82)	High (16560.83+)		
I	Hill Villages	77 (88.5)	9 (10.3)	1 (1.1)	87 (100)	4798
	Khengjang	25 (86.2)	3 (10.3)	1 (3.4)	29 (100)	6052
	L. Bongjoi	18 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	18 (100)	2548
	Saibol	19 (86.4)	3 (13.6)	0 (0.0)	22 (100)	5241
	Hengcham	15 (83.3)	3 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	18 (100)	5353
II	Foothill Villages	71 (51.8)	48 (35.0)	18 (13.1)	137 (100)	10688
	New Keiphom	22 (78.6)	6 (21.4)	0 (0.0)	28 (100)	5708
	Utangpokpi	19 (54)	13 (37.1)	3 (8.6)	35 (100)	8475
	Ukon Thingkangp hai	9 (37.5)	8 (33.3)	7 (29.2)	24 (100)	17055
	Singtom	21 (42.0)	21 (42.0)	8 (16.0)	50 (100)	11512
	Total	148 (66.1)	57 (25.4)	19 (8.5)	224 (100)	8368

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

7.2 Housing Conditions of the Sample Households

In the ‘State of Housing in India: A Statistical Compendium 2013’ it is stated that ‘housing and housing amenities are major indicators to gauge human well-being of a country.’ In this study housing conditions and amenities are used as important

indicators of community development, and in this case the rural community. The need for studying the housing conditions lies also in the multiple roles and functions it plays in affecting the living condition of a person (here family). Housing choices impact access to infrastructure, employment, household wealth, health, education, poverty levels, maternal and child mortality, women's participation in workforce, and many other wellbeing indicators (Gopalan and Venkataraman 2015)

The chapter is broadly divided into four sections - Housing in India, the housing conditions and housing facilities and amenities and community satisfaction. The first section deals with a brief discussion on housing in India. The second section deals with ownership of the house, the physical conditions, and the value of the house. The third section deals with the additional assets and utilities that are available in the house. The fourth section deals with community satisfaction which is a subjective measure of community development.

Census of India (2001), defines a house as 'a building or part of a building having part main entrance from the road or common courtyard or staircase etc. used or familiar as a separate unit. It may be occupied or vacant. It may be used for a residential or non-residential purpose or both.' In the Chandel District Census Handbook 2011 houses are categories into permanent houses, semi-permanent and temporary houses. In this study the term houses imply permanent houses. The same book (Chandel 2011) defined the concept of permanent houses as "houses, the walls and roof of which are made of permanent materials. The material of walls can be any one from the following, namely, galvanized iron sheets or other metal sheets, asbestos sheets, burnt bricks, stones or concrete. Roof may be made from any one of the following materials, namely, tiles, slate, galvanized, iron sheets, metal sheets, asbestos sheets, bricks, stones, or concrete." The culture and habits of the people and the climatic and topographical conditions of the place also influenced the type of houses. Therefore, the type of houses may range from a small thatched hut to a skyscraper or massive building. The modern concept of housing is no more limited to provision of shelter with four walls and a roof but it also requires access to basic amenities such as water and sanitation, thereby offering a sense of privacy, safety, dignity, and better living (NURHP, 2015).

The need and importance of a house was felt by human beings since the beginning of history and it is so till today in most underdeveloped and developing countries. Being aware of the fact about the lack of housing and basic amenities, the government of India since independence has taken various measures to ensure that its citizens have a proper place to rest and live an ideal life. The inclusion of the provisions of 'housing for all' in the Directive Principles of State Policy of the constitution of India was one of the first steps taken by the government in their endeavours to provide affordable shelter to its people. Through its five year plans the government has tried to implement its various policies on housing.

For the urban areas various schemes and policies were taken up by the government. Some of them are Urban Land (Ceiling & Regulation) Act, 1976, Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDCO) 1970, National Housing Bank (NHB), National Housing Policy (1988), National Urban Housing and Habitat Policy (NUHHP) 2007, and various other housing policies taken up by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation (MoHUPA) aimed at providing 'Affordable Housing for All' with special emphasis on vulnerable sections of society such as Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes, Backward Classes, Minorities and the Urban Poor (NURHP, 2015).

The government also has been taking up various housing policies in the rural areas. Some of those policies and scheme that can be mentioned are Village Housing Programme (VHP) which was introduced as part of Community Development Movement (CDM) in 1957, Indira Awaas Yojana (IAY) launched in 1985, Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY) launched 1989 in which 6% of the fund was allocated for housing for SCs/STs, Pradhan Mantri Awaas Yojana – Gramin (PMAY-G), a re-structured IAY scheme, launched in 2016, etc. According 2011 Census there are about 110.14 and 220.70 million census houses in Urban and Rural India respectively.

Housing conditions of the sample households under two sections – the physical structure of the house and the facilities and amenities attached or available in the house. This subsection deals with the first set of components - ownership of house, Type of Floor, Type of Roof, Type of Wall, Number of Rooms, Source of

Drinking Water, Type of Toilet, Source of power supply and Approximate Value of the House.

7.2.1 Ownership of House

The ownership of a house is the first component studied under housing conditions. It is to see if the house in which the sample households live belonged to them or not.

Table 7.3 Housing Conditions: Ownership of House

Sl.No	Village	Ownership of House				Total	
		Own		Rented		Freq	%
		Freq.	%	Freq	%		
I	Hill Villages	84	97	3	3	87	100
	Khengjang	28	97	1	3	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	18	100	0	0	18	100
	Saibol	20	91	2	9	22	100
	Hengcham	18	100	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	136	99	1	1	137	100
	New Keiphom	27	96	1	4	28	100
	Utangpokpi	35	100	0	0	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	100	0	0	24	100
	Singtom	50	100	0	0	50	100
	Total	220	98	4	2	224	100

Source: Computed

From the table (7.3) it is observed that the absolute majority (98%) of the sample households lived in a house owned by them. Whereas only two per cent of them live in rented houses. Upon further investigation from the respondents at the time of data collection it was known to the researcher that the houses falling under rented houses were not exactly rented houses. Some couples/families of younger brothers who recently got separated from the parental house were made to settle temporarily in some vacant houses in the village. Therefore, term rented house here refers to the houses of relatives or family members the rent of which may not

necessarily be paid. The presence of such types was seen in Khengjang (one household) and Saibol Joupi (two households) villages in the hills and in New Keiphom (one household).

One of the beauties of rural tribal society is the care for each other in the community. Particularly, among the Kukis, the traditional value of *khankho* keeps the social fabric intact with care and concern for each other. Baite (2019) stated that “*khankho* is a whole ethical principle of the Kuki by which each Kuki is bound to his/her social and political obligations in the society.” According to him “it involves respect, sacrifice, obedience, and reciprocal obligation for the welfare of the society.”

Each village community is like a big family, where the welfare of all the villagers is taken care of by the chief and his counsels. There is a practice where each family has to give wage labour to help in the construction of new houses in the village. In the hill villages where most of the housing materials are collected directly from the forest and construction of houses are simple, construction of new houses was not a big affair. With the changes of time and development, house designs changed and people started constructing bigger and better houses that last longer. That kind of house requires skilled labourers and not all villagers can put their hands on it. However, even in those situations a particular work that requires public hand is chosen and a day or two is set aside for villagers to help in the construction of the new house. This practice is still prevailing in most of the Kuki villages in Manipur. In this practice widows are given more attention as they cannot construct houses on their own. The villagers under the advice and counsel of the chief and his counsel made sure that a widow who is desirous of constructing a new house is helped properly. The practice in a way ensures that every family has a roof over their heads.

7.2.2 Type of Floor

The second component considered under housing conditions is the type of floor of the house of the sample households. The type of climate condition, geographical condition and the availability of local building materials and the cultural traits of the people have great influence on the type of houses. As such the

type of floor is also affected by the conditions mentioned. In the present study four major types of floors. They are mud, bamboo, wood, and concrete.

Table 7.4 presents the types of floors of the houses of the sample households. It is observed that a vast majority (67%) of the houses have wooden floors. The number of houses with concrete and mud floors were the same (16%). The least used item for the floor was bamboo (1%).

Table 7.4 Housing Conditions: Type of Floor

SL.N o	Village	Type of Floor								Total	
		Mud		Bamboo		Wood		Concrete			
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Fre	%
I	Hill Villages	16	18	1	1	60	69	10	11	87	100
	Khengjang	0	0	0	0	29	100	0	0	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	0	0	1	6	14	78	3	17	18	100
	Saibol	8	36	0	0	10	45	4	18	22	100
	Hengcham	8	44	0	0	7	39	3	17	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	20	15	2	1	89	65	26	19	137	100
	New Keiphom	6	21	1	4	17	61	4	14	28	100
	Utangpokpi	13	37	1	3	11	31	10	29	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	1	4	0	0	20	83	3	13	24	100
	Singtom	0	0	0	0	41	82	9	18	50	100
	Total	36	16	3	1	149	67	36	16	224	100

Source: Computed

The number of houses with mud floors was 16 (18%) in the hill villages and a similar form was found among 20 houses (15%) in the foothill villages. The percentage of bamboo floors both in the types of villages stood at one per cent each. The number of houses with wooden floors in the hills was 60 (69%) in the hill villages and 149 (67%) in the foothill villages. The number of houses with concrete floors in the hill villages was 10 (11%) and 36 (16%).

7.2.3 Type of Roof

The third component considered under housing conditions is the type of roof of the house of the sample households. The types of roofs of the houses in the study area are classified as sun grass, tin, corrugated iron and concrete.

From the given table 7.5 it is observed that tin comprising 83 per cent in the hills and 86 per cent in the foothill villages is the most used material for roofing in the study area. Sun grass and corrugated iron comprising six percent each in total. The least used type of roofing is concrete which comprises two per cent. Interestingly there was not a single house in the hills with concrete roofing.

Table 7.5 Housing Conditions: Type of Roof

Sl.No	Village	Type of Roof								Total	
		Sun Grass		Tin		Corrugated Iron		Concrete			
		Fre q.	%	Fre q.	%	Fre q.	%	Freq .	%	Freq .	%
I	Hill Villages	9	10	72	83	6	7	0	0	87	100
	Khengjang	3	10	23	79	3	10	0	0	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	4	22	12	67	2	11	0	0	18	100
	Saibol	2	9	20	91	0	0	0	0	22	100
	Hengcham	0	0	17	94	1	6	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	5	4	120	88	8	6	4	3	137	100
	New Keiphom	0	0	27	96	1	4	0	0	28	100
	Utangpokpi	4	11	27	77	2	6	2	6	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	0	0	22	92	1	4	1	4	24	100
	Singtom	1	2	44	88	4	8	1	2	50	100
	Total	14	6	192	86	14	6	4	2	224	100

Source: Computed

There are differences in the concentration of type of roofing the hills and foothill villages. There was higher concentration of sun grass, which is the lowest quality of type of roofing, in the hill villages (10%) while the foothill villages had

only four per cent of the same type. Tin roofing, the third best quality of roofing, was widely spread in both the types of villages. It has a higher percentage of concentration in the foothill villages (88%) against 83 per cent in the hill villages. Corrugated iron type of roofing, which is the second-best quality among the different types of roofing has more concentration in the hill village comprising seven percent while the same type of roofing found in the foothill villages was six per cent. On the other hand, concrete roofing, which is the highest quality type of roofing in the study area, was found only in the foothill villages, comprising two per cent.

7.2.4 Type of Wall

The third component considered under housing conditions is the type of wall of the house of the sample households. The types of walls of the houses in the study area are classified into mud, bamboo, tin, wood and concrete.

Table 7.6 Housing Conditions: Type of Wall

Sl.No	Village	Type of Wall										Total	
		Mud		Bamboo		Tin		Wood		Concrete		Freq.	%
		Freq.	%	Fr eq.	%	Fre q.	%	Fre q.	%	Fre q.	%		
I	Hill Villages	4	5	19	22	22	25	38	44	4	4	87	100
	Khengjang	2	7	3	10	2	7	21	72	1	4	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	2	11	9	50	4	22	2	11	1	6	18	100
	Saibol	0	0	4	18	9	41	8	36	1	5	22	100
	Hengcham	0	0	3	17	7	39	7	39	1	5	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	75	55	0	0	6	4	42	31	14	10	137	100
	New Keiphom	23	82	0	0	1	4	3	11	1	4	28	100
	Utangpokpi	19	54	0	0	2	6	9	26	5	14	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	14	58	0	0	1	4	6	26	3	13	24	100
	Singtom	19	38	0	0	2	4	24	48	5	10	50	100
	Total	79	35	19	9	28	12	80	36	18	8	224	100

Source: Computed

From the given table (7.6), considering the whole sample houses it was found that the majority (36%) of the sample houses consist of wooden walls. The next widely used type of wall is mud (35%). The third majority of houses consist of tin (12%). Bamboo and Concrete consist of nine and eight per cent respectively and they are the least used material for housing walls.

When comparing the hill and foothill villages there are significant differences in some components. In the hill villages houses which have wooden walls account for 44 per cent and are the majority. This is followed by tin walls with 25 per cent. After tin walls bamboo walls followed it closely with 22 per cent. Concrete walls consist of a minimum of four per cent. In the foothill villages mud walls are found to be in absolute majority with 55 per cent followed by wooden walls with 31 per cent. Concrete walls consist of 10 percent which is four per cent higher than the hills. No Bamboo walls were found in the foothill villages.

Though there are similarities in the usages of mud and wooden types of walls there is a wide range of differences in the usages of bamboo, tin and concrete types of walls in the hills and foothill villages.

6.2.5 Source of Drinking Water

Sources of drinking water for the sample households were classified into stream, open well, handpumps and public points (Table 7.5). Stream refers to those water sources with flowing water. Open well refers to those water sources where water is drawn from an open well dug in convenient places in the villages. Handpumps refers to a pump operated by hand to draw underground water. Public point here refers to those drinking water reservoirs located in the villages where safe drinking water is available.

Taking the whole sample of households, there were significant differences in the sources of drinking water between the hill and foothill villages. There is no one in the hill villages using hand pumps while in the foothill villages more than half (53%) of the foothill villages used handpumps. The next widely used source of drinking water is a public point which consists mostly of water tanks constructed in a prominent area in the village. About one-third (35%) of the whole sample households drew water from public points.

In the hills almost two-fifth (37%) and about one-third (31%) among the foothill villages drew water from public points. This was followed by open well. A little more than one-tenth (14%) of the whole sample households drew water from this source. In the hills about one-third (34%) drew water from open wells while in the foothill villages only one percent of the sample households used open wells to draw water. Stream is the least used water source among the sample villages. In the

hill villages about one-fifth (23%) of the sample households drew water from the said source while in the foothill areas less than one-tenth (7%) drew water from streams.

Table 7.7 Housing Conditions: Source of Drinking Water

Sl. No	Village	Source of Drinking Water								Total	
		Stream		Open well		Hand Pumps		Public Point			
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Village	20	23	30	34	0	0	37	42	87	100
	Khengiang	0	0	29	100	0	0	0	0	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	18	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	100
	Saibol	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	100	22	100
	Hengcham	2	11	1	6	0	0	16	89	18	100
II	Foothill Village	9	7	2	1	84	61	42	31	137	100
	New Keiphom	9	32	0	0	19	68	0	0	28	100
	Utangpokpi	0	0	2	6	31	89	2	6	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	0	0	0	0	24	100	0	0	24	100
	Singtom	0	0	0	0	10	20	40	80	50	100
	Total	29	13	32	14	84	37	79	35	224	100

Source: Computed

6.2.6 Type of Toilet

Proper toilets are important for disposing of waste appropriately so that the environment can be kept clean. Availability of proper sanitation facilities like toilet can reduce the risks of the spread of many communicable diseases. Toilets of the sample households are classified as pit latrine, low-cost toilet, concrete with septic tank (Table 7.8). Pit latrines are locally made toilets where a pit is dug to collect faeces and covered up with locally material and mud and a shelter attached to it. Low-cost toilets are toilets built under Swachh Bharat Mission (Grameen) launched in 2014. In most of the villages the design of low-cost toilets consists of two concrete pits for collection of faeces and a shelter made of tin roof and wooden walls. Concrete with Septic Tank is also called pucca-toilet and it is self-explanatory.

Table 7.8 Housing Conditions: Type of Toilet

Sl. No	Village	Type of Toilet						Total	
		Pit Latrine		Low-Cost Toilet		Concrete with Septic Tank			
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
I	Hill Villages	38	44	34	39	15	17	87	100
	Khengjang	22	76	5	17	2	7	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	5	28	11	61	2	11	18	100
	Saibol	8	36	9	41	5	23	22	100
	Hengcham	3	17	9	50	6	33	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	12	9	85	62	40	29	137	100
	New Keiphom	3	11	17	61	8	29	28	100
	Utangpokpi	9	26	19	54	7	20	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	0	0	15	63	9	38	24	100
	Singtom	0	0	34	68	16	32	50	100
	Total	50	22	119	53	55	25	224	100

Source: Computed

From the given table it is observed that the majority of the toilets consist of low-cost types of toilets. It accounted for more than half (53%) of the whole sample households. More than one-third (39%) in the hill villages and above three-fifths (62%) in the foothill villages consist of low-cost toilets. The next widely found type of toilet was the Concrete with Septic Tank type of toilet. Taking the whole sample of households, it consisted of one-fourth (25%). In the hills it was a little less than one-fifth (17%) and in the foothill villages it was a little above one-fourth (29%). The least used type of toilet was pit latrine. It consisted of just a little more than one-fifth (22%) in the whole sample households. There was a significant difference between the hill and foothill villages in this regard. In the hills pit latrine consisted above two-fifths (44%) which is the highest percentage among the different types of toilets in the hills while in the foothill villages pit latrine consisted of only nine per cent which is less than one-tenth.

When a comparison is made on the different types of toilets between the two types of villages there is a significant difference. The foothill villages have far better types of toilets than the hill villages as the foothill villages had more concentration of low-cost toilets and concrete with septic tank type toilets while the hills had a huge concentration of pit latrine type toilets.

7.2.7 Source of Power Supply

Source of power supply is another important component in the housing condition of the sample households. The source of power supply was categories into electricity, solar panel and other (Table 7.9)

From the given table it is observed that absolute majority (79%) of the sample households in both the types of villages used electricity as the main source of power supply. This was followed by solar panels with 43 per cent. A very insignificant number of households used other sources of power.

Table 7.9 Housing Conditions: Source of Power Supply

Sl.No	Village	Source of Power Supply						Total	
		Electricity		Solar Panel		Others		Freq	%
		Freq.	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
I	Hill Villages	40	46	43	49	4	5	87	100
	Khengjang	0	0	27	93	2	7	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	0	0	16	89	2	11	18	100
	Saibol	22	100	0	0	0	0	22	100
	Hengcham	18	100	0	0	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	137	00	0	0	0	0	137	100
	New Keiphom	28	100	0	0	0	0	28	100
	Utangpokpi	35	100	0	0	0	0	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	100	0	0	0	0	24	100
	Singtom	50	100	0	0	0	0	50	100
	Total	177	79	43	19	4	2	224	100

Source: Computed

However, when the two types of villages are compared there are significant variations. The foothill villages were fully (100%) electrified while electricity in the hill villages was used by less than half (46%). Majority (49%) of the households in

the hills used solar panels. A small number of households (5%) in the hills used other sources. A clear-cut difference could be observed between the two types of villages. The sources of power mentioned were the primary sources of power supply. During the field observation there were many houses that had alternative sources of power. For example, there were households that had electricity as the main source of power and at the same time kept solar panels as an alternative source.

6.2.8 Number of Rooms

The eight important components considered in the housing condition of the sample households is the number of rooms of the houses. The size of the number of rooms is classified into very small (≤ 2), Small (3 – 4), Medium (5 – 6), Large (7+). The analysis of the number of rooms are presented in Table 7.10

Table 7.10 Housing Conditions: Number of Rooms

Sl. No	Village	Number of Rooms								Total	
		Very Small (≤ 2)		Small (3 – 4)		Medium (5 – 6)		Large (7+)			
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
I	Hill Villages	30	34	27	31	24	28	6	7	87	100
	Khengjang	9	31	9	31	8	28	3	10	29	100
	L. Bongjoi	12	67	3	17	3	17	0	0	18	100
	Saibol	7	32	4	18	8	36	3	14	22	100
	Hengcham	2	11	11	61	5	28	0	0	18	100
II	Foothill Villages	26	19	32	23	50	36	29	21	137	100
	New Keiphom	6	21	8	29	11	39	3	11	28	100
	Utangpokpi	5	14	2	6	15	43	13	37	35	100
	Ukon Thingkangphai	0	0	3	13	16	67	5	21	24	100
	Singtom	15	30	19	38	8	16	8	16	50	100
	Total	56	25	59	26	74	33	35	16	224	100

Source: Computed

From the given table (7.10) it is observed that in both the villages taken together as a whole one-third of the whole sample households have medium size rooms (5-6). This was followed by small size rooms (3-4) with about a little above one-fourth (26%) of the sample households. This was closely followed by very small size rooms (≤ 2) with one-fourth the total sample households living in such houses.

The least in the list was the large rooms (7+) with one-sixth (16%) of the whole sample households living in such houses.

A comparison of the hill and foothill villages showed that the foothill villages had houses with larger numbers of rooms. The percentage of houses with large rooms (7+) in the hill villages was only seven per cent which was less than one-tenth of the sample houses in the hill villages while for the foothill villages it stood at 21 percent which was a little more than one-fifth of the sample houses in the foothill villages. A similar trend was also observed with medium size rooms (5-6). In the hill village it was only 28 per cent which was a little above one-fourth of the sample houses in the hill villages while for the foothill villages it stood at 36 per cent which was a little more than one-third of the sample houses in the foothill villages. For the rooms with small and very small sizes a higher percentage of them was concentrated in the hill villages. For the hill villages a little below one-third (31%) of the sample households lived in small size rooms (3-4) while in the foothill village the percentage stood at 23 per cent which was a little higher than one-fifth. With regards to very small size rooms (≤ 2) the number of houses in the hill villages was as high as 34 per cent which was more than one-third of the sample houses while in the foothill village it was only 19 per cent which was below one-fifth of the sample households in the foothill villages.

6.2.9 Approximate Value of the House

We have seen the housing conditions of sample households in which different components were considered and analysed. In this subsection we look at the approximate value of the sample houses calculated in rupees. It was classified into - 715667 – 343929, 343930 – 1403525 and 1403526+.

From the given table (7.11) it is observed that in both the types of villages the absolute majority (78%) of the houses consists of the value of houses below 715667 and those ranging between 715667 – 343929. In the hill villages the percentage was as high as 82 and in the foothill village it was as high as 75. A similar pattern was also observed with the number of houses with the approximate value ranging between 343930 – 1403525. As a whole 19 percent of the sample houses fall into that category. In the hill villages the percentage of houses in that category was 17 while for the foothill villages it was 20 per cent. There were only three percent of

houses that had an approximate value of 1403526+. It was one per cent in the hills and four per cent in the foothill villages.

Table 7.11 Housing Conditions: Approximate Value of the House

Sl. No	Village	Approximate Value of the House						Total		Mean	S.D
		-715667 - 343929		343930 - 1403525		1403526+					
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
I	Hill Villages	71	82	15	17	1	1	87	100	347241	1598612
	Khengjang	21	72	8	28	0	0	29	100	245690	112740
	L. Bongjoi	15	83	3	17	0	0	18	100	108889	188388
	Saibol	19	86	3	14	0	0	22	100	170227	197963
	Hengcham	16	89	1	6	1	6	18	100	965556	3507164
II	Foothill Villages	103	75	28	20	6	4	137	100	237857	235943
	New Keiphom	22	79	6	21	0	0	28	100	341825	474283
	Utangpokpi	24	69	7	20	4	11	35	100	498143	707042
	Ukon Thingkangphai	19	79	4	17	1	4	24	100	375417	527257
	Singtom	38	76	11	22	1	2	50	100	274500	295780
	Total	174	78	43	19	7	3	224	100	343929	1059597

Source: Computed

When the value of houses was compared based on the hill and foothill categories the sample houses in the foothill had higher value than that of the hills.

7.3 Housing Amenities

In this section the facilities and amenities available in the sample households are presented and discussed. The facilities and amenities available in the sample households were grouped into two – basic necessities and luxurious items. The basic necessities are grouped under Facilities and Amenities-1 while the luxurious items are grouped under Facilities and Amenities-2. From all the above indicators the Housing Quality Index was calculated.

7.3.1 Household Facilities and Amenities

This subsection deals with the facilities and amenities which are considered to be basic necessities for every household. Though there could be many necessary items or amenities for a household, the items considered for this study are furniture,

LPG, bathroom, TV, Solar Panel and battery, washing machine, fridge, fans and wash basin (Table 7.11).

Table 7.12 presents the percentages of facilities and amenities of the sample households which are considered to be basic necessities. It was observed that more than three-fifths (65%) of the whole sample households had furniture in their houses. With regards to the item there was only one percent difference between the two types of villages, i.e., 53 per cent for the hill villages and 52 per cent for the foothill villages. Next to furniture, LPG was used by the majority of households. It was observed that more than three-fifths (64%) of the whole sample households had LPG in their houses. The hills villages had a higher percentage (36%) of LPG than the foothill villages (24%).

Table 7.12 Housing Conditions: Household Facilities and Amenities

Sl. No	Village	Facilities and Amenities									
		N	Furniture	LPG	Bath room	TV	Solar Panel Battery	Washing Machine	Fans	Wash Basin	Fridge
I	Hill Villages	87	53	36	47	46	35	6	32	17	21
	Khengjang	29	62	20	24	21	90	0	36	14	0
	L. Bongjoi	18	22	15	11	17	83	0	28	17	0
	Saibol Joupri	22	55	41	41	50	18	20	7	18	20
	H. Hengcham	18	67	78	50	61	17	15	0	17	22
II	Foothill Villages	137	52	24	32	38	52	29	18	17	26
	New Keiphom	28	100	75	61	61	18	32	25	21	32
	Utangpokpi	35	86	94	77	66	23	60	66	46	51
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	82	100	88	75	10	92	71	58	54
	Singtom	50	44	84	68	50	76	56	20	30	32
	Total	224	65	64	56	51	44	42	32	29	23

Source: Computed

The third largest item found in the sample households was the bathroom. More than half (56%) of the whole sample households had a bathroom. In the hills the percentage of bathrooms was 46 per cent while in the foothill villages it was 32 per cent. TV was the fourth highest percentage (51%) found in the sample villages. The hills with 46 per cent had a higher percentage than the foothill villages with 38

per cent in the item. The fifth largest item was solar panel and battery with 44 per cent of the total households possessing the item. The foothill villages with 52 per cent had more possession of the item than the hill villages with 35 per cent. The sixth largest item was the washing machine which accounted for 42 per cent of the total households. A landslide difference could be observed here with 29 per cent in the foothill villages and only six percent in the hill villages. The seventh item was fan with 32 percent of sample households in possession of the item. Fan here is any type of fan that the households possessed. The hill villages with 32 per cent had a higher percentage in the possession than the foothill villages with 18 per cent. The second least item found was the wash basin with 29 percent. In both the types of villages 17 per cent each of the households had the item in their houses. The least item found in the sample villages was the fridge with 23 per cent. The foothill village with 26 per cent had a higher percentage than the hill villages with 21 per cent.

7.3.2 Communication and Transport Facilities

The sub-section deals with the facilities and amenities which are meant for transport and communication for a household. The items considered in this section are mobile phones, two-wheelers, jewels, four wheelers, computers and heavy vehicles in the form of bus, truck, tractor, JCB etc. (Table 7.13).

The percentages of communication and transport facilities of the sample households are presented in table 7.13. These items are considered to be luxury in nature, which means they are not part of the basic needs in the normal situation. It was observed that the absolute majority (93%) of the whole sample households had mobile phones in their houses. With regards to the item, a similar situation was observed in both the types of villages. There was only one percent difference between the two types of villages, i.e., 53 per cent for the hill villages and 52 per cent for the foothill villages. Next to mobile phones, two-wheelers were used by more than three-fifth (68%) of the households. The hill villages had a higher percentage (33%) of two-wheelers than the foothill villages (30%). Four-wheelers were the third highest item (12%) found in the sample villages. The hills with 36 percent were much less than the foothill villages with 44 per cent in the item. The fifth item was a computer with only 10 per cent of the total households possessing the item. The foothill villages with 65 per cent had more possession of the item than the hill

villages with 27 per cent. The least item found in the sample villages was heavy vehicles with only three per cent. The foothill village with 16 per cent had a higher percentage than the hill villages with only eight per cent.

Table 7.13 Housing Conditions: Communication and Transport Facilities

Sl. No	Village	N	Facilities and Amenities				
			Mobile Phone	Two-Wheeler	Four - Wheelers	Computer	Truck/ JCB Bus/Tractor
I	Hill Villages	87	53	33	36	27	8
	Khengjang	29	76	66	3	7	0
	L. Bongjoi	18	72	72	0	17	0
	Saibol	22	100	55	5	14	3
	Hengcham	18	94	56	17	0	0
II	Foothill Villages	137	52	30	44	65	16
	New Keiphom	28	96	61	18	7	0
	Utangpokpi	35	97	60	23	17	4
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	96	75	0	4	3
	Singtom	50	100	86	60	18	12
	Total	224	93	68	40	12	10

Source: Computed

Looking at the whole sample households the foothill villagers fare better in these items. Much differences are observed in four wheelers, computers and heavy vehicles.

7.3.3 Housing Quality Index

-. Housing quality index evaluates the houses not just on the cost but based on quality. The qualities include all the housing conditions that were analysed from 5.2.1.to 5.2.9. In this study the housing qualities index is categorised into Very Low (≤ -1.00000), Low (-0.9999900000), Medium ($0.00001 - 1.00000$) and High ($1.00001+$).

Table 7.14 Housing Conditions: Housing Quality Index

Sl.No	Village	Housing Quality Index								Total		Mean	SD
		Very Low (≤ -1.00000)		Low ($-.99999 - .00000$)		Medium ($.00001 - 1.00000$)		High ($1.00001+$)					
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
I	Hill Villages	14	16	45	52	21	24	7	8	87	100	-.29	.88
	Khengjang	3	10	19	66	4	14	3	10	29	100	-.32	.75
	L. Bongjoi	4	22	11	61	1	6	2	11	18	100	-.45	1.03
	Saibol	6	27	6	27	9	41	1	5	22	100	-.26	.93
	Hengcham	1	6	9	50	7	39	1	6	18	100	-.13	.89
II	Foothill Villages	8	6	58	42	45	33	26	19	137	100	.18	1.03
	New Keiphom	1	4	15	54	8	29	4	14	28	100	-.01	.79
	Utangpokpi	6	17	10	29	12	34	7	20	35	100	.18	1.38
	Ukon Thingkangphai	0	0	5	21	16	67	3	13	24	100	.48	.90
	Singtom	1	2	28	56	9	18	12	24	50	100	.15	.92
	Total	22	10	103	46	66	29	33	15	224	100	.00	1.00

Source: Computed

The Housing Quality Index of the sample households are presented in table 6.14. From the table it is observed that when the whole sample houses were considered, the majority (46%) of the houses had low ($-.99999 - .00000$) index. 29 per cent of the houses had medium housing quality index, 15 percent of the houses had high quality index and 10 percent of the houses had very-low quality index.

When comparison of the housing quality index is made on the basis of the hill and foothill villages, significant variations were observed. In the hill villages one-sixth (16%) houses had a very low-quality index while in the foothill villages below one-tenth (6%) of the houses were found to fall under the said category. In the hills more than half (52%) of the houses had low quality index while in the foothill villages a little above two-fifth (42%) had low quality index. In the hills about one-fourth (24%) of houses had medium quality index while in the foothill area one-third (33%) of the houses had medium quality index. In the hills the houses having high quality index was below one-tenth (8%) while in the foothill villages it was nearly one-fifth (18%), double of the hill's quality index.

From the analysis of the table, it is clearly observed that the foothill villages have better housing quality index when compared to the hill villages. The standard deviation of the housing quality index of the hills and foothill villages stood at 1.00.

7.4 Community Satisfaction

The Oxford Dictionary (2011) defined Satisfaction as a fulfilment of one's wishes, expectations, or needs, or the pleasure derived from this. As given by Matarrita-Cascante (2009) community satisfaction in simple terms means people's subjective evaluation of their well-being as measured by how well their community meets their needs.

Community satisfaction is a subjective indicator of community development. It was studied by using a measure that provides a rating of the services provided in the community. The ratings for every service (variable) were classified as very high, high, moderate, low and very low. The different types of services studied were drainage, solid waste management, employment opportunities, water supply, health care, road, transport, education, safety and security, banking, post office, care and support, peace in the community, telephone, interpersonal relations, market and electricity.

The subjective indicator, community satisfaction was divided into two dimensions based on its relevance in the current study. The first dimension consists of basic needs such as electricity, water supply, education, and health care. These services can be grouped as services that provide basic needs. The second dimension consists of secondary needs: transport, solid waste management, safety and security, care and support and interpersonal relations. These are services that cater to the secondary needs of men.

The analysis of community satisfaction is presented in table 6.15. From the given table it was found that there were some differences in the type of villages and their two dimensions. With regards to community satisfaction on primary services the satisfaction was higher in the hill villages with a mean score of 3.9 than the foothill svillages with a mean score of 2.4.

Table 7.15 Community Satisfaction

Sl.No	Type of Village / Village	N	Community Satisfaction primary services		Community Satisfaction on secondary services	
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD
I	Hill Village	87	3.9	0.5	2.4	0.5
	Khengjang	29	4.3	0.4	2.6	0.5
	L. Bongjoi	18	4.1	0.3	2.4	0.5
	Saibol Joupj	22	1.9	0.3	2.8	0.6
	H. Hengcham	18	3.0	0.6	3.7	0.6
II	Foothill Village	137	2.4	0.6	2.8	0.8
	New Keiphom	28	2.9	0.4	3.4	0.6
	Utangpokpi	35	2.3	0.5	2.5	0.5
	Ukon Thingkangphai	24	2.2	0.3	2.0	0.3
	Singtom	50	3.3	0.7	2.2	0.3
	Total	224	3.0	0.9	2.6	0.7

Source: Computed

Within the hill villages Khengjang village with a mean score of 4.3 had the highest rate of satisfaction, followed by L. Bongjoi village with a mean score of 4.1. Next in the line was H. Hengcham with a mean score of 3.0 and the lowest satisfaction mean score with 1.9 was Saibol Joupj village. Among the foothill villages satisfaction was highest in Singtom village with a mean score of 3.3 followed by New Keiphom village with 2.9. The third in the line was Utangpokpi village with a mean score of 2.3 and Ukon Thingkangphai had the lowest rate of community satisfaction.

With regards to community satisfaction on secondary services the satisfaction level was higher among the foothill villages (2.8) than the hill villages with 2.4 mean score of satisfaction.

Among the hill villages H. Hengcham village had the highest level of satisfaction with a mean score of 3.7 followed by Saibol Joupj with a mean score of 2.8. The third in the line was Khengjang village with 2.4 mean score and the lowest satisfaction was recorded for L. Bongjoi with 2.4 mean score. Among the foothill villages, New Keiphom village with a mean score of 3.4 had the highest level of

satisfaction with regards to the second dimension (secondary services). It is followed by Utangpokpi village with 2.5 mean score. The third in the line was Singtom village with 2.2 mean score and Ukon Thingkangphai recorded the lowest in community satisfaction 02

7.5. Differences in Objective and Subjective Community Development

The differences in Objective and Subjective Measures Community Development across the types of villages using the 't' test are presented in table 6.16. The objective measures of social capital considered in the present study are Per Capita Monthly Income, Per Capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index, Household Amenities Index. The subjective measure considered was community satisfaction. The subjective indicator community satisfaction was found to have two dimensions. The first dimension can be called primary service satisfaction as it consists of electricity, water supply, education, and health care. The second dimension consists of transport, solid waste management, safety and security, care and support and interpersonal relations which may be called secondary service satisfaction.

In all the objective measures of community there are significant differences between the hill and foothill villages. In terms of all these objective indicators, the foot hill villages have significantly greater community development as compared to the hill villages. The t values of the objective indicators of community development viz., per-capita Monthly Income (2.5), Housing Condition Index (3.3), Household Amenities Index (8.4) were significant at 1 percent level while that of Per capita Monthly Expenditure (2.0), was significant at 5 percent level. The mean per-capita Monthly Income of the foothill village (Rs 9357) was higher than that of the hill villages (Rs 4042). The mean per-capita Monthly Expenditure score (Rs 8278) was higher for the foothill villages than the hill villages (Rs 6658). The mean Housing Condition Index (0.67) was higher in the foothill villages than that of hill villages (0.62). Similarly, the mean Household Amenities Index in the foothill villages (0.50) was higher than that of the hill villages (0.28).

Table 7.16 Objective and Subjective Measures Community Development

Sl. No	Measures	Type of Village				‘t’
		Hill Village		Foothill Village		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	Per Capita Monthly Income	4042	4039	9357	19467	2.5**
2	Per capita Monthly Expenditure	6658	4982	8278	6400	2.0*
3	Housing Condition Index	.62	.09	.67	.13	3.3**
4	Household Amenities Index	.28	.18	.50	.19	8.4**
5	Primary Community Service Satisfaction	3.92	.49	2.42	.59	19.6* *
6	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction	2.39	.46	2.76	.79	4.0**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.0

In terms of the subjective measures of community development too there are significant differences between the foothills and hills villages. The t values of the primary (19.6) and secondary (19.6) community service satisfaction were significant at 1 percent level. The primary community service satisfaction, the hill villages (3.92) are better than the foothill villages (2.42). However, in the secondary community service satisfaction the foothill villages (2.76) are higher than those in the hill villages (2.39).

7.6 Relationship Between Objective and Subjective Dimensions of CD

Two sets of indicators are used to assess the community development in the present study. They are objective and subjective in nature respectively. How are the objective and subjective indicators related? is a question to be addressed. The objective indicators of community development are Per-capita Monthly Income, Per-capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index and Household Amenities Index while two dimensions of community satisfaction viz. The primary community service satisfaction and secondary community services satisfaction constitute the subjective indicators of community development. To study the interrelationship

among these six indicators, Karl Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were used. Table 7.17 presents the zero-order correlation coefficient matrix.

Table 7.17 Relationship between Indicators of Community Development at Household Level: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl.No	Indicator	PMI	PME	HCI	HAI	PCSS	SCSS
1	Per Capita Monthly Income (PMI)	1	.431**	.179**	.303**	-.222**	-.170*
2	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure (PME)	.431**	1	.396**	.573**	-.255**	-.414**
3	Housing Condition Index (HCI)	.179**	.396**	1	.611**	-.213**	-.172**
4	Household Amenities Index (HAI)	.303**	.573**	.611**	1	-.496**	-.173**
5	Primary Community Service Satisfaction (PCSS)	-.222**	-.255**	-.213**	-.496**	1	.135*
6	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (SCSS)	-.170*	-.414**	-.172**	-.173**	.135*	1

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The correlational analysis of objective and subjective indicators of community development at the household level is presented in table 7.17. The analysis shows that there is internal convergence between indicators within the objective and subjective dimensions of community development as expected. The strength of the relationship between the indicators of objective dimension of community development is stronger while it is weak between the subjective indicators. From the analysis it could be observed that per-capita monthly income had a significant positive relation with per-capita monthly expenditure (.431), housing condition index (.197), and household amenities index (.741) at 1 percent level. Per-capita monthly expenditure had significant and positive relations with the housing condition index (.396) Household Amenities Index (.573) at 1 percent level.

Similarly, the two indicators of housing conditions index and household amenities index (.611) have significant and positive relationships between them at 1 percent level. Likewise, between the two dimensions of community satisfaction viz., the primary community service satisfaction and secondary community service satisfaction (.135) there is significant and positive relationship.

Against the expectation there is divergence between the objective and subjective dimensions of community development. There are significant and negative relationships between the objective and subjective indicators of community development. The correlation coefficients of Per Capita Monthly Expenditure with Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.213) and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.285) were negative and significant at 1 percent level. Similarly, the Housing Condition Index is negatively related to Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.213) and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.172). Further, the Household Amenities Index is also significantly negatively related to Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.213) and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.173).

The correlational analysis of objective and subjective indicators of community development shows that there is internal convergence between indicators within the objective and subjective dimensions of community development as expected. The strength of the relationship between the indicators of objective dimension of community development is stronger while it is weak between the subjective indicators. From the table 6.18 it could be observed that per-capita monthly income had a significant positive relation with per-capita monthly expenditure (.937) at 1 percent level and household amenities index (.741) at 5 percent level. But it had no significance with the housing condition index (.638). Per-capita monthly expenditure had significant and positive relations with the housing condition index (.791) Household Amenities Index (.741) at 5 percent level. Similarly, the two indicators of housing conditions index and household amenities index (.781) have significant and positive relationships between them at 5 percent level. Likewise, between the two dimensions of community satisfaction viz., the

primary community service satisfaction and secondary community service satisfaction (.-.025) there is no significant relationship among them.

Table 7.18 Relationship between Indicators of Community Development at Village Level: Pearson's r
N = 8

Sl.No	Indicator	PMI	PME	HCI	HAI	PCSS	SCSS
1	Per Capita Monthly Income (PMI)	1	.937**	.638	.741*	-.483	-.459
2	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure (PME)	.937**	1	.791*	.741*	-.383	-.646
3	Housing Condition Index (HCI)	.638	.791*	1	.781*	-.379	-.663
4	Household Amenities Index (HAI)	.741*	.741*	.781*	1	-.786*	-.225
5	Primary Community Service Satisfaction (PCSS)	-.483	-.383	-.379	-.786*	1	-.025
6	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (SCSS)	-.459	-.646	-.663	-.225	-.025	1

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

Contrary to the expectation there is divergence between the objective and subjective dimensions of community development. There are negative relationships between the objective and subjective indicators of community development but they are not significant. The correlation coefficients of Per Capita Monthly Expenditure with Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.483) and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.459) were negative but no significance found between them. Similarly, the Housing Condition Index is negatively related to Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.379) and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.663). The Household Amenities Index is significantly and negatively related to Primary Community Service Satisfaction (-.786) at 5 percent level but not significant with Secondary Community Service Satisfaction (-.225).

The chapter discussed in detail various aspects of rural community development based on living conditions, housing conditions and community satisfaction. It throws light on the different patterns and levels of rural development from a community development perspective. The detailed analyses of the components were made with the aim to bring out a clear understanding on the differences on rural development comparing the hill and foothill villages. In terms of living conditions and housing conditions significant differences were found between the hill and foothill villages wherein the foothill villages were seen to have a much higher level in the two indicators of development. However, in terms of satisfaction over community services no significant difference was found between the two types of villages. Nevertheless, from the analysis of the whole chapter, it is quite safe to say that the foothill villages fare better in terms of development.

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIAL CAPITAL AND RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In the last two chapters the results of the analysis of the objective and subjective aspects of community development and social capital were discussed in detail. This chapter attempts to discuss the relationship between the measures of social capital and dimensions of rural development.

The chapter is presented in terms of three sections. The first section presents the results of correlational analysis between the inductive measures of social capital and the indicators of community development. The second section presents the discussion on the relationship between inductive measures of social capital and rural community development. In the third section, the patterns of the relationship between civic measures of social capital and community development are discussed.

8.1 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Community Development

Social capital is analysed using inductive, deductive, and civic measures. Rural community development is measured in terms of objective and subjective indicators. The objective indicators include the living and housing conditions while the subjective dimension include the community service satisfaction. This section presents discussion on the relations between inductive measures of social capital and community development. It is presented in terms of two subsections, the relationship of inductive measure with objective and subjective indicators of community separately.

8.1.1 Inductive Measures and Objective Indicators of Community Development

To assess the relationship between inductive measure of social capital with that of objective indicators of community development the help of Karl Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients was used. The assessments were done both at the household level as well as community level (see Table 8.1 and 8.2). The inductive measures include access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions, proximity to low social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital, and utilisation of low prestige social capital. The objective indicators include living conditions and housing conditions. The relationship is analysed at both the household and community levels.

**Table 8.1 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of
Community Development: Pearson's r**

N = 224

SI.No	Inductive Measures	Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Access to high prestige social capital	.006	.101	.187**	.408**
2	Access to low prestige Social Capital	.254**	.472**	.437**	.510**
3	Proximity to high prestige Social Positions	-.072	-.045	.060	.185**
4	Proximity to low prestige Social Positions	.213**	.459**	.308**	.517**
5	Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital	-.031	.056	.170*	.322**
6	Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	.229**	.271**	.309**	.518**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The correlation analysis of inductive measures and objective indicators of development at the household level show a differential pattern of relationship between the high and low prestige social capital with the objective indicators of community development. Access, proximity and utilization of high prestige social capital, had no significant relations with the indicators of living conditions viz., per-capita monthly income and per-capita monthly expenditure. However, access, proximity and utilisation of social capital have a significant positive relationship with household amenities index. On the other hand, access to, proximity to and utilisation of low prestige social capital, had significant positive relations with all the objective indicators of community development. The relationship is positive for both the indicators of living conditions and housing conditions (see Table 8.1).

**Table 8.2 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of
Community Development: Pearson's r**

N = 8

Sl.No	Inductive Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Access to High Prestige Social Capital	.147	.151	.183	.601
2	Access to Low Prestige Social Capital 02	.962**	.925**	.651	.733*
3	Proximity to High Prestige Social Positions	-.248	-.227	-.125	.229
4	Proximity to Low Prestige Social Positions	.964**	.925**	.733*	.874**
5	Utilisation of High Prestige Social Capital	-.337	-.349	-.105	.154
6	Utilisation of Low Prestige Social Capital	.778*	.713*	.687	.968**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

The correlational analysis of inductive measures of social capital and objective measures of social capital at community level by and large shows similar results as that of household level. The access and proximity to and utilisation of high prestige social capital has no significant bearing on the living condition indicators (per capita monthly income and precipitate monthly expenditure) and housing indicators (housing conditions index and household amenities index). On the other hand, the access to, proximity of and utilisation of low prestige social capital has significant and positive relationship with both the types of objective indicators viz., living conditions and housing conditions (see table 8.2).

8.1.2 Inductive Measures and Subjective Community Development

The relationship Between Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development at household is analysed with the help of Pearson's correlation coefficients (see Table 8.3). The subjective indicator is

drawn from the findings of the result drawn from the analysis of the community satisfaction.

Out of 15 components considered for measurement of community satisfaction five characteristics that did not have significant relevance were removed. The rest (10 components) were subdivided into two dimensions viz. Primary Community Service Satisfaction and Secondary Community Service Satisfaction. The first dimension - community satisfaction on primary services, consists of three components - electricity, water supply, education, and health care. The second dimension- Secondary Community Service Satisfaction, includes transport, solid waste management, peace in the community, safety and security, care and support and interpersonal relations.

Table 8.3 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl. No	Inductive Measures	Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Access to high prestige social capital	-.069	.108
2	Access to low prestige social capital	-.297**	-.299**
3	Proximity to high social Positions	.089	.164*
4	Proximity to low social positions	-.328**	-.275**
5	Utilisation of high prestige social capital	.104	.125
6	Utilisation of low prestige social capital	-.381**	-.073
7	Community Participation	.082	-.023
8	Community Activism	-.078	.013

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

From the given table (Table 8.3) it is observed that access to high prestige social capital had a negative impact on primary community service satisfaction (-

.069) and positive impact on secondary community service satisfaction (.108). However, there was no significant impact seen on both the components. Access to low prestige social capital had a negatively significant impact on both the dimensions (-.297 and -.299) of subjective indicators of community development at 1 percent level significance.

Proximity to high social Positions had no significant relations with primary community service satisfaction (.089) while it had significant relations with secondary community service satisfaction (.164) at 5 percent level. Proximity to low social positions had negatively significant relations with both the dimensions of subjective indicators of community development (-.328 and -.275) with significance value of 1 percent level.

Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital had no significant relations with both the dimensions (.104 and .125). Utilisation of low prestige social capital had significant negative relations with satisfaction on primary services (-.381) significant at 1 percent level. It also had negative relations with satisfaction on secondary services but the relationship is not significant.

The first civic measures of social capital i.e., community participation had a positive relationship with primary community service satisfaction (.082) while having negative impact on secondary community service satisfaction (-.023). But no significance was found among them. Community activism had negative relations with the satisfaction on primary community services (-.078) and positive relations with satisfaction on secondary community services (.013). However, no significance was found among them.

The overall observation shows that though limited significance was found, inductive measures of social capital tend to have more negative impact than positive impact on both the subjective indicators of community development.

8.1.3 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of CD

The following table (Table 8.4) presents the relationships between inductive measures of social capital and subjective indicators of community development tested through Pearson's r . The analysis is made at the community (village) level taking the total sample villages (N=8).

Table 8.4 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of CD:**Pearson's r****N = 8**

Sl.No	Inductive Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Percapita Monthly Income	Percapita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Access to high prestige social capital	.147	.151	.183	.601
2	Access to low prestige social capital	.962**	.925**	.651	.733*
3	Proximity to high social Positions	-.248	-.227	-.125	.229
4	Proximity to low social Positions	.964**	.925**	.733*	.874**
5	Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital	-.337	-.349	-.105	.154
6	Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	.778*	.713*	.687	.968**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

From the given table (Table 8.4) it is observed that access to high prestige social capital has no significant relations with any of the objective indicators of community development. Access to low prestige social capital had significant positive relations with per-capita monthly income (.962) and per-capita monthly expenditure (.925) 1 percent level and with household amenities (.733) at 5 percent level, but no significant relations with housing condition index (.651).

Proximity to high social positions had no significant relations with any of the objective indicators of community development. However, the relationship was observed to be more negatively inclined. Proximity to low social Positions had significant relations with per-capita monthly income, per-capita monthly expenditure and household amenities at 1 percent level and with housing condition index at 5 percent level.

Utilisation of high prestige social capital had no significant relations had no significant relations with any of the objective indicators of community development. However, the relationship was observed to be more negatively inclined. Utilisation of

low prestige social capital had significant relations with per-capita monthly income and per-capita monthly at 1 percent level, with household amenities at 5 percent level and no significant relations with housing condition index.

The overall observation showed that the relations between inductive measures of social capital and objective indicators of community development positively inclined and significant relations were observed with two-tenth (41%) of the dimensions.

8.1.4 Inductive Measures and Subjective Indicators of Community Development

The relationship between inductive measures of social capital and subjective indicators of community development at the household and community levels was assessed with the help of Pearson's correlation coefficients (Table 8.5 and Table 8.6). The inductive measures include access to high prestige social capital, access to low prestige social capital, proximity to high prestige social positions, proximity to low social positions, utilisation of high prestige social capital, and utilisation of low prestige social capital. The subjective measures include the dimensions of satisfaction on primary community service and secondary community service.

Table 8.5 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl. No	Inductive Measure	Subjective Indicators	
		Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Access to high prestige social capital	-.069	.108
2	Access to low prestige social capital	-.297**	-.299**
3	Proximity to high social Positions	.089	.164*
4	Proximity to low social Positions	-.328**	-.275**
5	Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital	.104	.125
6	Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	-.381**	-.073

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

The analysis of relationship with correlation coefficients between the inductive measures and community satisfaction at household level shows that the access to, proximity to and utilisation of high prestige has no bearing on the primary and secondary community service satisfaction. However, there was a significant negative relationship between access, proximity and utilisation of social capital on the one hand and primary as well as secondary community service satisfaction on the other (see table 8.5).

Table 8.6 Inductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 8

Sl. No	Inductive Measure	Subjective Indicator	
		Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Access to high prestige social capital	-.508	.292
2	Access to low prestige social capital	-.459	-.379
3	Proximity to high social Positions	-.163	.511
4	Proximity to low social Positions	-.617	-.450
5	Utilisation of high prestige Social Capital	-.012	.599
6	Utilisation of low prestige Social Capital	-.856**	-.145

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

At the community level, the pattern of relationship between the inductive measures of social capital and subjective aspects of community development is different. Both the high and low prestige social capital measures were not having significant relationship with the subjective indicators of community development though were negative with both the primary and secondary community service satisfaction and only utilisation of low prestige social capital had a significant relationship with primary community service satisfaction (see table 8.6)

8.2 Deductive Measures and Community Development

This section presents the discussion on the results of the analysis of the relationship between deductive measures of social capital and objective and

subjective dimensions of community development. The relationship between the measures is analysed at the household and community levels. Community development is seen from both the objective and subjective indicators.

8.2.1 Deductive Measures and Objective Community Development

Household level analysis of the relationship between the deductive measures of access to social capital and objective indicators of community development show that the measures of access to social capital viz., Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed and Number of Positions Accessed have significant and positive relationship with Per Capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index and Household Amenities Index. though Total Prestige Accessed does not have any significant relationship with these objective indicators of community development. None of the deductive measures of access to social capital have significantly related to per capita monthly income, an important indicator of living conditions (Table 8.7).

Table 8.7 Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl. No	Deductive Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Maximum Prestige Accessed	.022	.162*	.267**	.431**
2	Range of Prestige Accessed	.032	.229**	.202**	.332**
3	Average Prestige Accessed	.023	.163*	.268**	.432**
4	Total Prestige Accessed	.001	.099	.077	.108
5	Number of Positions Accessed	.054	.171*	.225**	.383**
6	Maximum Prestige Utilised	.056	.166*	.290**	.458**
7	Range of Prestige Utilised	.072	.189**	.262**	.462**
8	Average Prestige Utilised	.057	.167*	.291**	.459**
9	Total Prestige Utilised	.005	.158*	.170*	.231**
10	Number of Positions Utilised	.042	.155*	.238**	.364**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The pattern of correlation between the deductive measures of utilisation of social capital and objective indicators of community development shows a similar

picture as that of their relationship with access to social capital. All the deductive measures of utilisation of social capital viz., Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, and Number of Positions Accessed have significant and positive relationship with Per Capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index and Household Amenities Index. though their relationship with per capita household income is not significant (Table 8.7).

Table 8.8 Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 8

Sl. No.	Deductive Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Maximum Prestige Accessed	.419	.452	.170	.468
2	Range of Prestige Accessed	.430	.458	.174	.459
3	Average Prestige Accessed	.145	.151	.096	.541
4	Total Prestige Accessed	.143	.151	.102	.544
5	Number of Positions Accessed	.240	.238	.213	.656
6	Maximum Prestige Utilised	.412	.360	.236	.685
7	Range of Prestige Utilised	.412	.355	.226	.679
8	Average Prestige Utilised	.077	.087	.275	.620
9	Total Prestige Utilised	.094	.100	.272	.630
10	Number of Positions Utilised	.157	.148	.335	.687

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

The community level analysis of the relationship between the deductive measures of access to and utilisation of social capital on the one hand and objective indicators of community development on the other shows a different picture. None of the deductive measures of access and utilisation of social capital viz., Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, and Number of Positions Accessed have any significant

relationship with the objective indicators of community development viz., per capita household income, Per Capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index and Household Amenities Index (see Table 8.8).

8.2.2 Deductive Measures and Subjective Community Development

The relationship between the deductive measures and subjective indicators of community development at the household level are analysed and presented in the table 8.8.

The correlational analysis of the relationship between the deductive measures of access to and utilisation of social capital shows that most of the deductive measures of social capital did not have significant relationship with the subjective indicators of community development (Table 8.8).

Table 8.9 Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl. No	Deductive Measure	Subjective Indicators	
		Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Maximum Prestige Accessed	-.052	.018
2	Range of Prestige Accessed	-.154*	.006
3	Average Prestige Accessed	-.053	.018
4	Total Prestige Accessed	.091	-.091
5	Number of Positions Accessed	-.130	.066
6	Maximum Prestige Utilised	-.048	.036
7	Range of Prestige Utilised	-.179**	.049
8	Average Prestige Utilised	-.049	.036
9	Total Prestige Utilised	.096	-.226**
10	Number of Positions Utilised	-.033	-.227**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

Maximum Prestige Accessed did not yield any significant relations with primary community service satisfaction (-.052) and secondary community service

satisfaction (.018). However, a negative impact on primary community service satisfaction was observed. Range of prestige access had a negatively significant relationship with the primary community service satisfaction (-.154) at 5 percent level while it had no significant relations with the secondary community service satisfaction (.006). Average prestige accessed did not have any significant relations with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, a negative impact was observed with primary community service satisfaction (-.053). Total prestige accessed did not have any significant relations with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, it was positively inclined with primary services satisfaction (.091) and negatively inclined with secondary community service satisfaction (-.091). Number of positions accessed did not have any significant relations with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, it was negatively inclined with primary services satisfaction (-.130) and positively inclined with secondary community service satisfaction (.066).

Maximum prestige utilised did not have any not have any significant relations with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, a negative impact was observed with primary community service satisfaction (-.048) and positively incline with secondary services (.036). Range of prestige utilised had negatively significant relations with the primary community service satisfaction (-.179) at 1 percent level but did not have any significant relations with the secondary community service satisfaction (.049). Average prestige utilised did not have any significant relations with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, a negative impact was observed with primary community service satisfaction (-.049). Total Prestige Utilised had no significant relation with the primary community service satisfaction (.096) but had negatively significant relations with the secondary community service satisfaction (-.226) at 1 percent level. Number of positions utilised did not have any significant relation relations with primary community service satisfaction (-.033) but it did have significant relation with secondary community service satisfaction (-.227) at 1 percent level significance. Both measures had a negative impact on both the dimensions of subjective indicators of community development.

Table 8.10 Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 8

SI. No	Deductive Measure	Subjective Indicator	
		Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Minimum Prestige Accessed	.022	.296
2	Maximum Prestige Accessed	-.377	.144
3	Range of Prestige Accessed	-.379	.123
4	Average Prestige Accessed	-.469	.376
5	SD Prestige Accessed	-.451	.214
6	Total Prestige Accessed	-.468	.376
7	Number of Positions Accessed	-.542	.345
8	Minimum Prestige Utilised	.139	-.346
9	Maximum Prestige Utilised	-.641	.389
10	Range of Prestige Utilised	-.644	.396
11	Average Prestige Utilised	-.444	.444
12	SD Prestige Utilised	-.639	.410
13	Total Prestige Utilised	-.457	.444
14	Number of Positions Utilised	-.512	.415

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

The relationship between deductive measures of social capital and subjective indicators of community development using Pearson's r is analysed and presented in table 8.10

Minimum Prestige Utilised had no significant relationships with any of the subjective indicators of community development. However, it was negatively inclining with Secondary Community Service Satisfaction.

Maximum Prestige Utilised had no significant relationship with both subjective indicators of community development. However, it had a negative impact on Primary Community Service Satisfaction. The same patterns were observed with

the case of Range of Prestige Utilised, Average Prestige Utilised, SD Prestige Utilised, Total Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised.

8.3 Civic Measures of Social Capital and Community Development

The section presents the discussion on the results of the correlational analysis of civic measures of social capital and community development. Civic measures of social capital include community participation and community activism while the community development aspect is seen both from the objective and subjective indicators.

8.3.1 Civic Measures and Objective Indicators of Community Development

The relationship between civic measures of social capital viz. Community Participation and Community Activism and Objective Indicators of Community Development Viz. Per-Capita Monthly Income, Per-Capita Monthly Expenditure, Housing Condition Index and Household Amenities Index, were tested through Pearson's r. The analysis was done at the household and community levels.

Table 8.11 Civic Measures and Objective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 8

Sl. No	Civic Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Community Participation	.191	.422	.293	.095
2	Community Activism	.351	.559	.788*	.679

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

At the community level, community participation had no significant relationship with the objective indicators of community development such as per capita monthly income, per capita monthly expenditure, housing index and household amenities index. Similarly, community activism had no significant relationship between per capita monthly income, per capita monthly expenditure and household amenities index. However, community activism has significantly positively related to the housing condition index. Thus, the civic measures of social

capital have no significant bearing on the types of objective indicators viz. living conditions and housing conditions at community level (see table 8.11).

Table 8.12 Civic Measures and Objective Indicators of Community

Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

Sl.No	Civic Measure	Objective Indicator			
		Per Capita Monthly Income	Per Capita Monthly Expenditure	Housing Condition Index	Household Amenities Index
1	Community Participation	.005	.158*	.170*	.231**
2	Community Activism	.042	.155*	.238**	.364**

Source: Computed

** P < 0.01

* P < 0.05

The correlation analysis between the civic measures of social capital and objective indicators of community development at household level shows significant and positive relationships between them. Both civic measures of social capital such as community participation and community activism have significant and positive relationships with per capita monthly expenditure, housing condition index and household amenities index at household level. Yet the relationship between the civic measures of community participation and community activism has no significant relationship with the per capita income indicator of community development (see table 8.12).

8.3.2 Community Participation and Subjective Community Development

The relationship between civic measures of social capital viz. Community Participation and Community Activism and Subjective Indicators of Community Development Viz. Community Satisfaction is probed with the help of Pearson's correlation coefficients. The subjective indicator had two dimensions: primary services and secondary service satisfaction. The analysis was done at the community and household levels (see Table 8.13).

Table 8.13 Community Participation and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 8

SI. No	Dimensions	Subjective Indicator	
		Community Satisfaction on Primary Services	Community Satisfaction on Secondary Services
1	Community Participation	.054	-.335
2	Community Activism	-.440	-.593

Source: Computed ** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The community level correlational analysis of civic and subjective measures shows that both civic measures of social capital viz. Community participation and community activism had no significant relationship with both the subjective indicators of community development viz., primary and secondary community service satisfaction. (Table 8.13).

Table 8.14 Civic Measures and Subjective Indicators of Community Development: Pearson's r

N = 224

SI.No	Civic Measure	Primary Community Service Satisfaction	Secondary Community Service Satisfaction
1	Community Participation	.096	-.226**
2	Community Activism	-.033	-.227**

Source: Computed ** P < 0.01 * P < 0.05

The correlation analysis of civic measures of social capital and subjective satisfaction of community services at household level shows that the no significant relationship between civic measures and primary service satisfaction on the one hand and significant and negative relationship with the secondary service satisfaction. The community participation and community activism have no significant relationship

with primary community service satisfaction while having significant negative relationship with secondary community service satisfaction (see table 8.14).

In this chapter an attempt has been made to discuss the results of analysis of the relationship between the deductive and inductive measures of access proximity and utilisation of social capital on the one hand and the indicators of community development which are objective and subjective in nature. In the next chapter, the summary of the finding of this study, conclusion and suggestions are presented.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

The present study aims at probing into the bearing of social capital on rural development in the tribal villages of Chandel District, Manipur. Social capital was assessed in terms of inductive, deductive and civic measures. Using position generator instrument access, proximity and utilisation of social capital was assessed at household and community levels. Rural development was assessed in terms of objective and subjective indicators of community development.

The results of the analysis of the quantitative data collected for the study have been discussed in the previous chapters. The present one attempts to summarise the major findings that have emerged from the analysis and also present the conclusion and implication of the study. This chapter is presented in three major sections. The first section presents the salient findings of the study. In the second section, the conclusion of the present study is presented. The third section presents the implication of the study for social work and policy advocacy.

9.1. Summary of the Findings

The summary of the major findings is presented into three sub-sections. The first sub-section is devoted to describing the major findings on physical and temporal features of sample villages. The second subsection presents the findings on the structural bases of the sample households of the studied population. In the third-subsection the major findings on living conditions, housing conditions and amenities of the households of the studied population are presented. The fourth subsection deals with a summary of the findings of the structure of social networks of the studied population. The fifth subsection presents the inductive and deductive measures drawn from the analysis of the study.

9.1.1 Physical and Temporal Features of the Sample Villages

Communities live in space and time. This section presents the summary findings of the physical and temporal features of sample villages. The data on these features were collected through Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). It includes the historical timeline of the villages and also the physical and social resources available in the villages.

It was that in terms of basic services, which includes health care, education, transportation, bank, community hall, recreational centres and power supply, there were many differences found between the types of villages. With regards to health care, though all the villages have ASHA and Anganwadi Centres, other health care services like Primary Health Centre, Community Health Centre and other important services related to health are not available in the hill villages. The foothill villages have relatively better access to these services. Primary schools are available in all the villages but one in Hill village and one in the Foothill village. However, access to Higher education (High School and above) shows differences with the foothill villages having better access to these institutions. Transport service is another area where differences were found. All the foothill villages were connected with all weathered road blacktop roads and easily connected with public transport which is not the case in hill villages. The foothill villages have better access to banking services, police stations and markets.

The social and religious life of the villages have been affected by seasonal seasonality. In the hills the village becomes lively in the months of December and January when cultivators take rest from their cultivation and students and their parents return to villages for Christmas celebration. In some hill villages, during peak days of cultivation, even Sunday church services had to be skipped due to the villagers engaging themselves in cultivation in the fields. However, in the foothills all social and religious activities moves consistently throughout the year.

All the sample villages were affected by the Kuki-Naga ethnic conflicts of the early 1990s. In addition to the untoward happening, the hill villages faced another unrest due to the high handedness of the valley-based Meitei insurgent groups from 2005-2009. The incident resulted in deserting of villages by all the hill villages and shifting of village location by one village viz. Saibol Joui. The overall assessment shows that the foothill villages have relatively better access to basic services.

9.1.2. Community Composition of the Sample Villages

This sub-section presents the major findings on demographics structure, social structure, and economic composition. The demographic composition includes age group, gender, marital status, education of adults and family profile. Results on

the analysis of the demographic composition indicates that though some profiles from both the hills and foothill villagers are by and large similar, there were also some significant differences found between the two types of villages.

The first demographic profile studied was age group. Similar pattern existed both in the hill and foothill village where the majority was children, followed by the young age group, middle age groups, adolescents, and the elderly group. The next variable taken into consideration was gender distribution where each gender was represented fairly dividing the population almost into halves.

With regards to marital status unmarried groups were the highest, followed by the married category. The Divorce rate was minimal (only one percent in the foothills) while the rate of widow/widower was surprisingly high in both the types of villages. Education of adults was the fourth demographic component studied. Significant difference was observed between the two types of villages with the foothill villages having much higher educational status than the hill villages. The hill villages had more concentration on the lower levels of education while the foothill villagers were more on the higher levels of education.

The second component studied under demographic profile was the familial structure of the sample households. With regards to the type of family, a similar pattern was observed in both the hill and foothill villages where most of them belong to the nuclear type of family, followed by the joint family and an insignificant number of single families. The size of family also showed a similar pattern in both the types of villages with the majority having medium size family, followed by large family, small family, and large size family. There were significant differences observed with regards to small and large families where in the foothill villages have more small size families (19 percent) than the hill villages (16 percent) and on the other hand the hill villages had more concentration of large families (34 percent) than the foothill villages (19 per cent). With regards to the form of family, the absolute majority of the sample households had a stable family.

The social structure bases of the sample households were studied based on tribe and denomination. The hill villages are homogenous with the Kuki... Significant difference was observed with the Thadou-Kuki tribe dominating the hill

villages while there was equal distribution of Thadou-Kuki, Vaiphei and Zou in the foothill villages. With regards to denomination absolute majority in both the types of villages belonged to Catholic denomination. Other denominations found in the sample villages were Presbyterians and Kuki Christian Church.

The economic composition was studied under three characteristics. They are dependency, occupation, and land ownership. In both the types of villages the dependency rate was higher than the earners. When compared between the two types of villages the dependency in the foothill villages was much higher than the hills villages. The high percentages of children and youths engaging education and allied activities in the foothill villages is believed to be one of the reasons for the high dependency rate in the foothill villages. The proximity to access to the basic service and institution have given them more opportunity to access them.

With regards to primary occupation some difference could be observed. The hill villages have a high concentration of cultivators; the foothill villages had concentrated more on all other occupations such as skilled labourers, government jobs and petty business. However, with regards to secondary occupation a similar pattern was observed in both the types of villages with absolute majority did not having secondary occupations. There was some concentration on wage labourers and insignificant concentration on other occupations such as skilled labourers, cultivators and business.

The pattern of land ownership showed differences between the two types of villages. While most of the sample households did not have land of their own, a good percentage of households have private lands both with patta and without patta. The number of households having land with patta and land without patta was much higher among the foothill villages than that of the hill villages. This of course is much expected as the foothill villages are located near to the valley where wetland paddy fields with pattas are more easily accessible to them. Land ownership among the sample villages is a great concern for researchers and social activists as the land holding system, especially in the hill villages, as the system makes the villagers vulnerable in different ways.

9.1.3. Social Capital and Community Participation

Social capital was measured using Nan Lin's (1986) resources theory and civic engagement theory of Putnam (1993). Social capital was measured using inductive and deductive measures and civic measures of social capital. The different deductive measures are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, Number of Positions Accessed, Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised, Average Prestige Utilised, Total Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised. The different inductive measures are Access to High Prestige Social Capital, Access to Low Prestige Social Capital, Proximity to High Prestige Social Positions, Proximity to low social positions, Utilisation of High Prestige Social Capital, Utilisation of Low Prestige Social Capital. The civic measures of social capital are community participation and community activism.

Among the positions accessed by the respondents it was found that positions located locally and familiar to the respondents were likely to get a higher access rate while the occupations which are located in a distance or not familiar to the respondents are found to get a lower rate of access. Occupations such as nurse/ASHA, shop owners, carpenters, etc got higher rate of access while lawyer, social welfare officers, district agriculture officers were at the lowest rung of the social capital access table. This is similar to the finding of van der Gaag et al (2008) in their similar study of the Dutch populations (1004 respondents) in the Netherlands where they found that there is no relation between the prestige of occupation and the overall popularity of the occupations.

Proximity to social positions was examined through four relationships Viz. family, kinship, friends, and acquaintances which represent the three types of social capital viz. bonding, bridging, and linking social capitals. In most cases it is the bonding social capital that are widely found among the studied population.

Similar to the access of social position analysis it was observed that occupations that are locally located and familiar to the respondents are likely to get a higher utilization rate while the occupations which are not locally located or not familiar to the respondents are found to get a lower rate of access. The top three utilised social

positions are shop owners, carpenter and nurse while the least utilised social positions are social welfare officers, lawyer and district agriculture officers.

Structure of social capital was also analysed and measured using both inductive and deductive measures. Two scales were identified from the study: High prestige social capital and low prestige social capital.

The patterns of intervillage differences in the elements of social capital (access, proximity, and utilisation) did not show much differences between the hill and foothill villages. This may be due to the social and cultural homogeneity of the studies population. Analysis on the intervillage differences in inductive measures of social capital using 't' test showed that low prestige social capital (which consisted of 6 social occupations), proximity to low prestige social positions and utilisation of low prestige social capital were significantly higher in the foothill villages with 1 percent level while other inductive measure did not yield any significant differences.

Testing on the relationship among inductive measures of social capital showed that the measures were interrelated. It was found that there are significant positive relationships among the inductive measures as expected. A positive relationship between the dimensions of high and low prestige within each of the elements of social capital access, proximity and use could be observed.

Intervillage differences in deductive measures of social capital analysis it was found that the foothill villages were higher in all the deductive measures of social capital but no significant differences were found in the majority of the measures. However, in three dimensions viz. Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised, significant differences were observed at 1 percent level difference higher for the foothill villages.

With regards to deductive measures, it was clearly seen that the foothill villages were higher in all the deductive measures of social capital. No significant differences were found in most of the measures. The deductive measures of social capital were tested to see their relationships and it was found that all measures were significantly interrelated.

Apart from the inductive and deductive measures, civic measures of social capital viz. Community participation and activism were also studied and analysed.

The results of the analysis on community participation showed that the mean score for participation was a point higher in the hill villages than the foothill villages but no significant differences were observed. With regards to community activism there was no difference between the two types of villages. For both the types of villages the activism mean score was 0.3 each.

The analyses on relationship between deductive, inductive and civic measures of social capital results show that the inductive as well as deductive measures across the access and utilisation elements of social capital and civic measures were interrelated positively and significantly as expected.

9.1.4. Rural Community Development

Rural community development was analysed based on three sets of indicators viz, living conditions, housing condition and community satisfaction. The first two sets of indicators are objective in nature while the last one is subjective.

The analyses on the indicators on living condition viz. monthly income and monthly expenditure of the households, showed that the foothill villagers were relatively higher in both the indicators. The foothill villages have better living conditions than the hill villages.

The analyses of the housing conditions showed there were some similarities as well as significant differences found between the two types of villages. From the collected data on ownership of the house, it was found that about 98 per cent of the total households live in their own houses while a negligible percentage lived in rented houses. The traditional practice of caring for each other, the chief and his counsels overseeing the welfare of the villagers is a good practice which ensures that every family has a roof over their heads.

With regards to the type of floor, almost similar patterns were found. In both the types of villages wooden floor was used by absolute majority, followed by mud floor and concrete floor while the use of bamboo floor was minimal. Concrete floors were found to be higher in the foothill villagers than the hill villagers.

With regards to type of roof though some similarities in the percentages were found, there were also some significant differences between the type of villages. In both the types tin roof was used by most of the households. The use of sun-grass and

corrugated iron for roofing also showed a more or less similar pattern in both the types of villages. However, the use of concrete was nil in the hills while the foothill villages had about 3 percent.

With regards to the type of wall, significant differences were found between the hill and foothill villages. While bamboo, tin and wooden walls were widely used in the hills, mud was widely used in the foothills. The percentage of concrete walls were much higher in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

The sources of drinking water showed significant differences between the two types of villages. While the hill villages have more concentration of stream, open wells and public points, the foothill villages have more concentration on the usage of handpumps.

When comparisons were made on the different types of toilets between the two types of villages there was a significant difference. The foothill villages had far better types of toilets than the hill villages as the foothill villages had more concentration of low-cost toilets and concrete with septic tank type toilets while the hills had a huge concentration of pit latrine type toilets.

With regards to sources of power supply the foothill villages were fully electrified while two villages and the hill were yet to be electrified. Villages that are not electrified depended on solar panels and other sources of supply.

A comparison on the number of rooms between the hill and foothill villages showed significant differences. The foothill villages had larger numbers of rooms than the hill villages. While most of the houses in the hills had more houses with very small and small rooms, the foothill villages had more houses with medium and large rooms. When the value of houses was compared based on the hill and foothill categories the sample houses in the foothills had higher value than that of the hills.

With regards to housing facilities and amenities, which is the second component of housing conditions there were significant differences between the two villages. In both the categories, the foothill villages have better facilities and amenities.

From the analysis of the overall housing quality index, it was clearly observed that the foothill villages have better housing quality index when compared

to the hills. The overall analysis of the housing condition shows that the foothill villages had better housing conditions than the hill villages.

The subjective indicators of rural community development were satisfaction on community services. With regards to primary community satisfaction, which consist of services related to basic needs, community satisfaction was higher in the hills than the foothill villages. But for the secondary community satisfaction, which consists of services related to secondary needs, the satisfaction was higher in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

The analyses on the differences with the objective and subjective measures of rural community development showed that there were significant differences between the types of villages. In all the objective measures of rural community development the foothill villages fared much better than the hill villages. With regards to the civic measures of social capital between the two villages the hill villages had significantly higher levels of satisfaction in primary services while the foothills had significantly higher levels of satisfaction with secondary services.

The correlational analysis of objective and subjective indicators of community development at the household level showed that there is internal convergence between indicators within the objective and subjective dimensions of community development as expected. The strength of the relationship between the indicators of objective dimension of community development is stronger while it is weak between the subjective indicators. On the other hand, against the expectation there is divergence between the objective and subjective dimensions of community development. There are significant and negative relationships between the objective and subjective indicators of community development.

9.1.5 Social Capital and Rural Development

The whole process of the present study aims at probing into the bearings of social capital on rural development. Analysis on the relationship among objective indicators of community development showed that only per-capita monthly expenditure had significant relationship with per-capita monthly while other indicators had significant relationship Housing condition index and per capita monthly income had no significant relation.

At the household level, most of the inductive measures had significant relationships with most of the objective indicators of community development while limited significant relationships were observed between inductive measures and subjective indicators of community development.

At the community level inductive measures of social capital and objective indicators of community development were positively inclined and significant relations were observed with about two-tenth of the dimensions. On the other hand, inductive measures of social capital and subjective indicators of community development were negatively inclined but no significant relations were found, except in one dimension.

With regards to the relationship between Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of Community Development at the household level, most of the deductive measures of social capital had significant relations. On the other hand, Deductive Measures of Social Capital and Objective Indicators of Community Development were negatively inclined and significant relationships were found in three dimensions.

At the community level the relationship between the deductive measures and objective indicators were positively inclined, but no significant relationship was found in any of the dimensions. Deductive measures and community satisfaction on primary services, which are the first subjective indicators of community development, were negatively inclined while it was positively inclined with the community satisfaction on secondary services. However, no significance was found between them.

Civic measures of social capital and objective indicators of community development were positively inclined. However, only the community activism and housing condition index had significant relationships at 1 percent value. Civic measures of social capital and subjective indicators of community development were negatively inclined, but no significant relationships were found. In the overall analysis it was found that social capital does have bearing on rural development. Access, use, proximity of social capital is found to be contributing to rural

development. Further, in the present context it was the low prestige social capital than the high social capital that have more influence on rural development.

9.2 Conclusion

Though the usage of the concept of social capital is about a century old, its popularity and popular usage is just about half a century. It was popularised in the west in the later part of the second-half of the 20th century. In the Indian context the concept is picking up its popularity in social sciences research. In the North east context, the studies are minimal and for the state of Manipur social capital studies in the context of the state is not yet known. The multifaceted nature and the complexities in measurements adds to its unpopularity. In this study social capital concept is studied in relation to rural community development focusing on the social resources embedded in social networks (Lin, 2001) and the civic engagement - community participation and activism (Putnam, 2000)

From the physical and temporal features of the villages it was observed that all the villagers underwent shifting of villages from one place to another due to different reasons. The villages were one way or the other affected by ethnic conflicts and violence in one way or the other whereby they were economically, psychologically, socially, and politically. Basic government facilities such as Anganwadi, primary school (except for two villages), ASHA, community hall, water supply facilities through hand pump or tanks were available in all the villages. Significant differences were observed with regards to access to market, banks, police station, educational institutions, government offices, road and transport, electricity, etc. which were better in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

The ethnic and religious composition was found to be homogeneous as all the sample households ethnically belonged to the Kuki-Chin ethnic tribes and Christianity as the main religion. The male-female composition was 50:50, which was a positive sign of gender equality and acceptance of the female gender in a patriarchal society. Significant differences were observed in the educational and economic status in which the foothill villages fare better than the hill villages. The higher economic dependency rate of the foothill villager can be further related to the engagement of more children and youth in educational institutions for studies.

Rural community development was assessed objectively through living conditions and housing conditions and subjectively through community satisfaction of social services. In most of the objective indicators the foothill villagers have better living and housing conditions. Objectively the foothill villages showed a better living standard and higher level of development. Significant differences were found between the two types of villages in all objective indicators wherein the foothill villages were better than the hill villages in all these aspects. With regards to subjective indicators also significant differences were found between the types of villages. But here, there is a twist. Community satisfaction on basic services is higher among the hill villagers than the foothill villages. On the other hand, community satisfaction on secondary services is higher among the foothill villages than the hill villages.

From the inductive and deductive measures of social capital, it was found that the pattern of distribution of social capital was similar in most cases between both the types of villages. In the inductive measures access to low prestige social capital, proximity to low prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were found to be significantly higher among the foothill villages. In the deductive measures access had no significant differences between the two villages. However, the differences lie in the usage of social capital. The foothill villages were found to be more prominent in using the available social capital than the hill villages. Utilisation of maximum prestige, range of prestige and number of positions were significantly higher among the foothill villages than the hill villages. This usage of the available social capital can be connected to most of the objective indicators of rural development in which the foothill villages have fared better than the hill villages. This reflects Lin's (2005) second theoretical approach to social resources which talks about utility of the resources. The approach pointed out that when the access resources are used more there are more benefits received in return.

Civic engagements both in community participation and activism have positive influence on objective indicators of development. However no significant relations were found except between housing condition index and community activism. On the other hand, civic engagements had a negative impact on subjective

indicators of community development. Both community participation and community activism had negative relations with community satisfaction. However, there was no significant relations found among them.

The foothill villages, despite better infrastructure and access have lower levels of community satisfaction with regards to the primary services than the hill villages in basic services. The reason behind the negative impact over community satisfaction could be that the more people engage themselves in community activities and activism they become more aware of the rights and benefits which they are supposed to get. This awareness might have led to higher expectation thereby desiring more from what they get. Social capital and community participation is found to have more impact on rural development in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

It may be concluded that though there may be many similarities in the composition of social capital between the two types of villages, it is the utilisation of social capital that ultimately has influence on rural community development. However, in the present study the differences in patterns of social capital are not substantially high. Though there may be access to and proximity to social position, if they are not utilised, the resources embedded in those networks remain dormant and do not give return benefits. The more utilised the resources, the more benefits one gets out of those networks. This agrees with Lin's second theoretical approach to social capital wherein he stated that "if the social capital is used more, there are more benefits."

From the whole study it is concluded that social capital does have bearing on rural development to a certain extent. Access, use, proximity to social positions were found to be contributing towards rural development in the tribal district. In this regard low prestige social capital is found to be having bearing on rural development. On the other hand, access to high positions was found to be not contributing to rural development. Level of satisfaction in both the types of villages were found to be low.

9.3 Implications of the Study

Network and support systems are an important part of social work practice. Network analysis in social support systems both focuses on organised support group that can be helpful for those people within the social networks in times of need (Payne, 1997). By understanding the client's or community's networks, social workers can render better help and support to them. Networks according to Seed (1990) is a 'system or pattern of links between points... which have particular meaning for those involved.' The nature and type of social networks have effects on the lives of people at different stages of life. In this context the present study, which probed into the impact of the uses of social resources embedded in social networks and civic engagement on rural community development has its relevance in social work. Karen Headly & Anne Hampshire (2008) explored the implication of social capital in social work practice in Australia and noted that the concept of community building has much to do with social capital. In spite of social capital being contested among many thinkers they contended that progressive social work in its practice has many contributions and gains from the social capital concept. They concluded that proper understanding of social capital by social workers can improve their capacity and foster growth in their profession.

The implication of the study is presented in two subsections- suggestions and scope for further research.

8.3.1 Suggestions

From the results of the present study the following suggestions for social policy advocacy and social work practice are put forth.

1. The prevalence of a lower rate of literacy was observed in the hill villages. Education being one of the wheels for development needs to be taken seriously. For this proper and better functioning of primary and junior schools be made available and the establishment of high school and higher secondary schools in the hill villages is highly needed.
2. Absolute majority of the earning members of the family did not have a secondary occupation or source of income. The high dependency on a single source of income can be risky for a family's sustainability and development. Therefore,

motivation for taking up secondary occupations in the form of self-employment and entrepreneurships is the hope to maintain the family's sustainability and boost their economy.

3. In both the two objective indicators of rural development viz. living condition, housing condition, it was observed that the hills lag behind the foothill villages. Improvement of housing through implementation of relevant schemes and awareness on proper housing for healthy living will help to a great extent.

4. The lack of proper infrastructures and services related to health, education, communication, market, banking, etc., in the hill villages is a great concern. Building or development of such infrastructures and services and making sure of its proper functioning will help in overcoming the backwardness of the area.

5. From the study it was found that though scarcely available, it is the utilisation of social capital that ultimately had a significant impact on the development of rural communities. Therefore, people should be made aware that it is not enough just to have connections with people in certain positions. The resources embedded in them need to be tapped and utilised in order to gain the benefits out of the networks.

8.3.2 Scope for Further Research

In the light of the research experience gained during the present study the following suggestions are put forward for further research:

1. The conceptual and operational framework of social capital and community development developed and used in the present study may be applied in the context of the other states in North east India. Studies on social capital and patterns of rural community development can be conducted to have a larger understanding of social capital dynamics in relation to development in the rural areas.

2. Comparative studies on endowment of social capital between the tribals and non-tribal population of Manipur can be taken up to understand the dynamics of social capital and its impact on community development on a larger scale with heterogeneous groups.

3. The present study used position generator instruments to measure the access and utilisation of social capital which has helped to derive inductive and deductive measures of social capital which have significant bearing on the instrumental

variables or objective indicators of community development. To assess the bearing of social capital on the subjective and affective measures of community development such as community service satisfaction the use of resource generator instruments is suggested.

APPENDIX

Social Capital, Community Participation and Rural Development in Chandel District, Manipur

Research Scholar	Research Supervisor
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Mizoram University	Mizoram University

Household Interview Schedule

(Confidential and for Research Purpose Only)

I. Identification Information

1. Schedule No. : _____
2. Date of Interview : ___/___/___
3. Locality/Village : _____

II. Profile of the Respondent

1. Name (Optional) and Sex : _____/_____
2. Community/Tribe : _____
3. Religion : 1. Hindu 2. Christian 3. Jewish
4. Others
4. Denomination : _____
5. Type of Family : 1. Nuclear 2. Joint 3. Single
6. Form of Family : 1. Stable 2. Broken 3. Reconstituted
7. Duration of Residence in the village : _____ years
8. Socio Economic Category: 1.AAY 2.BPL 3.APL
9. Type of Cultivation: 1. Non-Cultivator 2. Shifting 3. Semi- Settled 4. Settle

III. Household Profile

Sl. No	Name	Relt. to Head*	Sex **	Age	Marital status ***	Edn. ****	Earner/ Dependent *****	Occupation		Monthly Income		Respondent
								Primary #	Second ##	Primary Occpn.	Second Occpn.	
1												
2												
3												
4												
5												

* 1- Head 2- Wife 3- Son 4- Daughter 5- Parent 6- Grandchild

7. Others

** 1-Male 2-Female

*** 1- Unmarried 2- Married 3- Divorced 4- Remarried
5- Widowed

**** 1. Illiterate 2. Primary (1-5) 3. Middle School (6-8)
4. High School (9-10) 5. Hr. Sec. (11-12) 6. College 7. Master and above

***** 1 Earner 2 Dependent

1. Govt. Officer 2. Govt. Worker 3. Cultivator 4. Wage Laborer 5. Skilled Laborer
6. Petty Business 7. Large Business; 8. Student 0. None

1. Govt. Officer 2. Govt. Workers 3. Cultivators 4. Wage Labourers 5. Skilled Laboueres
6. Petty Business 7. Large Business; 8. Student 0. None

1. Yes 2. No

IV. Housing, Facilities and Assets and Livestock

A. Details of the House

1. Ownership of House : 1 Own; 2 Rented
2. Number of Rooms :
3. Approximate Value of House (Rs.):
4. Type of House : 1 Kucha; 2 Semi-pucca; 3 Pucca
5. Type of Floor : 1 Mud; 2 Bamboo; 3 Wood; 4 Concrete
6. Type of Roof : 1 Sun Grass; 2 Tin; 3 Corrugated Iron; 4 Concrete
7. Type of wall : 1. Mud 2. Bamboo 3. Tin; 4. Wood; 5. Concrete
8. Type of Toilet : 1 Pit Latrine; 2. Low-cost toilet 3. Concrete with septic Tank
9. Source of Drinking Water : 1 Stream; 2 Open Well; 3. Hand Pump; 4. Public Point;
10. Source of power supply : 1. Others 2.Kerosene Oil 3. Solar Panel 4. Electricity

B. Details of Facilities and Household Assets (Do you have the following assets in your house?)

Sl. No	Asset	Yes	No
1.	Wash Basin	1	0
2.	Ceiling/Table Fans	1	0
3.	Bathing room	1	0
4.	Mobile Phone	1	0
5.	Computer	1	0
6.	Solar Panel and battery	1	0
7.	Television	1	0
8.	Refrigerator	1	0
9.	Household Furniture	1	0
10.	Two Wheelers	1	0
11.	Four Wheelers	1	0
12.	Washing Machine	1	0
13.	Truck/Bus/Tractor	1	0
14.	Jewels	1	0
15.	Gas stove	1	0
16.	None	0	0

V. Details of monthly expenditure of your family

	Item	Monthly Expenses (Rs.)
1	Food items	
2	Education	
3	Mobile	
4	Medical	
5	Electricity/Power	
6	Clothing	
7	Transport	
8	Recreation	
9	Church Related Contribution	
10	Charity	
11	Water	
12	None	

VI. Land Ownership

Does your family own any land? No/Yes. If yes, give details

	Type of Land	Area (in acres)
1	Community Land/Chief's Land	
2	Own Land (Patta)	
3	Own land (without patta)	
4	Forest land own	
5	None	

VII. Access to Social Capital and Its Utilization

Sl. No.	Do you know anyone in the following position?	Access		If yes, types of relationship				If yes, Benefitted	
		Yes	No	Acquaint.	Friend	Kinship	Family	Yes	No
1	Physician/MO	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
2	Nurse/ ASHA/ NRHM Worker	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
3	University/College Lecturer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
4	High School Teacher	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
5	Primary School Teacher	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
6	Bus/Sumo/Passenger Vehicle Owner	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
7	Truck Driver/helper	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
8	Police Constable	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
9	Police officer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
10	Elected MLA/MDC	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
11	SDO/BDO	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
12	Village Level Worker	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
13	Tehsildar/Lambu	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
14	Bank Manager	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
15	Leaders of CSO	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
16	NGO Workers	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
17	SO of Electricity dept	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
18	Linemen	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
19	Carpenter/Skilled labourer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
20	District social welfare officer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
21	Lawyer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
22	Shop owners	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
23	District Agri. Officer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0
24	District Forest Officer	1	0	1	2	3	4	1	0

VIII. Community Activism and Participation

1. In the past 6 months, have you done any of the following for addressing the problem of your community? (activism)

Sl. No		No	Yes
1.	Attended neighborhood council meeting	0	1
2.	Attended public hearing or public discussion group	0	1
3.	Met with a politician, called him/her, or sent a letter	0	1
4.	Met with a government official, called him/her, or sent a letter	0	1
5.	Participated in a protest or demonstration	0	1
6.	Alerted newspaper, radio or TV to a local problem	0	1
7.	Notified police or court about a local problem	0	1
8.	Met community leaders to have discussion on local issues	0	1

2. How frequently your family members participate in the following in your locality? (Participation)

Sl. No		Never	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1	Cultural Festivals/Programmes	0	1	2	3
2	Volunteer Works	0	1	2	3
3	Donations in kind and cash	0	1	2	3
4	Attending family rituals/programmes	0	1	2	3
5	Religious festivals/programmes	0	1	2	3
6	Meetings of community organisations	0	1	2	3
7	Voting in the MP Election	0	1	2	3
8	Voting in the MLA	0	1	2	3
9	Voting in the MDC Election	0	1	2	3
10	Games and Sports	0	1	2	3

IX. Community Satisfaction

How far have you been satisfied with the following resources in your community?

Sl. No.	Community Service	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low
1	Electricity	5	4	3	2	1
2	Water Supply	5	4	3	2	1
3	Drainage	5	4	3	2	1
4	Banking	5	4	3	2	1
5	Road	5	4	3	2	1
6	Transport	5	4	3	2	1
7	Post Office	5	4	3	2	1
8	Education	5	4	3	2	1
9	Health Care	5	4	3	2	1
10	Solid Waste Management	5	4	3	2	1
11	Peace in the community	5	4	3	2	1
12	Safety and Security	5	4	3	2	1
13	Care and Support	5	4	3	2	1
14	Employment Opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
15	Interpersonal Relations	5	4	3	2	1

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ABSTRACT

**SOCIAL CAPITAL, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHANDEL DISTRICT, MANIPUR**

**AN ABSTRACT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY**

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DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

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**SOCIAL CAPITAL, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN CHANDEL DISTRICT, MANIPUR**

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**In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Social Work of Mizoram University, Aizawl**

Introduction

The study is an attempt to probe into the bearing of social capital on rural community development in the tribal context of Chandel District, Manipur.

Man, being a social being, requires the company of his fellow beings to lead a happy and prosperous social life. There is always a desire to grow and change for the better so that life can be more meaningful and worth living. Whether one lives in the city or village, in urban areas or rural areas, there is always the need for improvement in living conditions, health and economic well-being, infrastructure, and so on. Following the maxim ‘self-help through mutual help,’ man can get what he requires from society by contributing to society through their participation. Social work as a subject and profession has been dwelling on different aspects of the development and well-being of communities. Social capital is recognized as a useful concept for progressive social work.

As Putnam (2000) puts it, ‘a society characterized by generalized reciprocity is more efficient than a distrustful society, for the same reason that money is more efficient than barter’. Family and friends constitute the ‘safety net’ when we face crises in life. So, for safety and better access to resources, human beings get connected with the people and institutions around them.

The concept of social capital gained momentum in the later part of the 20th century and many scholars, researchers, and philosophers have come to use the term in many social science studies. The basic idea of “social capital” is that one’s family, friends, and associates constitute an important asset, one that can be called upon in a crisis, enjoyed for its own sake, and/or leveraged for material gain (Woolcock and Narayan 2000). Social capital provides useful support when it is needed. The first use of the term is attributed to L. J Hanifan (1916), who was a state supervisor of rural schools in West Virginia. He mentioned social capital in his article “The Rural School Community Centre” regarding local support for rural schools in reference to social cohesion and personal investment in the community in 1916.

However, the concept was not widely used until the later part of the twentieth century. It gained momentum among sociologists, economists, researchers, and philosophers. The modern use of the idea was believed to have been reinvented in the

1950s by a team of Canadian urban sociologists, in the 1960s by an exchange theorist (Homans 1961) and an urban scholar (Jacobs 1961), and in the 1970s by an economist (Loury 1977). Some trace the modern usage of the term to Jane Jacobs in the 1960s. However, she did not explicitly define the term social capital but used it in an article with a reference to the value of networks. The American sociologist James Coleman credits the term to economist Glenn Loury and adopted Glenn Loury's (1977) definition in developing and popularizing the concept. Häuberer (2011) considered Bourdieu and Coleman as the founding theorists of social capital because they introduced the term social capital systematically for the first time.

The idea of social capital in spite of its usefulness in understanding and measuring development disappeared for several decades after Lynda J Hanifan (1916). It reappeared with significant improvement in the uses and clarity of the concept. Different theorists and researchers in the field came up with definitions that would best explain the term based on their understanding. One of the earliest sociologists and theorists to give a full definition of the term was James Coleman (1988). He defines social capital as ‘an asset embedded in relationships that facilitates instrumental action among people and the sharing of knowledge and resources from one person to another.’ He introduced social capital to the social sciences by claiming that the relationships formed between human beings are responsible for the harmonization of healthy social institutions. His definition of social capital as a set of socio-structural resources has two characteristics in common: they all consist of some aspect of a social structure and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure.

Following Coleman was Robert David Putnam, an American political scientist whose interest was in comparative politics. His important works ‘Making Democracy Work’ in 1993 and ‘Bowling Alone’ in 2000 made a great impact on the development and discussion of the social capital concept. To Putnam (1993) "social capital" refers to features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trusts, which facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit’. Following a similar idea to Putnam, the World Bank (2007) defines social capital as “... the institutions, relationships, and norms that shape the quality and quantity of a

society's social interactions. Social capital is not just the sum of the institutions which underpin a society—it is the glue that holds them together”. According to Imandoust (2011), ‘social capital refers to the networks of social relations that may provide individuals and groups with access to resources and support.’ Social capital can be defined as resources embedded in a social structure that is accessed and/or mobilized in purposive actions (Lin 2001)

Social capital has been a widely used concept throughout the social sciences - in sociology, political science, anthropology, and economics, to name a few. It is found that there is no single, universally accepted definition of social capital (Kawachi *et al.*2013). The qualitative nature of the concept has added to this complicity. Topics such as status attainment, social mobility, competitive advantage and advancement in economic organizations, political participation, and psychological and physical well-being are being examined using the concept of social capital (Portes 1998).

Many scholars generally accepted the fact that social capital is a multifaceted concept that deals with many aspects of human life irrespective of their background. Bourdieu and Coleman viewed social capital as resources embedded in relationships among actors, although they were constructed in different contexts while Putnam viewed social capital from the context of civic engagement, trust, and norms of reciprocity (Hauberer, 2011). The committee on Economic Development (1995) also defined social capital as ‘the resources embedded in social relationships among persons and organizations that facilitate cooperation and collaboration in communities.’ In defining social capital proponents fundamentally agreed on two general perspectives- one at the individual level and another at the group level. The former focus on the profits gained by the individual in using social capital (e.g., getting a job) and then later focus on how certain groups develop and maintain more or less social capital as a collective asset and how it has enhanced the group members (Lin, 2001).

Michael Woolcock and Deepa Narayan, (1999) identified two implications of social capital research for development theory and policy. The *first* implication is that the concept of social capital offers a way to bridge sociological and economic

perspectives, thereby providing potentially richer and better explanations of economic development. The *second* implication is that economic growth is shaped by the nature and extent of social interactions between communities and institutions.

Dwelling on the dimensions of social capital related to community development such as networks and memberships, social trusts, and collective action and reciprocity, Shigeki Yokoyama and Akira Ishida (2006) demonstrated the usefulness of the concept of social capital to formulate effective community development programs to enhance the well-being of rural dwellers. Blair and Carroll (2008) explaining the usefulness of social capital as a tool for community development stated that ‘social capital can be used for bonding or uniting individuals within a group or network as well as bridging or overcoming vertical barriers with unequal social status or power to work together.’ In this regard, rural development, which is achieved through the collective action of the member of the community, has close connections with social capital. Social capital by itself is not collective action but the norms of reciprocity within social networks help in promoting and facilitating collective action which is essential for any community development.

Rural development studies have gained momentum in the socio, economic and political spheres. In underdeveloped and developing countries the term is widely used. The concentration of India’s large population in the rural areas made this more relevant and significant. Rural development in simple terms means a desired positive change or improvement in the quality of life in rural areas. The term rural means ‘an area marked by the non-urban style of life, occupation; social organization, and settlement pattern and development would mean a positive change both qualitative and quantitative.’ The census of India 2011 defines rural in relation to the urban definition. It says “All areas other than urban are rural,” and further pointed out revenue villages as basic units of rural areas.

According to Moseley (2003) “rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas.” Rudengren et al. (2012) also define rural development as a process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in a relatively isolated and sparsely populated area. Jeong’s (1997) definition of rural

development brings about the importance of people's participation and commitment as a group in the developmental process. He defines rural development as "a chain of processes that brings improvement in the living conditions for people in local communities through people's participation and commitment as a group." World Bank (1975) defined rural development as implying the improvement in the living standard of masses of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of development self-sustaining."

Though there is many scholars working on development challenges that support the social capital approach, there are a few critics who express their reservations. James DeFelippis (2001) argues that contemporary interest in social capital by community developers, theorists, funders, and practitioners is misguided and needs to be thoroughly rethought. He feels that when economic parameters are basic to community development, the separation of social capital from economic capital by Robert Putnam (1993) becomes flawed. Therefore, he thinks that social networks should be oriented towards realising greater control and power over the flow of capital and the power needed to get the maximum out of the networks. Steven N. Durlauf, (1999), highlighted the conceptual ambiguity of social capital whether social capital should be defined in terms of its effects or its characteristics.

However, a few social scientists do recognize both positive and negative consequences of social capital. For instance, Alejandro Portes (1998) observed four negative effects of social capital: exclusion of outsiders, excess claims on group members, restrictions on individual freedom, and downward levelling norms. George Wiesinger (2007) also recognizes the possibility of social exclusion and rejection of incomers who wants to join close groups. All these negative effects exist in contrast to the commonly celebrated social good of social capital. Another disadvantage of social capital is the cost-effectiveness which requires 'substantial investment in development and maintenance of relationships' (Kapucu, 2011).

The study will try to focus on the nature and extent of social capital and community participation among eight rural communities and its relationship with rural development in Chandel District, Manipur.

Overview of Literature

From the second half of the 20th century, the concept of Social Capital has captured the imagination and attention of a wide range of scholars and professionals in diverse disciplines and practices. Social capital is gaining prominence in social work discourse as it plays a vital role in social and economic mobility (Foster & Maas, 2014).

There is copious literature on social capital and its relation to different aspects of governance and development at various levels. There are a number of studies on various aspects or strategies of development. For instance, there are studies on microfinance and Self-Help Groups and their relation to social capital (Basargekar, 2010; Vargheese, 2009), social capital in community development and local governance (Kilpatrick, 2003; Khawlhing & Kanagaraj 2007, Baite, 2017, Halstead and Deller, 2017), social capital and sustainable development (see Arbab, 2011), social capital and adult education (Mcclenaghan, 2000), social capital and rural development (Dufhues et. al. 2006; D. Egyetem 2016; Tajuddin, 2011).

Studies on social capital have been undertaken at different levels. There are some studies undertaken at the national level (Rashid Hassan & Patrick Birungi, 2011; Somaratne, et al 2011), state and local levels (Krishna and Uphoff, 1999), and household levels (Baiyegunhi, 2013).

There are attempts to conceptualize and operationalize social capital at different levels. Measurement of social capital is an important area where there are a number of studies. As social capital is related to social structure and network social network methodologists have developed instruments for measuring it. The three measurement instruments commonly used to measure social capital are the Name Generator/interpreter (McCallister & Fischer, 1978), the Position Generator (Lin & Dumin, 1986), and the Resource Generator (van der Gaag & Snijders, 2005).

Among the three measurement instruments, the position generator is used in this study. Various studies have been reviewed on the concept (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996), (Lin and Dumin, 1986), types (Verhaeghe and Li, 2015), (Lin and Dumin, 1986), (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008), and usages (Gaag, Snijders, and Flap,

2008), Yang-chih-fu (2008), Flap and Volker (2008), (Lin, Yang-chih Fu, and Hsung, 2001) of the measurement.

Reid (2000) opined that community participation as one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. The concept of community and community participation are studied by various authors. Mattessich and Monsey (2004: 56) and the National Research Council 1975 (as cited in Mattessich and Monsey 2004) understands community as a group of people living together in a given geographical area with common interest and social ties. Kallabaka (1989), Chowdhury (1996), Brager, Specht, and Torczyner (1987) deals with the concept of participation. Hamdi (1994), World Bank (2004) Oni (2015) deals with the meaning of community participation which is understood as people's participation in a cause to achieve a common goal. International Association for Public Participation (IPA2-1990) points out the core values of community participation while Mikkelsen, (1995) presents the various forms community participation.

Community development is another important area in the present study. The concept is well defined by the United Nations (as quoted in Head, 197, (Mukerji, 1961). (Korten 1990) and the United Nations (1999). The relation between community development, in both urban and rural and social capital are also widely studied (Matthew Moris, 1998), Woolcook and Narayan (2000), Ali and Mansor (2003), Ali (2005), Yokoyama and Ishida (2006), Sakurai (2006, Jaco Vermaak (2009). Thissen (2009), Prema Basargekar, 2010, Hassan and Birungi (2011), Freuchte (2011), Elizabeth Arbab (2011). Lakpa Choden (2012), Kildos, (2013), Baiyegunhi, (2013) and others.

Understanding the rural context (Hawley et al, 2016; Census of India 201; Lele & Adu-Nyako, 1991) and rural development (Singh, 1986; World Bank in Ekpo and Olaniyi, 1995; Moseley, 2003; Rudengren et al. 2012, Jeong, 1997; Rowley,1996; and Madhu, 2000, Rudengren et al. 2012; etc.) is also an important component in this study. Studies on social capital and rural development had been made at the international, national, and regional levels (Dufhues et al, 2006; Jain 2011). Social capital is also used in relation to rural agriculture (Rivera et al (2018), rural marginalization (Wiesinger, 2007) rural risk management (Sorensen, 2000), etc.

Theoretical Perspectives

The two major functions of theory in social sciences are explanation and prediction of phenomena. “Without a clear conceptualization, social capital may soon become a catch-all term broadly used about anything that is ‘social’ Lin, Fu, Hsung (2001). For good research, a strong theoretical base is a must. The theoretical perspectives of social capital and rural development to be used in the present study are highlighted in this section.

Social Capital

Bourdieu and Coleman are the founding theorists of social capital because they introduced the term social capital systematically for the first time (Häuberer, 2011). They both agreed on social capital as resources embedded in networks. The core idea of the social capital theory is that social networks have value (Putnam, 2000). Putnam’s work focuses on civic engagement for the formation and sustenance of social capital. The premise behind the notion of social capital is rather simple and straightforward: investment in social relations with expected returns. This return or profits received can be seen from two levels- whether the profit is accrued for the group or the individual (Lin 2001). Social capital theories focus on the resources that are attached to one’s social relationships and how access to those resources benefits the actor. In this context Nan Lin (2001) defines resources as valued goods in a society, however consensually determined, the possession of which maintains and promotes an individual’s self-interest for survival and preservation. A significant part of social capital concepts or theories revolves around the network perspective from the network perspective as given by Fabio Sabatini (2006) social capital can be classified into the following:

i. ***The ‘Bonding network’***: This refers to relations amongst relatively homogenous groups such as family members and close friends and is similar to the notion of strong ties. Bonding social capital is often described as horizontal ties between individuals within the same social group (as opposed to vertical ties between social groups. This type of social capital is exclusive in nature. This form of social capital is sometimes by choice or necessity, inward-looking and tends to enforce exclusiveness and maintains homogeneity of identity.

ii. *The 'Bridging network'*: This refers to relations with distant friends, associates and colleagues. It places the actors at structural holes where each is able to tap into the social network resources of each other's social group. This is also described as vertical ties often operating through formal hierarchical structures. This is inclusive in nature. It may also include civil rights movements, youth service groups and ecumenical religious organisations.

iii. *The 'Linking network'*: This refers to relations between individuals and groups in different social strata in a hierarchy where power, social status, and wealth are accessed by different groups. In many ways linking social capital is similar to bridging social capital.

In the present study Putnam's (2000) civic engagement theory and Lin's (2001) social resources perspective are used to understand and measure social capital.

Civic Engagement

In the late 20th century, the term social capital has been widely popularised by Putnam, an American political scientist. According to him "social capital" refers to features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trusts, which facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit' (Putnam, 1993). His concept of social capital has three important components - moral obligations and norms, social values (especially trust) and social networks (especially voluntary associations). Social networks are the results of one's engagements in civic activities or civic engagements. Civic engagement can be understood as the participation or involvement of members of the community in both political and non-political activities with the aim to safeguard the social values, address public concerns or to bring about a change in the community. The civic engagement theory of Putnam states that "social capital is built up through group members' involvement in voluntary civic organizations." According to him, group members' engagement in voluntary civic activities gives mutual benefits as the trust and norms that results from the social organisation provides a platform or forum for cooperation. In his book 'Bowling Alone' Putnam (1995) gives different forms of civic engagements – political (voting, participation in public meetings or rallies), religious (ceremonious and services), school (in Parent Teacher Association), works (labour unions) and

service groups (philanthropic organisations). The engagement can take place both at the individual level or at the community level. Putnam believes that civic engagement is directly linked the 'quality of life and performance of social institutions' and when dealing with public issues like poverty, education, unemployment, crime and drug abuse, community with higher or better quality of civic engagement have higher success rate.

Social resources

Coleman (1988) introduced the concept of social capital as a resource in the theory of rational action in his article "Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital". He defines social capital as 'an asset embedded in relationships that facilitates instrumental action among people and the sharing of knowledge and resources from one person to another.' Almost in line with Coleman's understanding of social capital as a resource, Nan Lin (2001) defines social capital as 'resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilised in purposive action.' From his definition there are three components in social capital. They are 'resources embedded in a social structure; accessibility to such social resources by individuals; and use or mobilization of such social resources by individuals in purposive actions' Lin (2001) He also stated that in his social resource theory (Lin, 1982) that valued resources in most societies are represented by wealth, power and status. These resources can be tangible (money, information, goods, opportunities) and non-tangible (affection, trust, altruism). In his social resource theory, he precisely propounded that "access to and use of social resources (resources embedded in social networks) can lead to better socioeconomic status." Through social relations or social networks an individual or an actor can borrow or capture the resources of those others in the network for his/her benefits. Therefore, from the given definition of social capital and its expansion of the concept a theoretical assertion on social resources embedded in social networks is formulated. The theory, can, thus, be used for identifying the sources of social capital and the benefits to social capital. Lin (2001) identified three principal sources for social capital: (1) *structural positions* – this is the ego's position in the hierarchical structure of social classification. It is the strength of position held by the actor. (2) *network locations* –

the location of the actor in the social networks exhibits give access different types of social capital. (3) *purposes of action* – maintaining and using a particular network/contact for as specific purpose. In connection to these principles Burt (1990) talks about individual nodes that help in mobilising bridging social capital and Granovetter (1973, 1974) put forward the strength of weak ties in which he brought forth the benefits of weak ties over strong ties in access to employment opportunities, promotions, and wages. Nan Lin (2005) viewed that “if social capital is assumed to capture valued resources in social relations, network locations should facilitate, but not necessarily determine, access to better embedded resources.” According to him “the types of network locations evoke resources in order to generate returns depend on the type of returns one expects.”

When considering the process of the flow of social capital to produce expected returns Lin (2005) pointed out two theoretical approaches that need to be considered. The first approach is based on capacity of the resources – social capital embedded in social networks. Here, the greater the capacity of the resources better benefits are expected. There are linkages between the accessed social capital and the benefits from that accessed. The second approach is based on utility. Here, it says that if the social capital is used more, there is more benefits.

Social capital measures are constructed to reflect the contacts’ diversity and range of resources (education, occupation) as well as characteristics (gender, race, age). The ego-network sampling technique is a widely used measurement of social capital. They are the name generator, position generator, and resource generator.

i) *The name generator*: The technique draws out a list of ties from the ego, and the relationships between them as well as among them are identified. It can show the location of ego as well as the ties and points out the network location.

ii) *The position-generator*: The technique as given by Lin & Dumin (1986) uses a sample of structural positions that are salient in a society (occupations, authorities, work units, class, or sector) and asks respondents to indicate contacts (e.g., those known on a first-name basis), if any, in each of the positions. Survey researchers using the position generator method ask respondents whether they know anyone in their social network with occupation from a limited list of different

occupations representative of the national population (Lin and Dumin, 1986; Lin et al., 2001; Van der Gaag, 2005).

iii) *The resource generator:* This has some similarities with the position generator. However, Resource Generator information directly refers to accessed social resources instead of occupational prestige in the position generator.

Measurement of social capital has been one of the focal points of debate and research because of its complexity. The measurement has to bring out the network locations and the resources embedded in those networks. Other components like the size, density, cohesiveness, and closeness of social networks, and composition of networks (homophily and heterogeneity) are also important components of the measurement.

Inductive and Deductive Measures

The IRT model was used to derive the inductive measures of social capital from the three sets of data collected through the position generator. The procedure followed is like the ones adopted in the earlier studies where position generators (Lin & Dumin, 1986) and resource generators (Van der Gaag, M.P.J. & Snijders, T.A.B, 2005) were used. Cumulative Moken scaling which is non-parametric as given by Ganzeboom and Treiman, 2013) was used. The 'Mokken'-scale analysis was done with the help of a statistical software developed by Ark (2007) in the R platform for all the three sets of social capital measurement items in the questionnaire to identify latent traits in social capital because cumulative models are closest in meaning to the idea of having 'more' or 'less' access to subcollections of social capital. There is a trade-off between reliability and homogeneity during the scaling process; we decided to concentrate on scales with sufficient reliability, leading to scales with rather poor homogeneity. These investigations lead to the discovery of subscales that have a cumulative nature. This implies respondents who access very unpopular items on a scale would also access more popular items on the same scale at the population level.

Deductive measures of social capital are those scores derived directly from the data using the theoretical propositions; social resources theory of Nan Lin (1986) in the present study. From the responses received from the items in Position Generator there are about six possible measures through which access to and use of

the resources embedded in the social networks could be measured. Lin and Dumin (1986) have given three traditional position generator measures viz, *i) highest excess prestige* (the occupation that gets the highest number of scores in the prestige calculation); *ii) range in accessed prestige*: (the difference between highest and lowest accessed prestige) *iii) the number of positions accessed* (the number of occupations in which a respondent knows someone) (Gaag, Snijders & Flap, 2008). In addition to these, Van der Gaag et al (2008) added two more measures viz *i) the average accessed prestige* (the mean of the prestige of all occupations in which the respondent knows/uses, and *ii) total accessed prestige* (the cumulative prestige of all accessed occupations).”

Community Participation

Community participation may be understood as the involvement of members of the community in project or activities taken up in the locality or community. Community participation in rural development and other development-oriented activities is not a new concept in social science studies. For a tribal community the concept, though not understood or studied scientifically, is not new as the customs and traditions, norms and practices endorse collective responsibility and keep people accountable (Kasar 2019). It is generally believed that people’s participation can increase efficiency by giving ownership and responsibility to the development programmes implemented for them. Participation from and by the community enables them to associate themselves with the program and projects taken up in their area.

Reid (2000) opined community participation as one of the key ingredients of an empowered community. In a modern democracy, community participation is vital for its success. Hamdi (1994) defined community participation as the process by which professionals, families, community groups, and government officials get together to work out something preferably in a formal or informal partnership. World Bank (2004) viewed Community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. According to Oni (2015), ‘the concept of people's / community participation can be referred to as the active involvement of the

rural people in the decision and matters that concern their wellbeing. It includes active participation in their need's identification, solution planning, and implementation'. Oni's reference on community participation covers a wide range of participation throughout the development process. The concept of community participation also links with the concept of democracy where peoples' participation is of utmost importance for its success.

There is a common agreement by many people that community participation is critical in developmental programs. The need and significance of community participation in any development process have been documented by various development workers and scholars. This is mainly because development is not solo faceted but multifaceted involving and affecting the people and the environment, they live in. On the other hand, though community participation is seen to be helpful and critical in developmental programmes and project, the efficacy of it need to be evaluated from different angles. As identified by Karl (2000) rural development projects and programmes need to evaluate from three main aspects of participation namely; the extent and quality of participation, costs, and benefits of participation to the different stakeholders, and the impact of participation on outcomes, performance and sustainability.

Rural Development

The rural development concept is a subset of development and therefore does not have any universally accepted specific theory of its own. Among the theories related to rural development, the *Human Capital Model of Development* as elaborated by Theodore Schultz (1964) is most suitable in the context of the present study. The model emphasizes on a person's experience, tenure, education, training, and health.

Rural development will be measured from household living conditions (Jeong, 1997) economic well-being (Moseley, 2003; Rudengren et al. 2012), and infrastructure development in the community. According to the World Development report of 1994 infrastructures include *public utilities* - power, telecommunications, piped water supply, sanitation and sewerage, solid waste collection and disposal, and piped gas. *Public works* - roads, major dams, and canal works for irrigation and

drainage. *Other transport sectors*-urban and inter-urban railways, urban transport, ports and waterways, and airports (World Bank, 1994).

Research Gaps

In spite of copious literature on the theoretical, conceptual, operational, and methodological aspects of social capital and rural development, the following few research gaps could be identified.

Firstly, studies on social capital and rural development are very few in the context of India, northeast India, and Manipur.

Secondly, there are fewer studies on the role of social capital in the development of tribal communities.

Thirdly, in the Indian studies on social capital, the concept of social capital has rarely been operationalized from the perspective of social networks though it is essentially networking based conceptualisation. Theoretical perspectives such as Lin's (2001) social resources theory and Putnam (1993) civic engagement have not been adequately utilized in the Indian context. Hence, more rigorous instruments for operationalisation such as name generators, position generators, and resource generators have been rarely used in the Indian context for studying the bearing of social capital on community development. The present study tries to fill these research gaps.

Statement of the Problem

Chandel district lies in the south-eastern part of Manipur. It is 61 kms away from the state capital, Imphal. The district has three Sub-Divisions and four Tribal Development Blocks Viz. Chandel SDO/TD Block, Chakpikarong SDO/TD Block, Khengjoi SDO/TD Block and Khangbarol TD Block (which is under Khengjoi Sub-Division).

It is one of the tribal districts of the state with one MLA constituency reserved for Schedule Tribes (ST). It was one among the three most backward districts in the state receiving Backward Region Grant Fund (BRGF) implemented by Ministry of Panchayati Raj (MoPR). With the delinking of BRGF from central government's budgetary support from 2015-2016, the district become the lone district in the state to be listed among the 112 aspirational districts under NITI Aayog.

According to the 2011 census the district (including the present Tengnoupal district) was the second least populated district in Manipur. The hilly terrains, poor transport and communication, poor infrastructures and basic services in the district keeps the district to lag behind others.

Observation at the peripheral level, the villages in the foothills are seemingly better in many developmental and services aspects. The possible gap that lies between the hilly regions and the foothill is another area of interest in developmental studies.

Network and support systems are important part of social work practice. Network analysis in social support systems both focuses on organised support group that can helpful for those people within the social networks in times of need. In this context, the present study probes into the bearing of social capital on the development in the rural areas at community and household levels. Social capital is conceptualized from the perspectives of social resources (Lin, 2001), and civic engagement or people's participation (Putnam, 2000). Rural development is operationalized in terms of objective and subjective indicators of community development. The living conditions of the households constitute the objective indicators while people's satisfaction over community services constitute the subjective aspect of community development. The dynamic relationship between access to and use of social resources and community participation as well as subjective and objective dimensions of community development are contextualised in terms of the community structures. The community profiles of the villages are presented in terms of their physical and temporal features as well as demographic, social, and economic composition.

The result of the study will benefit social workers, policymakers, development planners, civil society organisations, and social workers engaged in community development at multilevel. The knowledge base of the policymakers in the state of Manipur in particular, the North East, and at the national level, in general, will be enhanced so that they will be enabled in framing efficient and effective development plans for the people based on their peculiar lifestyles and region.

Objectives

1. To understand the physical and temporal aspects of rural communities in Chandel District from an emic perspective.
2. To probe into the demographic, social, and economic composition of rural communities in Chandel District from an etic perspective.
3. To assess the social capital endowment of households and communities from the social resources' perspective.
4. To assess the community participation in the rural areas of Chandel District.
5. To probe into the relationship between social capital endowment, community participation, and rural development in Chandel District.

Chapter Scheme

The final report of the project or research is organised into the following eight chapters.

Chapter I : Introduction

This chapter broadly introduces the subject matter of the present study. It outlines the rationale for the study and describes how the present study is conducted and organised.

Chapter II : Review of Literature

A review of relevant literature on the subject is presented in this chapter. The chapter is thematically organised. The areas included in the literature review are themes on social capital, community participation, community development, rural development, and the linkages among these aspects.

Chapter III : Methodology

The chapter gives a detailed description of the process followed in the whole study. It describes the profile of the study area and the sampling method used for identifying the sample villages and sample households. It also describes the tools employed for the collection and analysis of data collected.

Chapter IV : Physical and Temporal Features of Sample Villages

The chapter presents the physical and temporal features of the sample houses as recorded from the field visits, key informant interviews and PRA exercise. The first

section presents the profile of the sample villages, the second section presents the timeline of the villages and the last section presents the social maps of the villages.

Chapter V : Composition of Village Communities

The chapter deals with the community composition of the sample villages. In the chapter presents the profiles of the respondents, the demographic, social, and economic structural bases of the sample households and their family members.

Chapter VI : Social Capital and Community Participation

In this chapter the social capital endowment of the households and communities are analysed from the point of view of Lin's (1995) social resources perspective and the civic engagement perspective of Putnam (1993). Social capital is analysed and measured using inductive and deductive methods.

Chapter VII: Rural Development

The chapter presents the patterns and levels of rural development from a rural development perspective. Rural development, in the chapter, is analysed and measured using objective and subjective indicators of community development. The objective indicators include living condition and housing conditions of the sample households while the subjective indicators include community satisfaction on primary and secondary community services.

Chapter VIII : Social Capital and Rural Community Development

This chapter discusses the bearing of social capital on rural community development. The relationship between the inductive, deductive and civic measures of social capital on the one hand and objective and subjective indicators of community development are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter IX : Conclusion

The chapter presents the major findings of the research in brief. From these findings a comprehensive conclusion is drawn. The conclusion is followed by policy implication and scope for further research in the related subject or area of interest.

The setting: Profile of the study area

This section presents the area of the study representing the empirical research universe and population where the required and relevant data were collected through field studies. Understanding the profile of the study area is an essential part of understanding the population studied. The profile of the study area is described here. At first, a brief profile of the state of Manipur is presented, followed by the profile of the district, that is, Chandel, and then the profiles of the sample villages are presented. The sample villages are categorized into two – the foothill villages and the hill villages. The foothill villages are those villages situated at the meeting points of the hills and valley areas. The hill villages on the other hand are situated in the interior hill areas of the district, far from towns and cities. There are four villages selected from each category.

The State of Manipur

Manipur with an area of 22,356 square kilometres, covering 0.8 percent of the total area of India is geographically located between latitude 23.830 North and 25.680 North and longitude 93.030 East and 94.780 East. It is bounded by Nagaland in the North, Assam in the West, East, and South by Mizoram and the Chin State of Myanmar. It shares a 398 Kms international border with Myanmar. Manipur carries strategic importance for international trade and commerce with Southeast Asian countries because of the long international boundary and the Indo-Myanmar Road that runs through the border town of Moreh. The territory of Manipur consists of hills and central plains with the hills encircling the plains. The hills cover about 92 percent of the total area of Manipur. In 1972 it became a fully-fledged State by the North-Eastern Areas (Re-organisation) Act, 1971. The state was divided into nine administrative districts viz. Bishnupur, Chandel, Churachandpur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Senapati, Tamenglong, Thoubal and Ukhrul. On the 9th of December 2016, the then government added another seven new districts by bifurcating from the existing districts making the total list of districts 16. The newly added districts are Kangpokpi (bifurcated from the then Senapati district according to the boundaries of the previously proposed Sadar Hills District), Noney District (bifurcated from

Tamenglong district), Pherzawl (bifurcated from Churachandpur district) Tengnoupal (bifurcated from Chandel district), Kakching (bifurcated from Thoubal district), Kamjong (bifurcated from Ukhrul district) and Jiribam (bifurcated from Imphal East district).

The whole of Manipur is geographically and administratively divided into valleys (specifically the Imphal valley) and hills. The valley is surrounded by hill ranges on all sides. The districts that fall under the valley are Bishnupur, Imphal East, Imphal West, Jiribam, Kakching and Thoubal. The districts that fall under the hill area are Chandel, Churachandpur, Kamjong, Kangpokpi, Noney, Pherzawl, Senapati, Tamenglong, Tengnoupal and Ukhrul. The hill districts have Autonomous District Councils, to which members are elected from each district councils. At present, there are six Autonomous Districts Councils in the state Viz. Churachandpur District Council, Chandel District Council, Kangpokpi District Council, Kangpokpi District Council, Tamenglong District Council and Ukhrul District Council. Formation of Autonomous District Councils in other hill districts are still under process.

According to the 2011 census the Meiteis (including the Pangals) form the majority group, constituting 65.8% of the whole population of the state. They are inhabiting the valley which is about 10.02% of the state's total geographical area. They are the non-tribal group falling under the General Category. Some scheduled caste and other backward classes are also found among them. The hill districts on the other hand are ethnically inhabited by the tribals, divided ethnically into Kukis and Nagas. They are categorised as scheduled tribes and divided into thirty-three tribes. The troubled population constitute about 34.2% of the total population of the state and they inhabit 89.98% of the total geographical area. The tribal population in the hills is further divided into two ethnic groups – the Kuki-Chin and the Naga groups. The Nagas are mainly found in the districts of Senapati, Tamenglong (including Noney), Ukhrul (including Kamjong). The Kuki-Chin groups are mainly found in the districts of Churachandpur (including Pherzawl), Chandel (including Tengnoupal) and Kangpokpi.

Politically the valley people are represented by 40 (out of 60) elected members in the State Assembly while the tribals are represented by only 20 (out of

which Kangpokpi A/C is unreserved) elected members in the State Assembly. The 65.8% percent of the population in the valley are represented by 40 members while the 34.2% of the population are represented by 20 members in the state assembly. In the parliament the valley people are represented by two members (one in Lok-Sabha and one Raja-Sabha) and the tribals are represented by only one member in the Lok-Sabha.

The issue of disparity in development between the valley and hill areas has been observed for a long time. Most government offices and important institutions are situated in Imphal valley. The socioeconomic inequalities continue to remain till today.

Religion wise, there is a sharp division among the non-tribals who settled in the valley and the tribals in the hills. The majority of the people inhabiting the valley districts follow Hinduism and some following their indigenous religion. On the other hand, the tribals in the hills are basically Christians. The Christians are further grouped themselves into different denominations. The major denominations are Baptist, Catholics, Evangelicals, Pentecostals, Presbyterians, and others.

Chandel District

Chandel district is one of the 16 districts of the state of Manipur. It is a tribal district with one Member of Legislative Assembly Constituency (41 Chandel A/C) which is a reserved seat for scheduled tribes. It is one of the most backward districts of the state. It was a sub-division until 1969 when Manipur was a single district territory with 10 sub-divisions. When the districts were reorganized in 1969 the entire Manipur was divided into five districts and 25 sub-divisions. At that time Chandel district (including both the present Chandel and Tengnoupal Districts) was called Tengnoupal. Tengnoupal sub-division became a full-fledged district in 1974 under Manipur Gazette Extraordinary No.30 dated 11-05-74 with three sub-divisions Viz. Chandel, Chakpikarong, and Tengnoupal. Later on, the district headquarters was shifted from Tengnoupal to Chandel under the Extra Ordinary Manipur Gazette Notification No.174 August 1983 the name of the district was changed from Tengnoupal to Chandel District.

On 4th January 1994, another sub-division namely, the Machi sub-division was added to the existing sub-divisions bifurcating from the then Tengnoupal sub-division. Another sub-division Khengjoi came into existence in 2011 bifurcating it from the then Chakpikarong subdivision (In some official records Khengjoi is spelled as Khengjoy. But the researcher here uses Khengjoi as found on the district website and it is the locally accepted spelling). Each sub-division had one Tribal Development Block (T.D Block). The name of the T.D Blocks is the same as that of the Sub-divisions. An exception to the above is Khengjoi Sub-division which has two T.D Blocks – Khengjoi and Khangbarol.

On the 9th of December 2016 Chandel District was bifurcated into two districts and the new district Tengnoupal came into existence. After the bifurcation Chandel district consists of three sub-divisions viz. Chandel, Chakpikarong and Khengjoi and four T.D Blocks Viz, Chandel, Chakpikarong, Khengjoi and Khangbarol.

The district has a separate autonomous district council called Chandel District Autonomous District Council with its Headquarters at Chandel. There are totally 26 members out of which 24 are elected from the 24 District Council Constituencies and two members are nominated to the council. Though Tengnoupal District was bifurcated from Chandel in 2016, the district council continues to remain the same, that is, it still remains as Chandel Autonomous District Council combining both the districts of Chandel and Tengnoupal.

Chandel district lies in the south-eastern part of Manipur. The headquarters is about 61 km away from the state capital, Imphal. The district came into existence on 13th May 1974. It is bounded by Myanmar (erstwhile Burma) in the south and east, Ukhrul and Kakching districts in the north, and Churachandpur district in the south and west. According to the 2011 general census (before the bifurcation of the district) the district has the second least population in the state and is inhabited by almost 20 different tribes. Anal, Aimol, Chothe, Chiru, Gangte, Kom, Lamkang, Maring, Moyon, Monsang, Tarao, Thadou, Vaiphei, and Zou are the prominent tribes scattered all over the district. All these tribes ethnically and historically belonged to the Kuki-Chin group. They have common ancestry, history and close affinity in

culture and tradition. However, in recent times, due various political developments and movement some of these tribes identified themselves as Nagas, leaving behind some in the Kuki fold, while others chose to remain neutral between the two and therefore form their own nomenclature. Therefore, in this study the terms Kuki and Nagas are loosely used. At present the tribes under the Kuki fold inhabiting the district are the Gangtes, Thadous, Vaipheis, and Zous.

The district is one of the least populated and is the most backward in Manipur.

This study is primarily taken up among the Kukis of Chandel District. For the purpose of the study Kuki villages include those villages who affiliate themselves to the Kuki Chiefs Association at the District and other subordination units/area/blocks. They mostly inhabited Khengjoi Sub-Division and parts of Chakpikarong Sub-Division. In Khengjoi Sub-Division, there are two constituencies under Chandel Autonomous District Council. They are 18- Songjang, represented by Shri Seithang Haokip of T. Nampao Village and 24 – Tolbung, represented by Shri Limkhojam Haokip of Tujung Village. Four Sample villages for the study for the hill villages are selected from both these constituencies.

In Chakpikarong Sub-Division they are mostly found in Sugnu Hill Areas (also called Gunpi area in local term), the foothill that connects the Valley and Hills and Kana Area. The Sugnu Hill Area is a separate constituency under Chandel District Autonomous Council. The name of the constituency is 22 - Sugnu Hill Area Coinstituency. When the study was taken up, the constituency was represented by Mr. Ngamkholal Baite, chief of Sugnu Tribal Village as the member in the council. The Kuki Village chiefs in this area organised themselves into Gunpi Area Kuki Chiefs Association (GAKCA) and act as a parent body for all the villages that fall under their jurisdiction. Apart from the chief association there is Kuki Students Organisation, Gunpi Block, a student body organisation among the Kukis in the area. Kana Area has another autonomous district council constituency, viz. 23-Sajik Tampak Constituency, represented by Khupkholen Haokip of Longja Village. The constituency represented by similar Kuki chiefs' association and Kuki Students

Organisation exists in the area. The sample villages among the foothill villages were selected from Sugnu Hill Area (Gunpi Area).

In the present study, out of the three Subdivisions, two subdivisions viz. Chakpikarong and Khengjoi Subdivisions were chosen. Chakpikarong subdivision represents the little advanced subdivision while Khengjoi represents the less advanced subdivision. The number of officially recorded main villages having village code numbers in Chakpikarong Subdivision is 108 while that of Khengjoi Subdivision is 63 giving the total number 171. Apart from these main villages, there are many villages recognized as hamlets of the main villages. From each sub-division four villages, each were selected for the study. The villages selected under Khengjoi sub-divisions are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joup, and H. Hengcham while the villages selected under Chakpikarong Block are Utangpokpi, New Keiphom, Singtom, and Ukon Thingkangphai. The categorization of the village is also based on its proximity to the nearest town and their topographical location.

Hill Villages

The hill villages here refer to those villages which are far from the district headquarters in the hilly regions of the district. Agriculture remains the main occupation, while fishing and hunting continue to be taken up by men in their free times. The location of the villages, due to bad connectivity of roads has been a major problem in accessing health care, education, government offices and other necessary items. Among the four villages Khengjang and L. Bongjoi are situated in the border area (India and Myanmar border) and had been beneficiaries of some important schemes under Border Area Development Project (BADP). These two villages are much warmer than the other two villages Viz. Saibol Joup and H. Hengcham which are situated in the hilly colder regions of the district. The two border villages have more access to market and health facilities in the Myanmar side of the border while the other two villages have those access in the second nearest town for them.

One common problem faced by all the villages was the displacement of villages during the Meitei militancy problem from 2005-2008 (approximate). They left their villages and took shelter in Moreh and Sugnu areas among their tribesmen. That was one of the biggest setbacks in their development. Though their houses were

not burnt or destroyed their years of sojourn changed the social, religious, and economic life of the people. After their return to the villages, they had to restart their social and economic life almost from the start. Saibol Joupi had to shift their village from the old location (the present site where Model Residential School construction is going on) to the present location for security's sake.

Within the last decade or two, there was tremendous change in the economic activities of the people in the area. Timber logging population in the border areas and Poppy cultivation become higher hill ranges. These two activities become profitable among all economic activities. Therefore, many people got engaged in those two activities. It had impacted the social, religious, and economic lives of the people. Many who were engaged in jhum farming left their occupation and began to engage themselves in those activities. Before the popularisation of those two activities, L. Bongjoi, for example, had cent per cent of the families engaged in jhum cultivation. However, during the data collection it was found that no family was engaged in jhum cultivation. Their land remained untouched or un-cultivated. Even the worship services were disturbed as many of the families were engaged in poppy cultivation in the colder regions, far away from their villages. Engaging in the said activities also gave economic boost to many people in the area. The timber businessmen organised themselves into an association called Dingpi Area Kuki Trucks Association (DAKTA). As they are economically better off than other lay people they began to influence the economic and social life of the people. Though they are basically an association of businessmen, there are instances where they play the role of philanthropic organisation through their yeoman service and as a sponsor group on many occasions.

The hill villages consist of those sample villages under Khengjoi Subdivision. They are Khengjang, L. Bongjoi, Saibol Joupi and H. Hengcham.

Foothill Villages

The foothill villages are located at the at the adjoining areas, the end of the valley of Kakching district and beginning of the hills of the Chandel district. It is on the boundary between Kakching district and Chandel District. In comparison to the hill villages, they are nearer to the district headquarters, Chandel. The nearest town,

Sugnu, is in Kakching district. From the said town people get many of their basic needs. Agriculture is taken up by many people as the main occupations but not so much as the hill villages do. Wetland cultivation is common among them. As compared to the hill villages, a higher number of people engaged themselves in governments and private jobs. Compared to the hill villages accessing health care, education, banks, government offices and other necessary services are easier. The Community Health Centre situated at Sugnu Town gives them first aid and other emergency cares. There are about 7 high schools and two higher secondary schools in the area which gives ample opportunity for the people to get high school and higher secondary school level education. The nearest police station and bank (SBI) are located at Sugnu town.

The hill villages consist of those sample villages under Chakpikarong subdivision. The selected villages are New Keiphom, Utangpokpi, Ukon Thingkangphai and Singtom villages.

Research Design

The study is cross-sectional in nature and descriptive in design. It employs both participatory and quantitative methods. The larger part of the study is based primarily on the quantitative data collected through a pretested, structured household interview schedule. The qualitative data were collected through key informant interviews and participatory methods.

Sampling

The present study is taken up both at the household as well as community (village) levels. Therefore, in the first level the unit of the study is the sample household and at the second level the unit of the study is a village community. The population of the study comprised all the households and villages in Chandel District, Manipur. The rationale behind adopting two levels of a unit of studies is that the benefit or returns from the social networks are at two levels-the individual and the group (Lin, 2001).

A multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select the sub-divisions, communities (villages), and households. The first stage is the selection of sub-divisions. Out of the three fully functional subdivisions two sub-divisions viz.

Khengjoi and Chakpikarong subdivision were chosen. Khengjoi sub-division represents the hills while the Chakpikarong represents the foothill areas. In comparison to the villages located in the hill ranges their location in the foothills is plainer and located proximate to the valley.

The second stage is the selection of villages. From the selected two sub-divisions four villages (communities) were chosen from each sub-division. In each of the sub-divisions, two developed or better villages and two less developed villages were chosen purposely.

The last stage of sampling was the selection of households. From the selected villages using stratified random sampling, households were selected across the poor and non-poor categories proportionately. In consultation with the community leaders in each locality, lists of households were prepared and were used for drawing the households systematically.

Tools of data collection

In each of the selected settlements, quantitative primary data was collected through a pre-tested structured interview schedule. Kobo Toolbox, an online open data kit (ODK), was used to design the interview schedule and the Kobo Collect, an android app, was used for data collection. The collected data comprise demographic profile of respondents, socio-demographic profile of sample households, living condition, social capital (position generator), community activism and participation, community satisfaction. Data was collected from a total of 224 households with the same number of respondents.

Data Processing and Analysis

For processing and analysing data SPSS and 'R' computer software was used. Simple averages, cross-tabulation, percentages, and Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation were used for the analysis of quantitative data.

Concepts and Operational Definitions

Communities in the present study refer to the tribal villages which are inhabited by a number of households. These village communities are classified as hill and foothill villages. Hill Villages are those ample villages situated in the interior hilly region far away from towns and cities. Foot Hill Villages are the villages

situated in the foothills which are nearer to towns and cities in comparison to the hill villages in the study. A household consists of family members that live under the same roof, dining together in the same kitchen.

Rural Development is the process of improving the quality of life, living conditions, and economic well-being of the people living in rural areas. In the present study rural development is operationalised in terms of community development. Community Development can be understood as the process of creating conditions for the socio-economic progress of the community with the participation of the members of the community thereby improving their living conditions. In the present study, it is measured in terms of objective and subjective indicators. The objective indicators include housing conditions and living conditions while the subjective dimension includes community satisfaction.

Social capital refers to the access to and use of resources embedded in the social networks. Three sets of measures were used to measure social capital at household level. They are inductive and deductive measures derived from the position generator instruments and civic measures. Position Generator is one of the measurement methods in social capital research where the respondents are asked if they know anyone from their networks who are among the listed occupations. The deductive measures of social capital used in this study are Maximum Prestige Accessed, Range of Prestige Accessed, Average Prestige Accessed, Total Prestige Accessed, Number of Positions Accessed, Maximum Prestige Utilised, Range of Prestige Utilised, Average Prestige Utilised, Total Prestige Utilised and Number of Positions Utilised. The inductive measures of social capital used in the study are Access to High Prestige Social Capital, Access to Low Prestige Social Capital, Proximity to High Prestige Social Positions, Proximity to low social positions, Utilisation of High Prestige Social Capital, Utilisation of Low Prestige Social Capital. Civic measures of social capital deal with the involvement of individuals in community life. The civic measures used in this study are community participation and community activism.

Mokken Scale Analysis

Mokken scale analysis was used to identify the fitness of indicators into the unidimensional scales of access, proximity and utilisation of social capital, community participation, community satisfaction and housing. Scalability Coefficients were used to assess the monotonicity of the scales and found most of the scales have single monotonicity. The indicators of access, proximity, utilisation, civic measures and community satisfaction measures were grouped on the basis of the dimensions identified inductively in the Mokken scale analysis (see table 1). A statistical software developed for the R platform for Mokken analysis by Vander Ark (2007) was used.

Table 1 Mokken’s Scalability and Reliability Coefficients

Sl.No	Scale	No of Items	Scalability Coefficients		Monotonicity
			Scale H	SHT	
I	Community Service Satisfaction				
	Community Satisfaction 01	4	0.581	0.248	Single
	Community Satisfaction 02	6	0.468	0.541	Single
II	Civic Measures				
	Community Activism	8	0.568	0.824	Double
	Community Participation	5	0.421	0.613	Single
III	Access to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	15	0.430	0.449	Single
	Low Prestige	5	0.488	0.810	Single
IV	Proximity to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	10	0.446	0.447	Single
	Low Prestige	6	0.349	0.363	Double
V	Utilisation of Social Capital				
	High Prestige	13	0.421	0.359	Single
	Low Prestige	7	0.405	0.505	Double
VI	Housing and Amenities				

	Housing	8	0.571	0.888	Single
	Amenities	15	0.604	0.734	Single

Source: Computed

Reliability Analysis

Table 2 Reliability Coefficients of the Scales

Sl. No	Scale	No of Items	Reliability Coefficients		
			'MS'	Alpha	Lambda.2
I	Community Service Satisfaction				
	Community Satisfaction01	4	0.815	0.793	0.812
	Community Satisfaction 02	6	0.839	0.807	0.824
II	Civic Measures				
	Activism	8	0.688	0.640	0.671
	Participation	5	0.795	0.712	0.757
III	Access to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	15	0.840	0.827	0.837
	Low Prestige	5	0.705	0.699	0.705
IV	Proximity to Social Capital				
	High Prestige	10	0.863	0.827	0.846
	Low Prestige	6	0.699	0.683	0.688
V	Utilisation of Social Capital				
	High Prestige	13	0.822	0.806	0.817
	Low Prestige	7	0.691	0.665	0.673
VI	Housing and Amenities				
	Housing	8	0.821	0.797	0.822
	Amenities	15	0.890	0.867	0.883

Source: Computed

The reliability of the scales used to assess the social capital and community development was assessed with the help of reliability coefficients of MS, Alpha and Lambda.2 available with the statistical software developed by Ark (2007) for

Mokken scale analysis in the R platform. The inductive measures of social capital, community participation, community service satisfaction as well as housing were found to have high reliability in terms of these three measures mostly.

Limitations of the study

The first limitation of the study is that the information on livelihood and living conditions collected may not be cent per cent accurate as the people do not maintain their accounts of their assets, income, expenditure, etc. However, the researcher made every effort to enhance the accuracy of the data.

Secondly, the burning down of Chassad village in Kamjong District of Manipur by some miscreants from the neighbouring village on March 16, 2020, caused communal tension in the state for a while. This was the time when the researcher was in the field for data collection (in the first phase). The untoward situation influenced the mental and emotional state of the studied population.

Thirdly, the second limitation is that the covid-19 pandemic during the data collection gave a tremendous setback to the studies which compelled the researcher to collect data in different phases. The first phase was a pre-covid time in the month of February and early part of March 2020. The second phase of collection was done in the post-lockdown and post recovery from in 2021. It is highly possible that the covid-19 experiences and the lockdown might have an impact on the respondents' perception in responding to some important sections in the questionnaire. This will further impact the results of the study.

Fourthly, as highlighted by Snijders and Flap (2008), position generator measures focus on accessing networks of those positions with occupational titles and prestige and do not include traditional occupations that do not have occupational titles and prestige. The same system is being followed in this research as well. This limitation of the measurement may lead to negligence of some important aspects of social capital. The limitation of Position Generator in investigation of expressive actions with social capital as expressed by Gaag et al (2004) was also faced in the present study also, thereby adding limitations to the study.

Scientific and education researchers have their own scientific and systematic proceedings depending on the nature of the study and discipline in which the study is

being carried out. The validity of the methodology used in the study will help in validating the findings and the research implications that will be derived. Understanding of the research methodology will also help in understanding the nature of the study.

Conclusion

Though the usage of the concept of social capital is about a century old, its popularity and popular usage is just about half a century. It was popularised in the west in the later part of the second-half of the 20th century. In the Indian context the concept is picking up its popularity in social sciences research. In the North east context, the studies are minimal and for the state of Manipur social capital studies in the context of the state is not yet known. The multifaceted nature and the complexities in measurements adds to its unpopularity. In this study social capital concept is studied in relation to rural community development focusing on the social resources embedded in social networks (Lin, 2001) and the civic engagement - community participation and activism (Putnam, 2000)

From the physical and temporal features of the villages it was observed that all the villagers underwent shifting of villages from one place to another due to different reasons. The villages were one way or the other affected by ethnic conflicts and violence in one way or the other whereby they were economically, psychologically, socially, and politically. Basic government facilities such as Anganwadi, primary school (except for two villages), ASHA, community hall, water supply facilities through hand pump or tanks were available in all the villages. Significant differences were observed with regards to access to market, banks, police station, educational institutions, government offices, road and transport, electricity, etc. which were better in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

The ethnic and religious composition was found to be homogeneous as all the sample households ethnically belonged to the Kuki-Chin ethnic tribes and Christianity as the main religion. The male-female composition was 50:50, which was a positive sign of gender equality and acceptance of the female gender in a patriarchal society. Significant differences were observed in the educational and economic status in which the foothill villages fare better than the hill villages. The higher economic

dependency rate of the foothill villager can be further related to the engagement of more children and youth in educational institutions for studies.

Rural community development was assessed objectively through living conditions and housing conditions and subjectively through community satisfaction of social services. In most of the objective indicators the foothill villagers have better living and housing conditions. Objectively the foothill villages showed a better living standard and higher level of development. Significant differences were found between the two types of villages in all objective indicators wherein the foothill villages were better than the hill villages in all these aspects. With regards to subjective indicators also significant differences were found between the types of villages. But here, there is a twist. Community satisfaction on basic services is higher among the hill villagers than the foothill villages. On the other hand, community satisfaction on secondary services is higher among the foothill villages than the hill villages.

From the inductive and deductive measures of social capital, it was found that the pattern of distribution of social capital was similar in most cases between both the types of villages. In the inductive measures access to low prestige social capital, proximity to low prestige social capital and utilisation of low prestige social capital were found to be significantly higher among the foothill villages. In the deductive measures access had no significant differences between the two villages. However, the differences lie in the usage of social capital. The foothill villages were found to be more prominent in using the available social capital than the hill villages. Utilisation of maximum prestige, range of prestige and number of positions were significantly higher among the foothill villages than the hill villages. This usage of the available social capital can be connected to most of the objective indicators of rural development in which the foothill villages have fared better than the hill villages. This reflects Lin's (2005) second theoretical approach to social resources which talks about utility of the resources. The approach pointed out that when the access resources are used more there are more benefits received in return.

Civic engagements both in community participation and activism have positive influence on objective indicators of development. However no significant

relations were found except between housing condition index and community activism. On the other hand, civic engagements had a negative impact on subjective indicators of community development. Both community participation and community activism had negative relations with community satisfaction. However, there was no significant relations found among them.

The foothill villages, despite better infrastructure and access have lower levels of community satisfaction with regards to the primary services than the hill villages in basic services. The reason behind the negative impact over community satisfaction could be that the more people engage themselves in community activities and activism they become more aware of the rights and benefits which they are supposed to get. This awareness might have led to higher expectation thereby desiring more from what they get. Social capital and community participation is found to have more impact on rural development in the foothill villages than the hill villages.

It may be concluded that though there may be many similarities in the composition of social capital between the two types of villages, it is the utilisation of social capital that ultimately has influence on rural community development. However, in the present study the differences in patterns of social capital are not substantially high. Though there may be access to and proximity to social position, if they are not utilised, the resources embedded in those networks remain dormant and do not give return benefits. The more utilised the resources, the more benefits one gets out of those networks. This agrees with Lin's second theoretical approach to social capital wherein he stated that "if the social capital is used more, there are more benefits."

From the whole study it is concluded that social capital does have bearing on rural development to a certain extent. Access, use, proximity to social positions were found to be contributing towards rural development in the tribal district. In this regard low prestige social capital is found to be having bearing on rural development. On the other hand, access to high positions was found to be not contributing to rural development. Level of satisfaction in both the types of villages were found to be low.

Implications of the Study

Network and support systems are an important part of social work practice. Network analysis in social support systems both focuses on organised support group that can be helpful for those people within the social networks in times of need (Payne, 1997). By understanding the client's or community's networks, social workers can render better help and support to them. Networks according to Seed (1990) is a 'system or pattern of links between points... which have particular meaning for those involved.' The nature and type of social networks have effects on the lives of people at different stages of life. In this context the present study, which probed into the impact of the uses of social resources embedded in social networks and civic engagement on rural community development has its relevance in social work. Karen Headly & Anne Hampshire (2008) explored the implication of social capital in social work practice in Australia and noted that the concept of community building has much to do with social capital. In spite of social capital being contested among many thinkers they contended that progressive social work in its practice has many contributions and gains from the social capital concept. They concluded that proper understanding of social capital by social workers can improve their capacity and foster growth in their profession.

The implication of the study is presented in two subsections- suggestions and scope for further research.

Suggestions

From the results of the present study the following suggestions for social policy advocacy and social work practice are put forth.

1. The prevalence of a lower rate of literacy was observed in the hill villages. Education being one of the wheels for development needs to be taken seriously. For this proper and better functioning of primary and junior schools be made available and the establishment of high school and higher secondary schools in the hill villages is highly needed.
2. Absolute majority of the earning members of the family did not have a secondary occupation or source of income. The high dependency on a single source of income can be risky for a family's sustainability and development. Therefore, motivation for taking up secondary occupations in the form of self-employment and

entrepreneurships is the hope to maintain the family's sustainability and boost their economy.

3. In both the two objective indicators of rural development viz. living condition, housing condition, it was observed that the hills lag behind the foothill villages. Improvement of housing through implementation of relevant schemes and awareness on proper housing for healthy living will help to a great extent.

4. The lack of proper infrastructures and services related to health, education, communication, market, banking, etc., in the hill villages is a great concern. Building or development of such infrastructures and services and making sure of its proper functioning will help in overcoming the backwardness of the area.

5. From the study it was found that though scarcely available, it is the utilisation of social capital that ultimately had a significant impact on the development of rural communities. Therefore, people should be made aware that it is not enough just to have connections with people in certain positions. The resources embedded in them need to be tapped and utilised in order to gain the benefits out of the networks.

Scope for Further Research

In the light of the research experience gained during the present study the following suggestions are put forward for further research:

1. The conceptual and operational framework of social capital and community development developed and used in the present study may be applied in the context of the other states in North east India. Studies on social capital and patterns of rural community development can be conducted to have a larger understanding of social capital dynamics in relation to development in the rural areas.

2. Comparative studies on endowment of social capital between the tribals and non-tribal population of Manipur can be taken up to understand the dynamics of social capital and its impact on community development on a larger scale with heterogeneous groups.

3. The present study used position generator instruments to measure the access and utilisation of social capital which has helped to derive inductive and deductive measures of social capital which have significant bearing on the instrumental variables or objective indicators of community development. To assess the bearing of

social capital on the subjective and affective measures of community development such as community service satisfaction the use of resource generator instruments is suggested.

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