

**VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS AND LIVELIHOOD
PROMOTION IN MIZORAM**

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**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of
Master of Philosophy in Social Work, Mizoram University, Aizawl**

**For the 1.3 billion lives
who are living with less than a dollar and a half per day**

Mizoram University

July, 2014

Declaration

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

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the degree of Master of Philosophy in Social Work Department.

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July, 2014

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation *Voluntary Organisations and Livelihood Promotion in Mizoram* submitted by Mr. B. Lalrinkima for the award of Master of Philosophy in Social Work is carried out under my guidance and incorporates the students 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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Acknowledgement

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my guide, Dr. Kanagaraj Easwaran, Associate Professor and Head, Department of Social Work, Mizoram University. It is only through his abled guidance, his encouragement and his genuine interest in the subject that I can see the completion of this dissertation. Besides his expertise and intellectual knowledge, the patience, the perseverance and the valuable time he dedicated for this research, I am grateful for each and every second.

I am really grateful to the staff of the two organisations, RADP and OD. It is through their endless support that I was able to collect comprehensive and reliable data for the research. And the same gratitude goes to all the hard-working farmers from the four villages, for their cooperation and kindness during my field work.

My profound gratitude goes to the list of individuals, without them, it is next to impossible to complete my journey. Here is a sincere “thank you” to all the faculty members in the Department of Social Work, Mizoram University, my classmates- Mr. Lallianzela, Mr. Issac Lalmuanpuia, Ms. Catherine, Ms. Lalchhuansangi and Ms. Lalmuanpuii, my endless supporter- Mr Kevin Zatluanga. My family members and all other relatives, I am truly indebted to the constant encouragement and support. And to Ms. Anusuya Kanagaraj, those cups of coffee and tea are always such a heart-warming indulgence, thank you very much.

Above all, it is through the grace and guidance of God that this work has seen its completion.

Thank you

(B. LALRINKIMA)

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

AMFU	All Mizoram Farmers Union
BCED	Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development
BDO	Block Development Officer
BSNL	Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CDAR	Community Development Action and Reflection
CO	Charitable Organisation
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DFID	Department for International Development
DRF	Development Research Foundation
FTP	Farmer's Training Programme
GO	Grassroots Organisation
GOI	Government of India
GoM	Government of Mizoram
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ICNPO	International Classification of Non-Profit Organisation
IFRC	International Federation of Red Crescent Societies
IIE	Indian Institute of Entrepreneurship
INGO	International Non-governmental Organisation
KVIC	Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC)
MHIP	Mizo Hmeichhe Insuihkhawm Pawl
MIFCO	Mizoram Food and Allied Industries Corporation Ltd
MNF	Mizo National Front
MUP	Mizo Upa Pawl
MZP	Mizo Zirlai Pawl
NABARD	National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development

NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NH	National Highway
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
NRTT	Navajbai Ratan Tata Trust
OD	Open Doors
PDS	Public Distribution System
PO	People's Organisation
PVO	Private Voluntary Organisation
QUANGO	Quasi-Nongovernmental Organisation
R.D	Rural Development
RADP	Rural Agriculture Development Programme
SA	Salvation Army
SHG	Self Help Group
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TSO	Third Sector Organisation (TSO)
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UPC	United Pentecostal Church
VO	Voluntary Organisation
YMA	Young Mizo Association

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study intends to understand the operational strategies of Voluntary Organisations and their impact on livelihood and living conditions of rural poor in Mizoram.

1.1 Poverty and Livelihood Promotion

In a mere simple term, poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being. Haughton and Khandker, 2009 elaborate poverty in monetary terms, according to this view the conventional view links well-being primarily to command over commodities, so the poor those who do not have enough income or consumption to put them above some adequate minimum threshold. It is the inability to satisfy one's basic needs because one lacks income to buy services or from lack of access to services. Poverty is also viewed as an indicator of lack of access to resources and income opportunities, but it has other aspects of social positioning such as geographical location, age, gender, class, ethnicity, community structure, and political issues that determine poor's people's vulnerability (Yodmani, 2001). As per the World Bank estimate one-sixth of the global population live in an extreme poverty which accounts for 1.3 billion people. Of these, about 400 million people in absolute poverty lived in India and 173 million people in China. In terms of percentage of regional populations, sub-Saharan Africa at 47% had the highest incidence rate of absolute poverty in 2008. Between 1990 and 2010, about 663 million people moved above the absolute poverty level.

India is a vast nation, the largest democracy of the world with a population of 1,027 million (GOI, Census 2001) living in a geographic area of 3,300,000 square kilometres. It is also the seventh largest country. Although India accounts for 2.4% of the world's surface area, it supports 16.7% of the world's population. Regarded as one of the oldest civilizations with a rich and variegated cultural heritage, the country during the 60 years of independence has demonstrated progress on several fronts-agriculture, self-sufficiency and a fair degree of

industrialization. It is the tenth industrialized country in the world and sixth to have gone into outer space. On the flip side, 260 million Indians live in poverty, the largest number in any single country in the world. Over 80% of the poor belong to the socially disadvantaged groups (such as scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes). Nearly half of the child population remains malnourished. This history and cultural diversity are of enormous significance from the point of view of understanding community development. In 1947, as a new nation free from nearly 200 years of colonial rule, there were several challenges. Feudalism with widespread poverty, very low literacy levels alongside social and economic inequalities characterised the Indian society. Over 90% of the population lived in rural areas where agriculture was dependent on the monsoons and the standard of living was very low. The economic strategy of the 1950s was based on the assumption that an accelerated growth rate would help reduce poverty. In most parts of the country, power and wealth were concentrated in the hands of a few. Although enormous efforts were made to implement redistributive measures such as land reforms, progress was slow and the socialist goals met only partial success. The Indian Constitution under the Directive Principles of State Policy held out a promise that the state would attempt to maintain a minimum standard of living for all its citizens.

Along with the raised in population, the number of unemployment, landless labour, and poverty is increasing. These cases are much more visible in the rural context rather than the urban population, where the annual earning through agriculture had gone down due to unpredictable natural climate and low harvest and draught. Development with a mere single digit growth does not have concrete and meaningful effect to the rural and marginalized section of the society. The problems on rural poverty cannot be addressed by improving agriculture alone; consideration also had to be made improvement of health, education and most importantly employment. Employment generation in rural areas cannot be done in large

scale; it needed meticulous planning so as to have accountability and participation from the villagers themselves. As per the Planning Commission, GOI, the Mizoram is one of the few states where poverty has increased whilst the all India poverty ratio declined from 37.2% in 2004-05 to 29.8% in 2009-10. Mizoram has seen a jumped from 15.5% to 21.1% in 2004-05 and 2009-10 respectively. With 49% of the population living in the rural areas and number of population living below poverty line in rural Mizoram is 58.2% in 1992 and 47.9% in 2002 (State level monitoring Cell, Rural Development Dept., Govt. Of Mizoram), the rural livelihood condition had fallen drastically. And till date the unproductive, laborious way of farming, Shifting Cultivation is still practice in rural areas. Agriculture is the main sources of income in every household. With the increasing unstable rainfall pattern and pest breakout, the harvest is considerably low and not self-sufficient leading to low annual income for every household.

The fight against poverty has been a long struggle and imperative to every functioning of government across the globe. Be it a socialist or capitalist, there is no silver bullet and one step panacea in eradication of poverty. Around the world, there is wide recognition that societal problems and poverty cannot be resolved by governments acting on their own, nor can markets be relied upon as the sole alternative to the state (Brinkerhoff 1999). The ‘government failure’ demanded a new debate on governance, stating the collaborative role of divergent actors such as public-sector Organisations , private Organisations, and the civil society organisations (Warren and Weschler, 1999). As a result, there has been a faster rise of civil society Organisations and an increased partnership between public, non-profit and the profit-oriented Organisations. Voluntary Organisations have developed at the cutting edge of the market, the state, and the civil society, their role has become an area of interest among various stakeholders. They are also being considered as important institutional actors for

mobilizing community assets, motivating people, and implementing social welfare programs effectively (Shah et. al 1986).

1.2. Overview of Literature

The concept of volunteerism is not new to Mizo society. However, the available literature relevant to this study is relatively limited when it comes to Mizoram context. There are extensive documents generated by scholars, researchers, academicians and development professionals on development and the role of NGOs for South Asia and the African continent. But only few writings can be seen with Indian context and even rarer when coming further to local context.

According to Chambers and Conway (1992) a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term.

As per DFID (Department for International Development, 1999) delineation, a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities needed for a means of living - and is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from shocks and stresses, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets and provide sustainable opportunities for the next generation. The sustainable livelihoods approach considers vulnerabilities as the main factor that shapes how people make their living.

Overview of literature indicates that globally literature on voluntary organisation present an extensive coverage on definition, evolution and classification of voluntary organization as an independent entity. Further, studies of VOs in India focused on organization addressing issues of minorities and their mobilisation pattern. Few literature

focused on discussing the working of VOs in terms of services (health, education and micro enterprise) and strategies (advocacy, need base and empowerment).

The available literature relevant to this study is relatively limited when it comes to Mizoram context. There are extensive documents generated by scholars, researchers, academicians and development professionals on development and the role of NGOs for South Asia and the African continent. But only few writings can be seen with Indian context and even rarer when coming further to local context.

The present study attempts to address these research gaps with a comparative assessment of two voluntary organisations and on their role in rural development from a sustainable livelihood perspective.

1.3. Theoretical Framework: Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) is a “multiple capital” approach wherein sustainability is measured in terms of available capital (natural, human, social, physical and financial) and consideration of the vulnerability context (trends, shocks and stresses) in which these assets exist. Aadopted from DFID (Department for International Development) – the SLF schematically presents the various components of an analytical framework to analyse livelihood (Carney, 1998; Scoones, 1998; and Ellis, 2000). Usually, livelihood analysis begins with the taking stock and specifying the key resources people have at their disposal. Resources are a key component of livelihood. They may be tangible resources (such as land or cattle) but many are non-tangible. It also stresses the need to maintain an outcome force, thinking about how development activity effects upon people’s livelihoods, not only about immediate project outputs. An analysis of livelihoods needs to take into account the ways in which people use and organise access to resources, deal and negotiate with institutions, and live and work in a particular socio-cultural-economic and historical context, which itself is the product of a particular configuration of global and local processes.

Certain components or assets are required to make a living. These assets can conveniently be divided into 5 main groups for ease of analysis.

1. Financial - sources of income, assets which can be traded or sold, savings, financial services, etc. These are objects, resources or activities that can generate cash. A person sells their labour for cash; a person runs a small business to generate cash, sells his/her labour, etc.
2. Natural - soil, water, forest, environmental assets, etc. These are natural resources such as the land used to produce crops or grazing, the river which provides fish and the forest which provides wild food, timber, fuel and other useful products for consumption or sale.
3. Physical - houses, schools, clinics, roads, ploughs producer goods accessible by community, etc. These are the physical structures such as buildings, including shops and markets and include the tools used in making a living such as ploughs, blacksmith's tools etc.
4. Human - health, skills, education, knowledge, confidence etc. These are the qualities which help one make a living such as knowledge; knowing how to do things, the ability to work due to good health, and confidence, a sense of self-worth, or motivation.
5. Social - family links, groups, support networks, leadership, influences over political decisions, conflict, etc. People are more resilient, able to withstand threats to their livelihoods when there is group cohesion. The family structure, support from groups (women's groups, churches etc.), a sense of belonging and leaders who actively promote the well-being of their constituents all contribute to the resilience of a community.

Broadly speaking, if people have access to a broader range of assets or resources, they have more choices and are able to adapt more easily to changing circumstances. The quality

and security of these resources is also important - for example the fertility and security of tenure of land and financial resources that keep their value.

The sustainable livelihoods framework describes the different aspects of peoples' vulnerability while pointing to the social, political and economic structures and processes which influence vulnerability.

Sustainable livelihoods framework

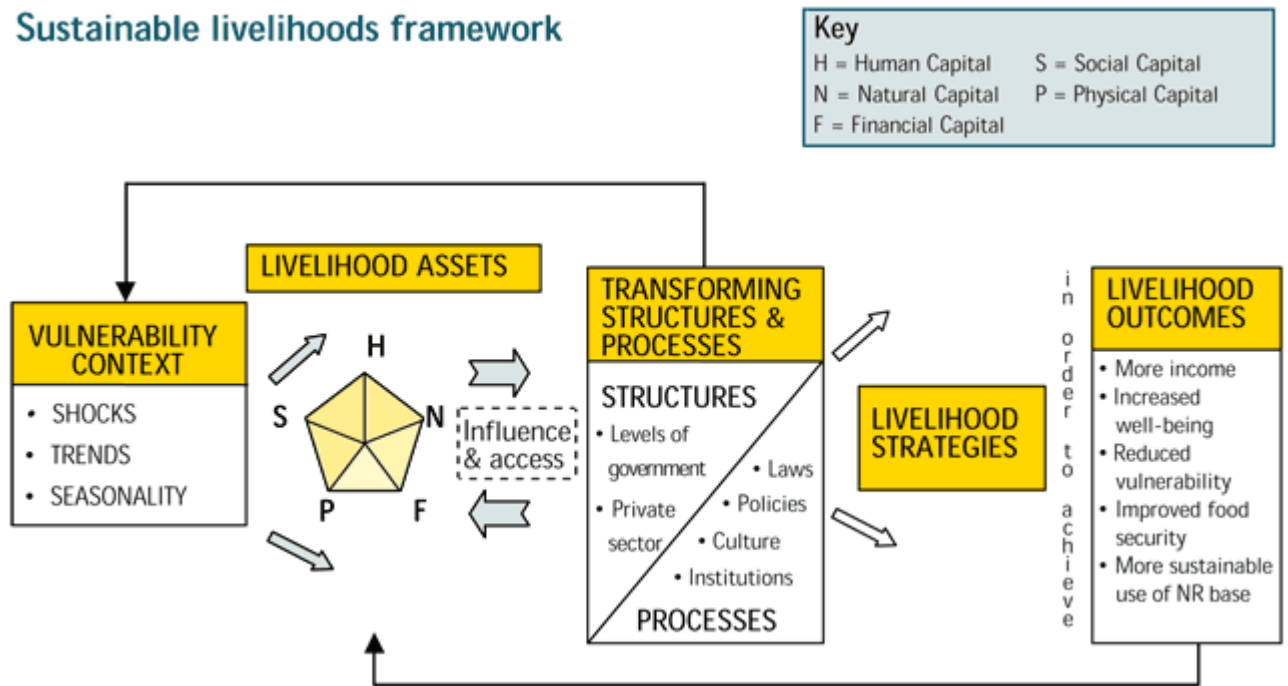


Figure 1.1: Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Other factors affect people's ability to pursue a sustainable choice of livelihood. Policies, institutions and legislation operating at various levels from local to international, can either support or hinder people in making a living. Institutions such as schools, health services, or agricultural extension agencies, can significantly enhance people's human assets if they are functioning properly. The existence of an "enabling environment" is an important element contributing to the sustainability and resilience of the livelihoods of the poor. But poor people usually have least influence over policies or access to institutions; they lack a voice in decision making.

People have to cope with hazards and stresses, such as earthquakes, erratic rainfall, diminishing resources, pressure on the land, epidemics such as HIV/AIDS, chaotic markets, increasing food prices, inflation, and national and international competition. The uncertainties and risks created by hazards and stresses influence how people manage and use their available resources, and the choices people make.

In the event of disasters, when the impact of a hazard or shock overwhelms the ability to cope, the poor and their livelihoods are the hardest hit. The small and cottage industries often suffer substantial losses, both in terms of damaged property and missed opportunities. The livelihoods of marginal and small farmers, artisans and fishermen are most affected in disasters through the loss of assets, and loss of employment opportunities.

1.4 Statement of the problem

With an estimation of 1.3 billion people in the world living in extreme poverty and having problems meeting basic necessities food, water, shelter and health services, there is a serious concern and need for the operational strategies of poverty eradication among different institutions across the globe. The recent strategies mostly concentrate on the programs focus on poverty eradication and social sector development, local empowerment, and gender issues through livelihood promotion.

India is a vast nation, the largest democracy of the world with a population of 1,027 million (GOI, Census 2001) living in a geographic area of 3,300,000 square kilometres. On the flip side, 260 million Indians live in poverty, the largest number in any single country in the world. Over 80% of the poor belong to the socially disadvantaged groups (such as scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes). Looking into North Eastern region of the country, the situation on poverty is even graver. According to Census 2001, Govt. of India, the North East region is one of the most neglected and poorest in the country

with a per capita income of R. 12,407/- which is less than the national average of Rs.17,978/-. It is predominantly rural, with over 84% of the population living in the countryside.

The approach towards the poverty eradication move towards “bottom up approach”, “sustainability” and “empowerment”. Due to the close connection with masses at grassroots level and community institutions, NGOs can play a critical role in ensuring the benefits go to marginalised groups, and in mobilising community organisation to benefit the poor section of the society; they can also be the better implementers in the rural sector. However, the involvement of NGOs in livelihood promotion, the role of NGO in poverty eradication and their impact at the policy level, both at local and national level is less studied.

In Mizoram, till March 31, 2013 a total of 2,448 NGOs are registered under Firms and Societies, Govt. of Mizoram. Majority can be grouped under welfare based organisation whose services are largely voluntary and on a need base. Unlike other parts of the country, till date there are only a few significant collaborations between the State and the NGOs in Mizoram. Most of these partnerships are focusing on awareness generation and advocacy and a larger chunk to moral-policing. NGO and Government coordination needs to improve to secure an enhanced NGO involvement in rural development projects; the existing NGOs need to broaden the scope of their activities and take steps to build a conscious focus on rural development (Das, 2004). Collaboration between the NGO and the State is even rarer when it comes to livelihood promotion; therefore in Mizoram context, empirical studies relating to the roles of NGOs in improving livelihood of the poor rural people, sustainable development of the state and management capability of the NGOs are absent.

In this context the study will investigate the dynamics of VOs operational strategies of livelihood promotion their impact on livelihood assets of the poor and their impact actual living conditions of rural poor from a sustainable livelihood perspective (Chambers and Conway, 1992). The study will try to probe into the strategies adopted by VOs, the role of

them, in improving the livelihood of the beneficiaries, relationship between VOs and other stakeholders and finally the impact of them on the livelihood of the beneficiaries.

1.5 Objectives

The general objective of this study is to examine the operational strategies of voluntary organisation in relation to their livelihood interventions. The following are the specific objectives of the present study:

1. To explore into the vulnerability context of rural poor households from an emic perspective.
2. To understand the livelihood promotion strategies of voluntary organisations.
3. To examine the impact of livelihood interventions on livelihood assets of the rural households.
4. To assess the impact of livelihood assets on the living conditions of the rural households.
5. To suggest measures for promoting rural livelihood by social workers and policy makers.

1.6 Hypotheses

The present study attempts to test the empirical validity of the following hypotheses

1. The livelihood promotion strategies of voluntary Organisations enhance the livelihood and the living conditions of the rural households.
2. There is direct relationship between livelihood assets and living conditions of the rural households.

These hypotheses draw their inspiration from the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (Chambers and Conway, 2000).

1.7 Chapter Scheme

The study is presented into following seven chapters.

Chapter I: Introduction

Chapter II: Review of Literature

Chapter III: Methodology

Chapter IV: Rural Vulnerability Context and Livelihood Promotion of VOs

Chapter V: Socio Economic Structural Bases

Chapter VI: Voluntary Interventions and Livelihood Improvement

Chapter VII: Patterns of Rural Livelihood and Living Conditions

Chapter VIII: Conclusion and Suggestions

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the one being undertaken (Creswell, 2009). It relates the study to an ongoing, larger dialogue in the literature, extending prior study and filling research gaps (Cooper, 1984; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). This chapter is presented in four sections. The first section is a review of literature on the concept of voluntary organisations; the second section is the studies on sustainable livelihood; the next section is concerned with vulnerability context of rural poor. The last section is devoted to voluntary organisations and livelihood promotion.

2.1 Voluntary Organisations

On account of vast and varied areas of functioning, it is difficult to identify Voluntary Organisations (VOs) as a single entity. Different terms and terminologies have been used to refer a Voluntary Organisations which are interchangeable and are often found overlapping to one another. The list includes: Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO), Non-Profit Organisation (NPO), Charitable Organisation (CO), Private Voluntary Organisation (PVOs), Third Sector Organisation (TSO), Voluntary Organisation (VO), Grassroots Organisation (GO), Civil Society Organisation (CSO), People's Organisation (PO), Community-based Organisation (CBO), Quasi-Nongovernmental Organisation (QUANGO) etc.

There is no unanimity in defining what constitutes a voluntary organisation. Willetts (2012) argues the concept of Voluntary Organisation can be interpreted differently by various Organisations and depending on the situational context. He defines a Voluntary Organisation as “an independent voluntary association of people acting together on a continuous basis for some common purpose other than achieving government office, making money or illegal activities. Depending upon the functional characteristics and their roles, VO or NGOs can be

defined upon 'functional criteria', specifically confined the entire activities of NGOs within the realm of 'social and welfare' services (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1980).

The World Bank's operational directive on VOs defines VO as "a wide variety of groups and institutions that are entirely or largely independent of government and characterised primarily by humanitarian or co-operative, rather than commercial objectives." According to Pokharel (2000) VO is that entity which should have "at least four features such as: development oriented, non-political, democratic in character, and non-profit making" (Pokharel, 2000). Korten (2000) feels that the civil society organisations are composed of the informed individuals who "also lead naturally to an authentic market economy in which the goal is to provide productive and satisfying livelihoods for all, most enterprises are local, and every person has an ownership stake in the productive assets on which their livelihood depends. Such society would embody the principles of radical self-organisation common to all healthy living systems and provide maximum opportunity for each individual to develop and express their full creative potential toward the continued unfolding of the possibilities of the living whole."

As per the International Classification of Non-Profit Organisation (ICNPO) 1990, non-profit organisation or voluntary organisation can be attributed with five basic features as follows: (i) it is formal, that is, the organisation is institutionalized in that it has regular meetings, office bearers and some organisational permanence; (ii) it is private in that it is institutionally separate from government, though it may receive some support from government; (iii) it is non-profit distributing, and if a financial surplus is generated it does not accrue to owners or directors; (iv) it is self-governing and therefore able to control and manage its own affairs; (iv) and finally it is voluntary, and even if it does not use volunteer staff as such, there is at least some degree of voluntary participation in the conduct or management of the organisation, such as in the form of a voluntary board of directors.

Anheier and Salamon (1992) tried to discuss the conceptual issues of voluntary organisations and defined them in a more comprehensive way. They defined VOs from four perspectives: *legal*, *economic/financial*, *functional*, and *structural-operational*. According to legal definition, the creation of a VO should be based on legal provision. This definition seeks a more formal definition of VOs; however, the scope of flexibility working jurisdiction could differ from country to country, which make difficult to put the VOs in a same legal basket. The economic/financial definition tries to limit the VO funding from government to not more than fifty percent. Again, problems could occur as many of the VOs in developing countries are funded either by bilateral money or official grant funds. The functional approach emphasizes functions, purposes, and working methods of the VO. Despite the scientific temperament of this approach, the functional roles and principles could differ from organisation to organisation. Finally, the structural/operational definition tries to sketch the boundary of non-profit sector from the market and the state. It does not recognise only the purposes of the organisations or their sources of income, but also their basic structure and operation.

2.2 Sustainable Livelihood

Sustainability connotes self-sufficiency and an implicit ideology of long term self-restraint and self-reliance. It is used to refer to life styles which touch earth lightly; to organic agriculture with low external inputs; to institutions which can raise their own revenue; to processes which are self-supporting without subsidy. Socially in the livelihood context, sustainability in a more focused manner is the ability to maintain and improve livelihoods while maintaining or enhancing the local and global assets and capabilities on which livelihoods depends (Chambers, Conway, 1991). The two terms are inked together as an integrating concept connoting to security. Livelihood is defined as adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs. Sustainability refers to the maintenance or

enhancement of resource productivity on a long term basis. A household may be enabled to gain sustainable livelihood security in many ways- through ownership of land, livestock or trees; rights to grazing, fishing, hunting or gathering through stable employment with adequate remuneration or through repertoires of activities.

According to Carney (1998), a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.”

The sustainable livelihoods idea was first introduced by the Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development, and the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development expanded the concept, advocating for the achievement of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal for poverty eradication. The concept of Sustainable Livelihood (SL) is an attempt to go beyond the conventional definitions and approaches to poverty eradication. These had been found to be too narrow because they focused only on certain aspects or manifestations of poverty, such as low income, or did not consider other vital aspects of poverty such as vulnerability and social exclusion. It is now recognized that more attention must be paid to the various factors and processes which either constrain or enhance poor people’s ability to make a living in an economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable manner.

The coherent and integrated approach to define sustainable livelihood was defined by R. Chambers and G. Conway (1992); a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next

generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term. Of the various components of a livelihood, the most complex is the portfolio of assets out of which people construct their living, which includes both tangible assets and resources, and intangible assets such as claims and access. Any definition of livelihood sustainability, the authors argued, has to include the ability to avoid, or more usually to withstand and recover from, such stresses and shocks.

Further, I. Scoones (1998) explained the sustainable livelihood concept wherein a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base.

A sustainable livelihood is a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development, in order to enhance progress in poverty elimination. According to studies conducted by Ashely and Carney (1999), sustainable livelihood must aims to help poor people achieve lasting improvements against the indicators of poverty that they define. The premise is that the effectiveness of development activity can be improved through: systematic – but manageable – analysis of poverty and its causes; taking a wider and better informed view of the opportunities for development activity, their likely impact and ‘fit’ with livelihood priorities; and placing people and the priorities they define firmly at the centre of analysis and objective-setting.

N. Uphoff (1998) discussed the different factors that contribute of Sustainable Livelihoods and Development which include appropriate technologies, supportive policies, different ethics, and changes in individual behaviour. According to the author, one contributing factor that deserves more attention is local institutions and their concomitant, local participation. In his paper, he described local institutions as local governments (village

level), user associations or service organisations including voluntary organisation. These institutions are important for mobilising resources and regulating their use with a view to maintain a long term base for proactive activity. In turn, available resources can be put to their most efficient and sustainable use with location- specific knowledge, which is best generated and interpreted locally. Monitoring changes in resources' status can be quicker and less costly where local people are involved; making adaptive changes in resource use is speeded up where local decision- making has become institutionalised. People's behaviour is conditioned by community norms and consensus, so preserving or instituting practices that are environmentally sound requires more than just individual incentives and persuasion.

2.3 Vulnerability context of Rural Poor

Vulnerability denotes a negative condition that limits the abilities of individuals, communities and regions to resist certain devastating processes and improve their well-being. There are, however, differences in interpreting the basic notion of vulnerability, which has led to definitional splits in the vulnerability literature. According to Chambers (1989) vulnerability though is not the same as poverty. It means not lack or want, but defenselessness, insecurity, and exposure to risk, shocks and stress. Vulnerability here refers to exposure to contingencies and stress, and the difficulty in coping with them. Vulnerability has thus two sides: an external side of risks, shocks, and stress to which an individual or household is subject: and an internal side which is defenselessness, meaning a lack of means to cope without damaging loss.

Davies (1996) further clarifies the concept of vulnerability into two aspect; structural and proximate vulnerability. Structural vulnerability is the result of past proximate vulnerability or conditions while proximate vulnerability represents the trends and shocks that farmer's face in the uncertain world. The confusion on the differential use of the concept vulnerability stems mostly from the failure to distinguish between cause and effect.

According to the International Federation of Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), vulnerability is defined as the characteristics of a person or group in terms of their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of natural or man-made hazards. Vulnerability cannot be described without reference to a specific hazard or shock.

Several studies have critically reviewed the pattern of vulnerability in context of food security. Patterns of vulnerability have become increasingly dynamic, thereby necessitating a dynamic rather than static approach to vulnerability. According to Leichenko & O'Brien (2002), the increasingly dynamic nature of vulnerability is attributable to the rapid, ongoing economic and institutional changes. By linking economic changes, which define to a large extent the internal dimensions of vulnerability to climate change which is an external contingency, the changing vulnerability status of farmers is determined through the dynamic responses or strategies designed to avoid negative outcomes such as food insecurity. Diversity and difference within/between social formations and spatial units directs our attention to the asymmetry of impacts and to the sources and types of threats confronting different people.

T. Moreda (2012) presented the impact of recurring droughts on household livelihood vulnerabilities. These vulnerabilities are also linked to internal factors such as long-term instability in socio-economic and political processes; worsening land degradation, land scarcity and fragmentation, landlessness, and particularly tenure insecurity. This in turn results in declining land access, rising livelihood vulnerability, and hampering agrarian and rural change. In addition to its impact on land conservation, the lack of tenure security tends to trap the rapidly growing population to subsist on the continuously dwindling land resources. This entrapment limits the expansion of the non-farm sector and constrains agriculture, contributing to a vicious circle of poverty and livelihood vulnerability. It also elaborated the resilience of farming household and its impact on livelihoods strategies.

Livelihoods are evolving in complex ways in response to mounting challenges and changing opportunities. Consequently, households tend to engage in many diversified livelihood activities of which seasonal migration is a typical example.

Linkage with “Vulnerability” and “Diversification of income” has been studied by many researchers. Many studies have conclude that majority of rural producers have historically diversified their productive activities to cover a range of other productive areas. Impulses for such diversification are multifarious, linked with wide range of possible activities, and associated with both positive and negative outcomes and mainly to reduce their vulnerability. This recognition has led many researchers to represent rural livelihoods as constructed from a portfolio of resources, or activities (Adams and Mortimore 1997; Dercon and Krishnan 1996; Ellis 1996; Unni 1996).

HS Shylendra and Rani Uma (2005) defined “diversification broadly as a process wherein the rural households try to enlarge their sources of income and employment either due to the inability of the traditional sources to fully support their livelihood or due to newer opportunities arising out of the socio-economic changes occurring locally or externally. Among rural household diversification is the norm. Very few people collect all their income from any one source, hold all their wealth in the form of any single asset, or use their assets in just one activity. Multiple motives prompt households and individuals to diversify assets, incomes, and activities. The first set of motives comprise what are traditionally termed “push factors”: risk reduction, response to diminishing factor returns in any given use, such as family labor supply in the presence of land constraints driven by population pressure and landholdings fragmentation, reaction to crisis or liquidity constraints, high transactions costs that induce households to self-provisioning several goods and services, etc. The second set of motives comprise “pull factors”: realization of strategic complementarities between activities, such as crop-livestock integration or milling and hog production, specialization according to

comparative advantage accorded by superior technologies, skills or endowments, etc. These micro level determinants of diversification are mirrored at more aggregate levels. From the “push factor perspective,” diversification is driven by limited risk-bearing capacity in the presence of incomplete or weak financial systems that create strong incentives to select a portfolio of activities in order to stabilize income flows and consumption, by constraints in labour and land markets, and by climatic uncertainty. From the “pull factor perspective,” local engines of growth such as commercial agriculture or proximity to an urban area create opportunities for income diversification in production and expenditure-linkage activities.

Ellis Frank (2000) elaborated that “under the precarious conditions that characterise rural survival in many low income countries, diversification has positive attributes for livelihood security that outweigh negative connotations it may possess. Policy should facilitate rather than inhibit diversity. Diverse rural livelihoods are less vulnerable than undiversified ones.”

Few studies also articulated the Crop livestock integration as part of livelihood strategies to enable the construction of sustainable livelihoods. Cekan (1992) tracks the use of seasonal "coping" strategies during the dry season in five Malian villages revealing the variety of strategies employed by different social actors. She argues that these represent ways in which livestock and crop producers attempt to adapt their livelihood strategies to ensure their long term viability. Giving the example of one village, Gallo, these included reduction of calorie consumption, temporary migration of many people (including non-lactating women, young men, and middle-aged men and women) to urban centres in search of paid work, and various income generating activities: women undertook cash crop production (cotton), cleaned "wool" and decorated cloth, ran market gardens sponsored by the local women's organisation, and invested in livestock (especially small ruminants such as goats). The income from these activities was used to invest in grains for planting at the beginning of

the rainy season. Each village studied had different sets of activities available, dependent on infrastructure (proximity of roads to urban centres), existence of local organisations and natural resources available.

Jodha N. S. (1991) studied the coping pattern and mitigation of vulnerabilities through the use of integrated approach wherein drought and shocks experiences by the rural communities can be minimised by integrating farmer's traditional coping mechanism and modern drought management techniques. The idea is drawn from maximising community participation and called for a better grasp and understanding of the importance of traditional coping strategies which is more sensitive to farmers circumstances and environmental specificities of drought prone areas.

Sahabuddin Q. and Ali Z. (2006) discussed the vulnerability amongst rural household with low income group in Bangladesh. The study area lies in the disaster-prone areas of the country where certain factors have prevented specific group of people in the northern districts of the country to be in ecological vulnerable areas. Flood and river erosion formed the main factors that increase the vulnerabilities of the northern districts. Suggestions were given on ways to minimize these factors through combined efforts from the state and the voluntary organisation.

2.4 Voluntary Organisations and Livelihood Promotion

Most studies look into the evolution of VOs, progressive paradigmatic shift from charity orientation to welfare and further to sustainable development. According to them the NGOs represent an alternative institutional approach to spurring rural development in developing countries which may possess comparative advantages over government institutions at grassroots. Even existing NGOs have started functions on a new area of development not only by orienting and producing support activities to their traditional plan of action, but also have become internally more sophisticated and better organised towards

establishing linkage systems among NGOs as well (Singh 2003; Narayana 1990; Hulme 2001).

The role of voluntary organisations as a change agent is widely acclaimed and well documented by many scholars. VOs or NGOs are considered as the catalysts to facilitate or contribute to improved thinking and action to promote positive change. This may be directed towards individuals or groups in local communities, or among other actors in development. The focus can be vast and varying in nature and may include grassroots organising, gender empowerment, lobbying and advocacy, research and even an attempt to influence wider policy processes. Further, many studies consider that NGOs can also be taken as potentially critical catalysts for unlocking the energies and resources of the poor and voiceless, and for building pluralistic and democratic societies (Lewis 2009; Kanji 2009; Brown 1988).

There are studies on the development impact of VOs. They have also reported that the involvement of VOs in alleviating poverty has changed the life of the poor in developing countries. VOs have developed innovative strategies and techniques to generate participation of poor and illiterate to overcome barriers of development at grassroots level. By designing and implementing innovative program interventions, they have enhanced the quality of life of the poor. They have facilitated the poor to reach a first foothold on the development ladder (See Suharko 2007; Sachs 2007; Bhat 1995; Narayana 1990).

Many studies also looked at the comparative advantages of VOs in reaching out to the masses. VOs have the ability to deliver emergency relief or development services at low cost, to many people, in remote areas; their rapid, innovative and flexible responses to emerging financial and technical assistance needs at the grass roots level; their long-standing familiarity with social sector development and poverty alleviation; their experience with small-scale development projects as well as with those requiring a high degree of involvement by, and

familiarity with, the concerned target groups (Ridell and Robison 1998; Heijden; Suharko 2008).

A few studies also focused on the operational strategies of the VOs and they are seen as fostering local participation, strengthening local self-governance and mobilization of people for networking and promoting the public good, which help by providing a number of institutional arrangements for the production and allocation of public goods. The relevance of strengthening local institution as part of operational strategy is widely accepted. In addition, these intuitions also have comparative advantages due to their low cost of operation and high voluntary community input. These studies also emphasized that NGOs must foster autonomous grassroots institutions which are placed as the main vehicle to generate various collective activities and become the main entry point to long term sustainable poverty reduction programs (Edward 1999; Cernea 1998; Dahal 1997).

K. C. (1998) studied the state of environment within which rural-based NGOs have been operating; their management systems; organisational culture; performance; and the interrelationships between environment, management system, and organisational capacity. This study was made on the interview and a survey questionnaire with a sample of NGO executives during the years 1996 and 1997. The study concluded that NGOs were moderately capable of mobilising local resources, but had little success in discouraging social ills and evils. Moderate success of the NGOs was observed in involving income and equipment generating activities. Of the total 80 studied NGOs, most were “either low performers or fair performers due to the weak organisational culture, low performance and very unfavourable environment”. The high performers owed their success to high positive association with strong organisational culture, transparent management practices, and highly favourable environment.

Hossain (1998) made a study on the sustainability aspect of NGO-related project administration. Apart from the literature reviews, the study was conducted by using thematic interviews with the donors, NGO executives, and the concerned governmental people. The study covered different aspects, such as NGO and their projects' sustainability, NGOs and the development of southern countries like Bangladesh and Nepal, and NGOs and Nordic development aid perspectives. He has highlighted some of the problems faced by the Nepalese NGOs for implementing their programmes. The researcher concluded that the NGOs in the southern countries like Bangladesh and Nepal are often led by the educated middle class and local elite, who also perceive this sector as an alternative source of employment. However, the NGOs of these countries are “at the heart of voluntary sector development activities” and play as intermediary actors between the northern NGOs and member organisations. He argued that sustainability of the project largely depends upon management capacity, financial factor, commitment, government policies, technological factors, socio-cultural factor, and environmental factors. Though the working environment for the NGOs in Bangladesh and Nepal are conducive, the NGOs largely suffered from weak management capacity, heavy dependency on foreign funding, and less participation from among the women.

Shah (1999) researched the role of International NGOs (INGOs) for mobilising resources for the development of Nepal. The study was conducted by interview and literature survey. The study covers the volume of resources and the sectoral benefits and also the negative aspects of INGO funding for the development of Nepal. The study revealed that the health and community development sectors benefited by the INGO resource mobilisation; however, the problems of transparency, critical choice of projects, and accountability are often overlooked.

Nickson argues the role of INGO with respect to rural development, particularly to empower poor and to alleviate poverty, which requires organisational independence and programme flexibility. The author concluded that due to a “very negative” approach toward development, and non-co-operative to the INGOs the public administration is non-functional. It requires co-operative environment to better function of INGOs.

Lama et.al. tried to deal with the historical background, level of current performance, definitional, and legal framework of NGOs and the grassroots development cultures. Instead of facilitating the NGOs, the existing Act and regulations became more control oriented, which could help for flourishing the NGOs and reach the grassroots more efficiently (Lama *etal.* 1992: 95-6). Further it was stressed that NGOs should also work “towards the collective empowerment of the poor and the disadvantaged which leads towards the enhancement of the better live situation for them”.

Hegde (2000) examined the involvement of voluntary organisation and promotion of sustainable livelihoods through development of agro-forestry. The study was conducted in areas where BAIF project interventions were implemented in Gujarat, India. BAIF Development Research Foundation is an NGO, established in 1967 for promoting livelihood among the rural poor through sustainable management of natural resources. The initial approached was to promote social forestry and developed an agro-forestry to generate income. It started with wastelands development programme through establishment of fodder and fuel wood species, BAIF approached the tribal families in Vansda Taluka in Valsad District to plant trees on their wastelands. The programme provided necessary inputs to poor tribal families to establish fuel and fodder species on 1.0 ha land owned by them. Land development to form small plots with contour bunds was necessary to convert the barren hilly terrains into cultivable lands. Water resources were developed by digging farm ponds, nalha-bunding and gully plugging to provide protective watering to fruit plants and pitcher watering

was used to conserve water in areas of water shortage and subsequently, establishment of orange, mango and other horticulture crops within the area. With the development of their own land under tree based farming system, a single household can generate an additional income of Rs.10,000 to Rs. 2,00,000 in two years. Moral development and social empowerment were significant contributions for the upliftment of the community. While initiating the project, BAIF's team had observed that the tribal in the project areas were addicted to alcohol produced locally or bought from outside. Hence a condition was imposed to refrain from alcohol. This has brought a very significant change in the community. The number of students completing their graduation and post-graduation has double after the programme initiation.

Turton C and Farrington J. (1998) attempted to identify the ecosystem in which voluntary organisation involves in livelihood promotion. The study was based on the analysis of ongoing watershed development programmes of the Govt. of India. They argued that voluntary organisation have an advantage when it comes to village level field implementation which can directly results in stronger community participation. The advantages of VOs include (i) strong in social mobilisation (ii) conceptually stronger with participatory approaches (ii) closer and more equal relationship with people (iv) flexible and adaptive to local situations. However, the limitation of such organisation include (i) Weak in technical competence—unavailability of technical staff in the open market (ii) poor quality and high turn-over of technical staff due to poor conditions and temporary nature of employment. They also elaborated that these short comings can be supplemented by the govt. machineries which can provide technical back-stopping. Therefore, dynamic synergies between the two can result in more efficient implementation.

In Mizoram context, voluntarism and altruism are an age old phenomenon with major focus on charity and relief interventions. The conventional voluntarism in Mizo society is

always inspired by idealism rather than concrete ideology. However, recent trend shows a shift in paradigm from conventional to a more professional approach; focusing on specific objectives, methods and activities thereby proliferation of several Voluntary Organisations in all over the state. The concept of volunteerism is not new to Mizo community. However, the available literature relevant to this study is relatively limited when it comes to Mizoram context. There are extensive documents generated by scholars, researchers, academicians and development professionals on development and the role of NGOs for South Asia and the African continent. But only few writings can be seen with Indian context and even rarer when coming further to local context. There is a scanty representation of Voluntary Organisations literature and in the context a few notable gaps are found.

Firstly, a few studies have traced the evolution and establishment of VOs selectively in the State (YMA, MHIP and MUP) while others have focus on the roles and challenges of selected VOs (Ralte and Kanagaraj 2007; Lalkima 1997). Yet, there is no study on the comprehensive functioning of VOs and their role in the state. Similarly, there is no study on the role of VOs in rural livelihood promotion in the context of the not only Mizoram but also the context of north east India. Besides being undocumented activities, VOs turning their focus towards livelihood sector itself is a new trend in Mizoram.

Secondly, there is theoretical gap in the existing literature on the role of VOs in development. There are a few studies use theoretical perspective to understand the context of rural poverty, the impact of livelihood promotion strategy on the poor households (Shanmugam, Kanagaraj and Karruppaiyan 1999). The application of Sustainable livelihood frame work (Chambers and Conway, 1992) would be useful to understand the vulnerability context of poor, livelihood strategies of poor, the role of VOs in promoting the livelihood and living conditions in a holistic fashion.

The third research gap is concerned with the methodological orientation of the studies on voluntary organisations. Most of the studies are case studies and there are a few based on quantitative analysis with field survey. But what is lacking the mixed methods orientation with due weightage to participatory and qualitative methods.

The present study attempts to address these research gaps with a comparative assessment of two voluntary organisations and on their role in rural development from a sustainable livelihood perspective.

This chapter has presented a review of literature on concepts of voluntary organisations and sustainable livelihood from different agencies and scholars. The chapter elaborated the vulnerability context of rural poor with reference to external shocks and stress including food security. It also presented the different studies on that link voluntary organisations and their effort in promoting livelihood. The next chapter presents the methodological aspects of the present study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

To achieve the desired objectives, development and selection of appropriate research methodology is necessary. The methods and techniques that are designated for this study are selected so as to collect reliable data, facilitate systematic analysis of data and dependable results. The chapter is presented in three sections. The first sections deals with sampling technique that is employed in the study; the second section presents the tools of data collection, followed by the section that deals with the data processing and analysis. The last section deals with the limitations of the study.

The present study is cross sectional in nature and Ex Post facto in design. It is based on primary data to a large extent and secondary data to some extent. The primary data was collected through quantitative, qualitative and participatory methods. Secondary data was collected from the selected VOs on their ideology, organisation, and livelihood intervention strategies. Field survey with structured household interview schedule was conducted to probe into the patterns of livelihoods, living conditions and impact of the VOs intervention.

3.1. Sampling

Multi-Stage sampling procedure was used to select VOs, Villages and households. The unit of the study is “household” while the population of the study comprised all the rural households in Mizoram who are exposed to the VOs interventions. At the first stage, two voluntary organisations viz., RADP and OD were selected *purposively*. At the second stage, all the villages where the selected VOs are having direct livelihood interventions were selected based on objective criteria. At the third stage, a list of all households who are direct beneficiaries of the livelihood interventions was drawn.

Selection of Villages

For collecting primary information, four village areas- Chhingchhip, Baktawng, and Khawbel at Serchhip District and Bilkhawthlir, Kolasib District were selected.

These places are selected keeping in mind the working area of selected VOs. These areas can give a clear picture of the VO interventions, mobilization pattern, operational strategies of each VOs and overall impact on the welfare of the target communities. As mentioned before, the activities of VO in relation with livelihood promotion is very limited in Mizoram, so identification and examination of other stake holders- Govt. Institution, Community Base Organisations and Community Institutions were also taken into consideration for cross-referencing of data and for in-depth analysis.

Selection of Households

All the beneficiaries of the livelihood interventions of the Voluntary Organisations in the selected four villages were included in the sample. The socio economic indicators were gender of respondents, size of family, educational status of head and size of landholding.

The sample of the study was 51 households which are direct beneficiaries of the Voluntary Organisations Livelihood intervention.

3.1.2 Tools of Data Collection

This study combined both qualitative and quantitative methods for understanding the livelihood promotion of VOs and examining their impact on livelihoods of rural households. The approach involved collection of qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously. (Creswell, 2003). In this regard, the use of a mixed research method is partly aimed at overcoming the limitation of one method by another and it allows a comprehensive understanding of the complex social world (Tolossa, 2005).

For collection of quantitative data, structured household interview was personally administered by the researcher on the head of the sample households. In addition to this,

participatory techniques such as social map, seasonality diagram, focus group discussion and field observation were used to understand the dynamics of livelihood promotion.

3.1.3 Processing and Analysis

The quantitative data collected through field survey was processed and analysed with the help of computer especially SPSS package. While qualitative and participatory data was organised into case studies. To analyse the quantitative data apart from simple averages, percentages and cross tabulation, paired t test and Karl Pearson' Product Correlation were used.

3.1.4 Limitation of the Study

The main limitation of the study is that the information given by the respondents on the amount income and expenditure figure may not be accurate. This may not reflect the actual living condition of the household. In rural Mizoram, the practice of maintaining receipt and payments among household as a unit is absent. However, the researcher made every effort to build rapport with the respondents and provide sufficient time for calculation all the facts and figures. This maximizes the accuracy of the information and minimized human error.

This chapter has presented the methodological aspects of the study. It made an attempt to highlight the different characteristics of research design including sampling method, data collection using different tools and processing of the data. It also provides the tools used for analysis of data and limitation of the study. In the light of these methodological aspects, the next chapter present the rural vulnerability context and livelihood promotion of VOs.

CHAPTER IV

RURAL VULNERABILITY CONTEXT AND LIVELIHOOD PROMOTION OF VOS

The first component of Sustainable livelihood framework is vulnerability context. In this chapter an attempt has been made to locate the operational livelihood strategies of two selected voluntary organisations in the local rural vulnerability context. This chapter is presented in two sections. The first section presents the profile of the study area including overview of the state and going down to description of the district level. Further description of the villages that were selected is presented. The next section deals with the vulnerability context of the study area. The second section is concerned with description of the voluntary organisations and their operational strategies.

4.1 The Settings: Profile of Study Area

The setting of the present study gives a brief overview of the state of Mizoram and the districts including the villages which are selected for the study area.

4.1.1 The State of Mizoram

Mizoram, known earlier known as the Lushai hills District was excluded from the Government of India Reforms Act, 1919 and the Act of 1935. As a result, the Mizo remained under the personal rule of British Superintendents and the hereditary Mizo Chief¹. After India attained independence, the Mizo Hill District was setup in 1952 and the whole area was administered under the District Council. The power of the Chief and the Superintendent was brought to an end and the entire region was put under a Deputy Commissioner and the chief Executive Members of the District and Regional councils. In 1971, by an amendment of the Constitution (The Constitution, Twenty Seventh Amendment, Act, 1971), the Mizo Hills was declared a Union Territory. And after much troubled insurgency and fighting between the Mizo National Front (M.N.F) and the Government of India, Mizoram was officially granted statehood in 20 February 1987. It is important to state the above as Mizoram has seen one of

the longest run insurgency movement under their charismatic leader, Lal Denga, as well as its end. Today the state is peaceful, but divided between the MNF and the opposition where battle is fought through the ballot. The intervening three decades brought the village from the hill to the street literally as it was easy for the security forces to exercise control. Mizoram is in that sense still limping back from the loss and the hurt of the insurgency of the three decades and it shows.

Mizoram lies in the southern part of North East India, between 21° 24' North and 92° and 94° East. It has a long line of International Boundary; sandwiched between Burma in the East and South and Bangladesh in the West. Its international border runs more than 720km, is almost three times longer than its border with the mainland. It shares National boundary with Manipur, Assam and Tripura in the north. The total population of Mizoram is around 1,097,206 (2011 Census) and has an area of 21,081sq km.

4.1.2 Kolasib District

Kolasib is an important and potential district of Mizoram for agriculture production. It is situated between 24° 00'00"N to 24° 30'00" N latitude and 92° 30'00" E to 93°00'00" E longitudes. Its district head quarter is also known as Kolasib which is situated in the central part of the district. The District head quarter also known as Kolasib which is located at a distance of 100 Km away from Silchar (Assam) by NH No. 54. No air connectivity in the district. The nearest railway connectivity at Bairabi is 30 km away. The total geographical area of Kolasib district is 138251 hectare, which is about 15.5% of the state area of Mizoram. The district comprises with two agricultural sub- divisions, namely, Bilkhawthlir and Kolasib agricultural sub-divisions. It contains 2 development Blocks namely, Thingdawl and Bilkhawthlir and 44 villages. Total population as per 2001 census is 64,329 and is predominantly Schedule Tribes.

4.1.3 Serchhip District

Serchhip District came into existence as a separate District on 15th Sept, 1998. It lies at the Centre of Mizoram surrounded by Aizawl District on the West and North, Champhai District and Myanmar in the East and Lunglei District in the West. It is situated in between 23°36'38" and 23°59'07" latitudes and 92°40'30" and 93°11'09" longitudes. It is the smallest District of the State but enjoy the 3rd position in the production of Paddy next to Kolasib and Champhai. It is comprises of hilly terrains but has a good alluvial potential pocket of land on its river basis. The total Geographical area is 1421.6 Sq. Km. on account for 6.74% of the total geographical area of the State.

4.1.4 Bilkhawthlir Village:



Figure 4.1: Social Map of Bilkhawthlir Village

Bilkhawthlir is the village selected for the study under the intervention area of Open Doors organisation. It is located in Kolasib district with a distance of 100 km from the state capital and serves as a block headquarter for Bilkhawthlir R.D block. As per 2011 Census, the village has a total population of 58,487 and a total household of 11,695. Total male population stands at 29,888, whereas the female population stands at 28,599 and 84.6% of the total population belongs to Scheduled Tribe. The National Highway NH 54 runs through the

village from north to south which forms the main trunk road for village communication. The village is divided into two Village Council areas. Each area is demarcated and divided by a natural perennial stream; having one community hall for each of the VC area. A single public playground and a Primary Health Center caters for both the VC areas. In terms of educational institutions, two primary schools, two middle schools and a high school is present in the village. All these educational institutions are run by the State Government. A unique feature of the village is that, the Higher Secondary School was set up by the Village Council from 2004. Till date, all operational and maintenance expenses are borne by the community. There are two Anganwadi center; one for each VC area. Being a large village, it is seated by the Block Development Officer. The community base organisations operating in the village include YMA, MUP, MZP and MHIP.

4.1.5 Chhingchhip Village

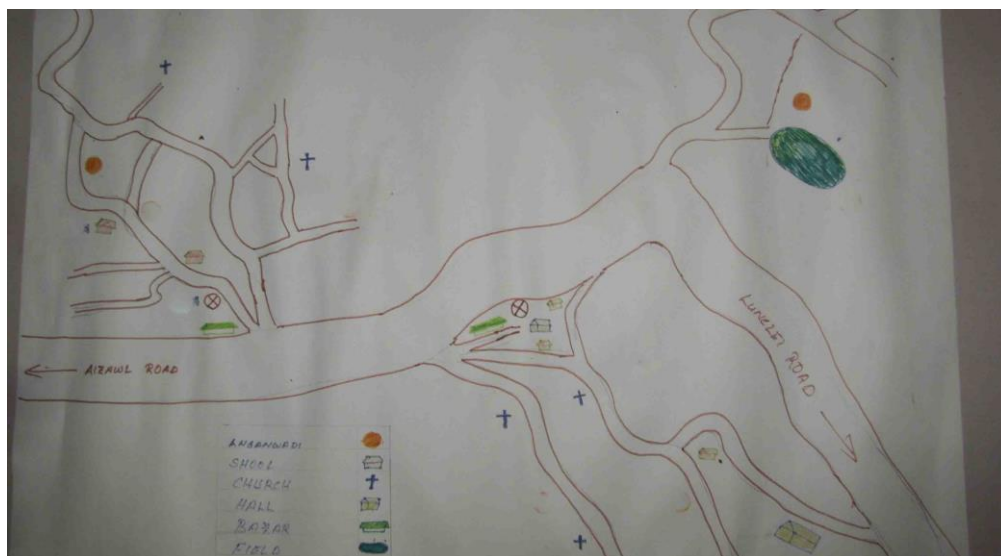


Fig 4.2: Social Map of Chhingchhip

Chhingchhip is the first sample village under RADP intervention area which is located at the Serchhip District, Mizoram. The total population of the village stands at 3741 wherein the male population consists of 1826 and female population stands at 1915. With a total household of 726, the village is divided into two Village Council areas. The National

Highway NH 54 runs through the village from north to south which forms the main trunk road for village communication. The village is having three govt. run primary schools, two middle schools and one high school. There are also private run English medium one primary school and one middle school and also church base English medium high school and higher secondary. The nearest hospital and college is at the district capital, Serchhip which is located around 20 km. There is a Primary Health Sub-Center with three beds under the supervision of one resident Medical Officer. There are three anganwadi and two community halls. The community base organisations operating in the village include YMA, MUP, MZP and MHIP. A single playground is available for the entire village. Since the area has a favorable climate for horticulture crops, the state government set up a fruit processing center located at the periphery of the village. The unit is run by MIFCO, under the aid of state government. The village also has a supply warehouse which is looked after by the Supply Department, GoM. The village also housed the office of BSNL site office and a Range Office under Forest Department, GoM. The Tawi wildlife sanctuary is located around 15 km from the village and Village Council recently gave land for the establishment of Sainik School which will run its educational institute upto Class 8.

4.1.6 Baktawng

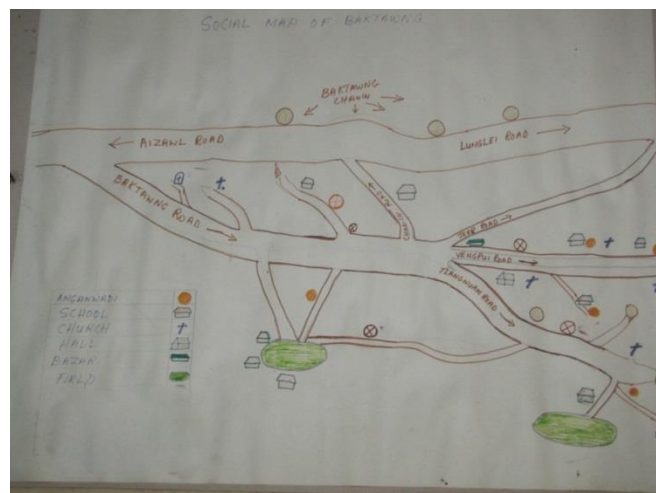


Figure 4.3: Social Map of Baktawng

Baktawng is the second village selected for the study under the intervention area of RADP organisation. It is located in Serchhip district with a distance of 60 km from the state capital. As per 2011 Census, the village has a total population of 3,220 and a total household of 551. Total male population stands at 1,586, whereas the female population stands at 1,634 and 99% of the total population belongs to Scheduled Tribe. The village is divided into two administrative area or Village Council; the Baktawng village and the Baktawng Tlangnuam Village, which housed the famous world largest family, the family of Pu Ziona. In terms of educational institute, the village has two govt. run primary school, two middle schools and two high schools. It also had two anganwadi center and a single playground on the Baktawng Tlangnuam area. A single Health-Sub center is present in the village with two health worker. The main occupation of the people in the village is agriculture; however of the agriculture cultivation practice has seen transference from shifting cultivation to a semi-settled cultivation during the last five years. As per the insight given by the farmers, the declining shifting cultivation is mainly due to the low productivity of forest land attributed to reduce jhum cycle. Besides agriculture, the villagers have high affinity to skill-workforce engaging in wood works. The community base organisations operating in the village include YMA, MUP, MZP and MHIP.

4.1.7 Khawbel

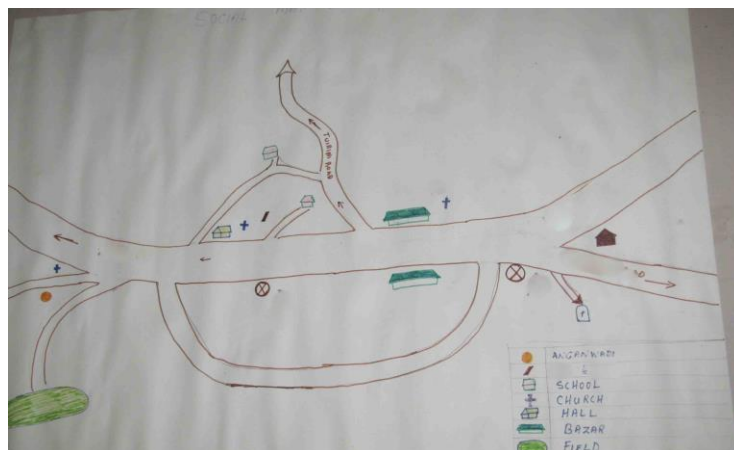


Figure 4.4: Social Map of Khawbel

Khawbel is the third sample village under RADP intervention area which is located at the Serchhip District, Mizoram. The village is comparatively smaller than the other villages selected for the study. The total population of the village stands at 640 wherein the male population consists of 348 and female population stands at 292. The total household of the village is only 104. Unlike the previous villages, there is no high school, Primary Health Centers or any Govt. offices. The village is under one Village Council with only three members. There is one primary school and one middle school. One anganwadi is present in the village, however due to the remoteness of the villages, it hardly functions. Even though it is a small village; there are multiple Christian denominations present in the village; the Presbyterian Church, the Salvation Army, the Baptist Church and also United Pentecostal Church. Majority of the villagers depend upon shifting cultivation as their primary source of income. The village is devoid of water supply, the main sources of drinking water are few perennial springs located at the periphery of the villages. Since the village is located in the hill top, accessibility is only by kuccha road (jeep able road); this exaggerates the problem of supplying basic consumable necessities.

4.2 Vulnerability Context of Study Area

It is important to recognize that vulnerability or livelihood insecurity is a constant reality for many rural populations, and that insecurity is a core aspect of most poverty. It is not only about the isolated events (shocks) that occurred in the proximity of the rural households; but about a dynamic situation in which the rural household are always on the brink of extreme insecurity, sometimes falling just below, sometimes rising just above. The sustainable livelihood approach seeks to influence against such insecurity through building up resilience.

This section will try to highlight the vulnerability aspect of the study area using participatory method of seasonality diagram. A seasonality diagram is a visual method of

showing the distribution of seasonally varying phenomena (such as economic activities, resources, production activities, problems, illness/disease, migration, and natural events/phenomena) over time (DFID, 2000). It is highly helpful in understanding seasonal differences during livelihoods analysis and vulnerability analysis, illustrating dynamic dimensions of well-being, which are often poorly illustrated through conventional forms of poverty assessment, identifying cause-and-effect relationships between seasonally varying phenomena and also understanding the time of the year when different social groups are more or less vulnerable.

In this study the Vulnerability Context refers to the seasonality, trends, and shocks that affect people's livelihoods (see SLF page no. 6). It discusses the exposure to contingencies and stress, and the difficulty in coping with them (Chambers, 1989). There are two core aspects when thinking about the Vulnerability Context. These are:

- extent to which rural household are exposed to particular trends/shocks/seasonality. Further, time is a crucial factor in determining the intensity of a particular vulnerability aspect for a household.
- the sensitivity of their livelihoods to these factors. The access to natural capital, financial capital, social capital, physical capital and human capital can either decrease or increase the sensitivity towards any aspect of vulnerability. Subsequently, the sensitivity will also vary from household to household.

The seasonality diagram developed for this study draws its inspiration from the above two aspects. In this study, participants explored the effects of the changing seasons on their lives with regard to climatic trends, shocks, workload, food security, health status and other issues. Each characteristics were given ranking at four levels viz. (i) “-“represents “null/not applicable”; (ii) “1” represents “low”; (ii) “2” represents “medium”; (iii) “3” represents

“high” (see figure 4.2.1, figure 4.2.2, figure 4.2.3 and figure 4.2.4). The duration is taken for a period of 12 months (annual) for each characteristics starting from January to December.

4.2.1 Bilkhawthlir

According to the seasonality diagram, the rainfall pattern gradually increases starting from the month of May (onset of monsoon) and very high during the period of June to August and shows rapid decline from the month of October to November. Subsequently, the dry season depicts a reverse pattern as compared to the rainfall pattern wherein the months between October to March are represented as “maximum”. As regards to shocks, landslide and flood occurrence is seen during the high rainfall season. However, this village has a unique trend wherein occurrence of hot season is experienced during the months of May to September. The three characteristics viz. workload, agriculture tasks and animal husbandry shows similar pattern where ranking is “maximum” from the month of October to May and gradually decreases during June to Augusts. The village has seen steady supply of rice from the PDS during the month of January to May and minimum supply is experienced from the month of June to September and the situation improves during from the month of November to December. Pattern of transportation availability is similar for both domestic usage and agriculture usage which shows that the availability is not sufficient in both the cases. The availability is minimal all through the year except during the month of December and January. In this case of health aspect, there common ailments are surveyed in this study, malaria, tuberculosis and diarrhoea. Malaria and diarrhoea show a similar pattern i.e. they show a sudden occurrence from the month of March to August and low occurrence during September to April. The study also reveals that there is no occurrence of tuberculosis in the village. The study also reveals that the availability of rice from paddy/jhum cultivation last hardly for the period of five months i.e. from October to March in a year. Steady supply of

vegetable and fodder is available during the entire year except during the December to March (see Figure 4.2.1).

Vulnerability due to seasonality shows significant aspects in rural household. As seen from the seasonality diagram, low rainfall is accompanied by drought and subsequently the reduction in productivity basket and scarcity of water. Heavy rainfall also posed a threat to rural household where an events of shocks i.e. landslide is high which directly affects the communication by roads, supply of basic necessities (PDS) and also rice in epidemic (malaria and diarrhoea). Due to the extreme heat, it was experienced that, the production capacity of an individual is lower as compare to cooler climate. A general trend that is observed from the study is that the availability of labour is low all throughout the year. In addition to this, the availability of rice produce from paddy or jhum last only for a period of six months; the remaining period, the household depends on the supply from PDS which greatly increase their vulnerability on food security.

4.2.2 Chhingchhip

In Chhingchhip village, the rainfall pattern gradually increases starting from the month of May and reach its peak during the period of June to August and shows rapid decline from the month of October to November. Due to heavy rainfall, occurrence of landslide is very high during June to August. The area do not experienced flood since flat lands are negligible within the village area. The dry season is very lengthy, which starts form November to April. The occurrence of hot season is only during a short period of April and May. During the months of March and April, labour is not available and except during July and August, the availability of labour is “low” for all the remaining months. The three characteristics viz. workload, agriculture tasks and animal husbandry shows similar pattern where ranking is “maximum” from the month of October to May and gradually decreases during June to Augusts. The supply of rice from the PDS is high during the month of January

to April and “medium” all throughout the year except during the month of July. Pattern of transportation availability for domestic usage and agriculture usage is different. For agriculture, the availability of transportation is “medium” during the month of September to November and “low” for the majority of remaining months (March to August). The availability for domestic usage is “high” all through the year except during the months of June, July and August. In Chhingchhip village, malaria and diarrhoea show a similar pattern i.e. they show a sudden occurrence from the month of May to September and low occurrence during October to April. The study also reveals that there is no occurrence of tuberculosis in the village. The availability of rice from paddy/jhum cultivation last hardly for the period of five months i.e. from October to March in a year. For the period of two months (January and February), vegetables are not available, steady supply of vegetable and fodder is available from March to December (see figure 4.2.2).

The trend in diminishing availability of labour increases the vulnerability during the period of preparation of land for cultivation (Jan-April) and also during period of sowing and harvesting (Oct-November). Vulnerability due to seasonality is also significant, low rainfall is accompanied by drought and dry season leading to scarcity of water for domestic and agricultural purposes. Vulnerability to rural household in an events of shocks i.e. landslide is high which directly affects the communication by roads, supply of basic necessities (PDS) and also rise in epidemic (malaria and diarrhoea). During the month of December to January, fodder is not available, subsequently a household restrict the number of livestock and in turn reduce its livelihood diversity.

4.2.3 Baktawng

In Baktawng village, the rainfall pattern gradually increases starting from the month of April and very high during the period of June to August and shows little or no precipitation during the month of December to March. Subsequently, the dry season is very lengthy

wherein the months between November and March are represented as “high”. Landslide occurrence is seen during the high rainfall season i.e. June to August. The three characteristics viz. workload, agriculture tasks and animal husbandry shows similar pattern where ranking is “maximum” from the month of October to May and gradually decreases during June to Augusts. The availability of labour is “nil” for majority of the months (July to February) and remaining months (March to June) the availability is low and medium. In Baktawng village, the supply of rice from the PDS is high during the month of September to February and supply is low during the month of April to July. The availability of transport for domestic usage is low all through the year except during the month of March and April where the availability is ranked “medium”. Pattern of transportation availability for agriculture usage is high during January to February and remaining months show “low” availability. The study on the health aspect in the village depicts that malaria and diarrhoea show a similar pattern i.e. a sudden occurrence from the month of March to August and low occurrence during September to February and there is no occurrence of tuberculosis in the village. In Baktawng village, the availability of rice from paddy/jhum cultivation last for a little more than half of one year i.e. from September to March. Availability of vegetable and fodder for household show similar pattern wherein availability is high during the period of May to November (see figure 4.2.3).

The vulnerability among the household due to seasonality is mainly due to low rainfall is accompanied by lengthy dry season and subsequently the reduction in productivity basket and scarcity of water. Events of shocks such as landslide also posed a threat to rural household and can directly affects the communication by roads, supply of basic necessities (PDS) and also health condition of the population. In addition to this, the availability of rice produce from paddy or jhum hardly last only for a period of seven months; the remaining

period, the household depends on the supply from PDS which greatly increase their vulnerability on food security.

4.2.4 Khawbel

The study shows that in Khawbel village, the rainfall pattern gradually increases starting from the month of June and very high during the period of July to September. Afterwards the rainfall rapidly decline from the month of October and follows by no rainfall during January and February. The dry season depicts a reverse pattern as compare to the rainfall pattern wherein the month between October to March are represented as “maximum”. In Khawbel area, occurrence of landslide is very high during June to August. The area do not experienced flood since flat lands are negligible within the village area. The dry season is very lengthy, which starts form December to April. Labour is not available throughout the entire year. The three characteristics viz. workload, agriculture tasks and animal husbandry shows similar pattern where ranking is “maximum” from the month of October to May and gradually decreases during June to Augusts. Pattern of transportation availability for both domestic usage and agriculture usage is not sufficient in both the cases. For agriculture, the availability of transportation is “medium” during the month of September and October and “low” for the November and December. The remaining months, transport for agricultural usage is absent. The availability for domestic usage is “medium” during the months of November to March and the remaining months the availability is minimal. In Khawbel village, malaria and diarrhoea show a similar pattern i.e. they show a sudden occurrence from the month of March to August and low occurrence during September to April. The study also reveals that there is no occurrence of tuberculosis in the village. The availability of rice from paddy/jhum cultivation last hardly for the period of five months i.e. from November to March in a year. Steady supply of vegetable and fodder is available during the entire year except during the December to March (see figure 4.2.4).

The most significant vulnerabilities is the trend in non-availability of labour for the entire year, this increases the vulnerability during the period of preparation of land for cultivation (Jan-April) and also during period of sowing and harvesting (Oct-November). Seasonality aspect of dry season accompanied by drought leads to scarcity of water for domestic and agricultural purposes. As similar to all the previous villages, vulnerability to rural household in an events of shocks i.e. landslide is high which directly affects the communication by roads, supply of basic necessities (PDS) and also rise in epidemic (malaria and diarrhoea).

4.3 Voluntary Organisations

In Mizoram, a total of five voluntary organisations are identified, who are exclusively engaged in the field of rural development. These include All Mizoram Farmers Union (AMFU), Centre for Community Development through Network, Education, Research, Training, Resource Mobilization and Capacity Building (CODNERC), Community Development Action and Reflection (CDAR), Rural Agriculture Development Programme (RADP) and Open Doors (OD). For the purpose of study two VOs – Rural Agriculture Development Programme, from Serchhip District and Open Doors from Aizawl District are selected purposively as they are actively engaged in livelihood promotion. Selection is based on focus area of intervention of the Organisations i.e. livelihood promotion and income generation, volume of activities, coverage, and their existence in the study areas. Brief descriptions of these selected VOs are as follows:

4.3.1 Rural Agricultural Development Programme (RADP)

Rural Agricultural Development Programme (RADP), Serchhip, was set up in 2000 with a mission to improve the quality of life of the economically disadvantaged, especially those residing in remote areas of Mizoram. RADP has been implementing programmes in 38 villages of Serchhip district, focusing on rural farmers, which aim to introduce improved

agricultural technologies in the backdrop of prevailing traditional practices. These include: (a) promoting 302 Self Help Groups (SHGs) among poor farmers; (b) organising 12 capacity development programmes for the members of SHGs; (c) setting up one ‘Rural Industry Service Centre’ for production of vermicompost with the support from the Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC); (d) building one ‘Rural Haat’ (market) and promoting six farmer’s clubs with support from NABARD; (e) a ‘Farmer’s Training Programme’ (FTP), covering 400 farmers, to provide technical inputs on organic farming, soil and water management and control of insect and diseases; and (f) conducting skill development training programmes for handicraft. Till date, under the various developmental programme implemented by the RADP, the outreach had reached to 38 villages of Serchhip District. The organisation is a registered body under the Mizoram Societies Registration Act, 2005 (Act No 13 Of 2005).

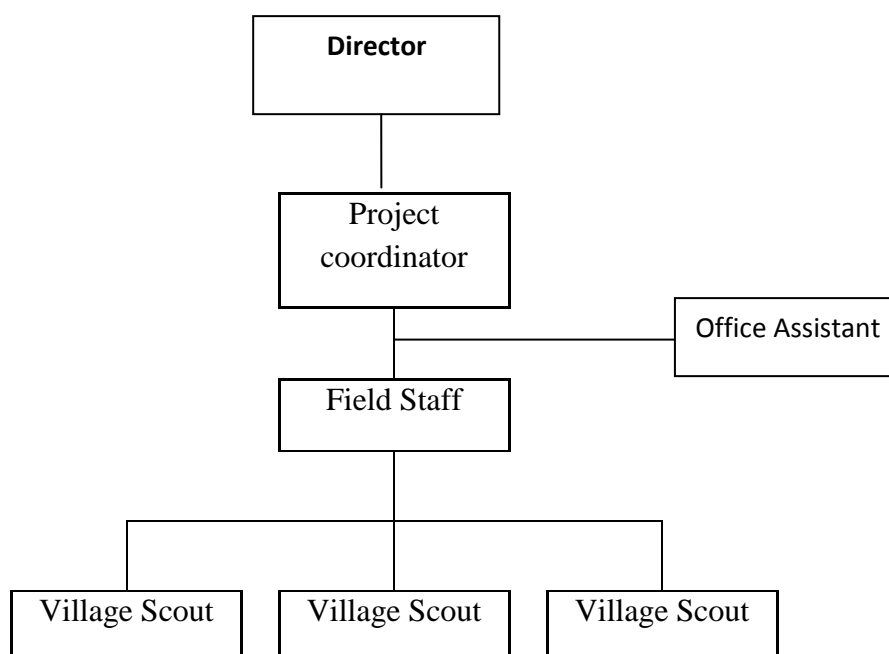
Table 4.1 Livelihood Promotion Activities of the RADP

Sr. No	Name of Activity	Year	Sponsored Agency	Outputs/Outcome
1.	Self Help Group Promotion	2000	NABARD	The totals of 352 SHG are formed with an objective of self-reliant economy by promoting credit access. Internal lending and inter loaning were promoted. More than half of the total SHGs formed is still continuing the activities.
2.	Establishment of Rural Industry Service	2004	KVIC	The centre provides training facilities focusing on showcasing skill development. Trade includes

				bamboo handicrafts and incense-stick making.
3.	Agriculture Development (Farmers Market)	2006	NABARD	Develop market access for farmers through formations of farmers collectives, collective marketing and establishment of farmers market.
4.	Enhancement of income through rejuvenation of orange orchard	2012	NRTT	Covering 60 farmers across 3 villages through promotion of scientific management of orange orchard, transfer of technology and credit linkages.

Source: RADP Activity Report

Organisational Structure of RADP:



4.3.2 Open Doors (OD)

Open Doors (OD) is a non-profit voluntary organisation, established in 2008 and registered under Mizoram Societies Registration Act, 2005 (Act No 13 Of 2005) with registration no.MSR-137 of 10.01.2008. It was established with the aim of providing services for all round development of people and ensure sustainable livelihood for the community through local capacity building and enhancement of management skills on community resources. As an organisation, Open Doors is putting its efforts to sensitize and collaborating with local NGOs', community based organisation (CBOs), and various government departments to fulfill its objectives for the disadvantaged people in the community and continuing foster towards networking to create a larger platform to address pertinent issues and bring in overall development of the community. The Governing Body of OD consists of eight members. Presently, OD works in two districts of Mizoram – Kolasib and Aizawl. With the financial support from National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), OD has been forming Self Help Groups (SHG) as well as undertaking capacity development of SHGs. 15 SHGs have been formed under the programme, covering 150 women. The members of SHGs undertake income generation activities such as pig rearing, poultry and bag making. Skill development training programmes on tailoring and embroidery have been organised, covering 40 women, with financial support from NABARD. After the completion of the programmes, women have successfully undertaken related activities to earn income.

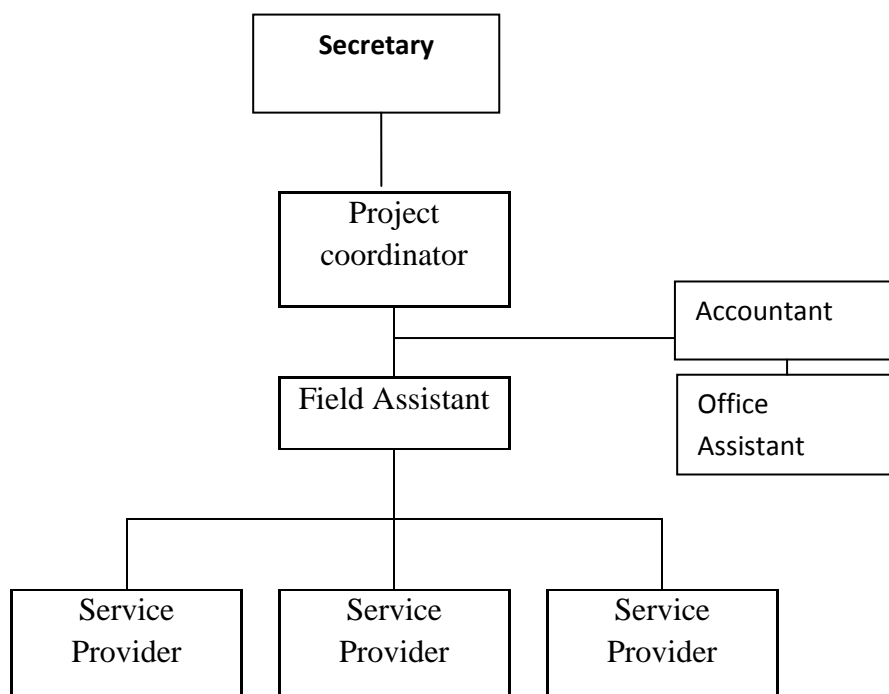
Table 4.2: Livelihood Promotion Activities of Open Doors

Sr. No	Name of Activity	Year	Sponsored Agency	Outputs/Outcome
1.	Skill Development training on bag making, flower making, beauty culture, broom processing, tailoring and hand-made	2008-2011	NABARD	The total of 235 women and girls had attended the trainings and presently engaged in various trades to support themselves and families.

	embroidery			
2.	Research: Needs Assessment on Urban Deprived Children in Aizawl City Area	2009-2010	SSA, Aizawl District	The study on 300 children provided an insights to the SSA, Aizawl District to find out to what extent they have achieved their objectives, how effective the present services, and what more needs to be done especially for urban deprived children.
3.	Promotion and linkage of Self Help Groups	2011-2014	NABARD	15 SHGs were formed and training are being given on Book keeping and documentation
4.	Sustainable Livelihood of Rural women through pig breeding	2011	NRTT	15 women took up pig breeding as an income generating activity. Till date, 112 piglets are produced and the income from sell of piglets is Rs. 36,000 per farmer.
5.	Entrepreneurship and skill development on soap and detergent making	2012	IIE, Guwahati	30 participants became skilful to make soap and detergent for an additional income

Source: Open Doors Annual Report

Organisational Structure of Open Doors:



4.5 Livelihood Promotion Strategies

Whilst both Organisations selected for the study focused on livelihood promotion, their operational strategies and approaches are different. RADP focuses on cluster based approach through transfer of technology to a target group that can even include the entire villages without any distinction between genders. Whereas Open Doors strategy is mobilization of target groups mainly vulnerable sections of society- women. Till date, the entire target group consists of women except for few vocational training courses which include male members.

Korten (1987) classified voluntary organisations working in the area of development based on their strategies. VOs can be identified into three distinctive orientations in programming strategy: (a) relief and welfare; (b) local self-reliance; and (c) sustainable systems development. All three strategic orientations appropriately co-exist within the larger developmental community and sometimes even within a single voluntary organisation.

Table 4.3: Voluntary Organisation Development Program Strategies

Sl.no	Characteristics	Organisation	
		Open Doors	RADP
1	Features	Small Scale and Self Reliant local Development	Small Scale and Self Reliant local Development
2	Problem Definition	Community Self Help initiative	Local inertia/Trade specific delinquency
3	Time Frame	Project life	Project life
4	Spatial Scope	Neighbourhood and village	Cluster and region
5	Actors	NGO + Women Self-Help Groups	NGO + Farmer Clubs
6	Management Orientation	Project management	Project management

Features: The two organisations, RADP and Open Doors, have developed a strategy of self-reliant in their developmental approach. All their activities are based out of

Community organisation, undertook small scale community base activity and they can be termed as second generation voluntary organisation. Their efforts stressed on local self-reliance, with the intent that benefits would be sustained beyond the period of VOs assistance. VO activities are parallel to those of government, but are defended on the grounds that the government services are inadequate in the villages and areas in which the VO works.

Problem Definition: Whilst Open Doors build their strategy around problem that arises from local inertia, RADP's strategy is based on problems that are identified within a specific trade. Strategy that is defined from local inertia focuses more on community mobilization, community participation and felt-need of the community. In case of Open Doors, problems that are identified include low income of the household and the need to increase women participation in family settings. However, mobilization and sensitization is focused on vulnerable section of the society, in this case woman.

The strategy is developed out of the problems that persist in a specific trade which subsequently affects the performance of the aforementioned trade. The RADP choose a cluster approached wherein efforts are made to increase the efficiency of a specific trade, in this case decline in production of crops. Subsequently with due efforts, by increasing the productivity of crops, increase in income of household can be achieved thereby increasing economic status.

Time Frame: The duration of intervention for both the organisation is within the "project life". Once the project period is over, the VOs then moved out from the intervention area or villages. However, since focus is made on increasing the capacity of farmers through transfer of technology, the intervention is sustain even after the organisation pull out from a specific area. Any technology or livelihood activities promoted by the oragnisation are sustained at the household level through practice of the transferred technology and groups are sustained through the various self-help initiatives promoted by the organisation.

Spatial Scope: The geographic coverage depends on the area which the organisation identified as a working area based on the assessment of the organisation in the case of Open Doors. Seeing the condition and the challenges that are faced by women in society, Open Doors decided to work on uplifting the status of women through economic empowerment and selected Bilkhawthlir as their intervention area. However, for RADP, the working area is defined by the presence of common local inertia and subsequently selection of beneficiaries also depends upon the eligibility of the person involving in the selected trade. For example, RADP choose to work on rejuvenation of orange orchard. Subsequently, their geographical engagement is also confined to an area where there is a need of agriculture improvement.

Actors: The composition and structure of individual involves in implementing any kind of activities are similar for both the organisation. Both the organisations have not yet established concrete collaborating with State machineries or third party institutions within its activities. The other stakeholder is mainly the communities, in this case the beneficiaries.

Management Orientation: Both the organisations function as an autonomous, self-governing entity in terms of administrative functioning; having its own bye-laws and memorandum of association. However, the mode of daily operation is influence by the kind of project activities that the oraganisation is taking up. Flexibility in working structure is observed as per the need of the project activities. Management is customized to achieve the short term objectives derived from the project.

4.4 Rural Vulnerability Context and Voluntary Organisations

Vulnerability is the result of many factors, some of which relate to policies and institutions and a lack of assets, rather than to particular trends, shocks or aspects of seasonality per se. For example, many poor urban residents suffer vulnerability due to their informal legal status, poor living environments (both physical and social), and lack of

subsistence production. It is important to gain a full overview of the causes of and underlying reasons for vulnerability (DIFD, 2000).

Trends

Rural livelihoods can be made more or less vulnerable by long-term trends. As mentioned before, duration of exposure to any negative events or trend has a significant impact on the rural vulnerabilities. It is important to distinguish factors that may be susceptible to change (in direction or intensity), from those that appear likely to continue on their current trajectory, making livelihood adaptation inevitable.

In case of RADP operational strategy, the need to intervene in area of agricultural livelihoods was driven by trends – the decline in productivity mainly orange. Farmers have cultivated oranges over several generations; however, the lack of knowledge on proper management practices of the orchards is prevalent. The production levels are very poor - 1.8 tons per hectare (as against the national average of 10.1 tons per hectare). Problems such as attack of pest, incidence of diseases, drying up of plants, dropping of immature fruits, have been posing a threat to the existence of the orchards. During winter season, plants usually suffer from water stress due to insufficient rain, as well as low moisture in the soil. Other long-standing trends can, though, be subject to sudden change. Similarly, in the case of Open Doors, with declining productivity of jhum cultivation and rapid price rise of commodities, the economic status of agricultural household in rural areas are increasingly becoming vulnerable. Taking an objective - upliftment of rural women through economic empowerment, the organisations select livestock development for improvement in the financial assets.

Shocks and Seasonality

When considering the risk of shocks, the community's (or groups within the community) own sense of past events and how often they occur can be a good guide to

frequency and severity. The key attribute of these factors is that they are not susceptible to control by local people themselves, at least in the short and medium term. It is therefore important to identify indirect means by which the negative effects of the Vulnerability Context can be minimised – including building greater resilience and improving overall livelihood security. This is of particular importance for the poor, since a common response to adverse seasonality and shocks is to dispose of assets. Yet the poor often have no saleable assets. Their lack of assets also means that they are often less able than their richer counterparts to respond to positive trends.

The seasonal occurrence of climatic events, drought and heavy rainfall are beyond the control of the communities. Preparedness and learnings from the past experience can very useful when dealing with such a situation. This can directly increase the resilience of a household. Enhancement of traditional knowledge and past experience in coping strategies with modern drought management technique is very effective in minimizing the impact of drought and famine through participatory approached (Jodha, 1991). In this study, both the organisations efforts have minimal focus in mitigating the effect of vulnerabilities caused by seasonality and shocks among rural household. The livelihood intervention focus is on enhancement of financial capital and natural capital; however, there is no component on disaster preparedness.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to describe the settings of the study area, and their vulnerability context. It also highlighted the operational strategies of the voluntary organisations viz-a-viz livelihood promotion in the study area. The next chapter presents the discussion on the structural bases of the rural household.

Figure 4.5 Seasonality Diagram: Bilkhawthlir Village

BILKHAWTHLIR PARTICULARS	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC
RAINFALL	0	0	0	000	00	000	000	000	00	0	0	0
DRY PERIOD	000	000	000	00	00	0	0	0	00	000	000	000
LANDSLIDE	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-	-	-
FLOOD	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-	-	-
DROUGHT	0	000	000	00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HOT SEASON	0	00	00	00	000	000	000	000	000	00	0	0
WORKLOAD	0	000	00	00	0	0	0	00	000	000	000	00
AGRICULTURE (RICE/SHUM)	00	000	000	00	00	0	0	00	000	000	000	00
LABOUR AVAILABILITY	0	0	0	0	0	000	00	0	0	0	0	0
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY (WORKLOAD)	000	000	000	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00
POS (RATION - RICE, K.OIL, ATTA)	00	00	00	00	00	0	0	0	0	000	000	00
MALARIA	0	0	00	000	000	000	000	000	000	00	0	0
T. B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DIARRHOEA	0	00	000	000	000	000	00	00	00	0	0	0
TRANSPORTATION (AGRICULTURE)	0	0	0	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	0	00
TRANSPORTATION (DOMESTIC)	00	0	0	00	00	00	00	00	00	0	0	00
FODDER AVAILABILITY	0	0	0	00	00	000	000	000	000	00	00	0
RICE	000	000	00	00	00	00	00	00	000	000	000	000
VEG	0	0	0	00	00	00	00	000	000	000	000	0

Figure 4.6 Seasonality Diagram: Chhingchhip Village

CHHINGCHHIP PARTICULARS	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC
RAINFALL	-	-	-	1	2	3	3	3	2	2	1	-
DRY PERIOD	3	3	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
LANDSLIDE	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	2	-	-	-	-
FLOOD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DROUGHT	2	3	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HOT SEASON	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
WORKLOAD	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	1
AGRICULTURE	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	3	3	1
LABOUR AVAILABILITY	1	1	-	-	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY (WORKLOAD)	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3
POS (RICE, K.OIL, ATTA)	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
MALARIA	-	1	1	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	1	1
T. B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DIARRHOEA	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	2	-	-	-
TRANSPORTATION (AGRICULTURE)	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1
TRANSPORTATION (DOMESTIC)	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	3
FODDER AVAILABILITY	-	-	-	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	1	-
RICE AVAILABILITY	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
VEGETABLE AVAILABILITY	-	-	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	2	2

Figure 4.7 Seasonality Diagram: Baktawng Village

BAKTAWNG PARTICULARS	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC
RAINFALL	-	-	-	1	1	2	3	3	2	1	1	-
DRY PERIOD	3	3	3	2	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	3
LANDSLIDE	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	3	-	-	-	-
FLOOD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DROUGHT	-	2	3	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HOT SEASON	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
WORK LOAD	1	2	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	2
AGRICULTURE	1	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2
LABOUR AVAILABILITY	-	-	1	1	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY (WORK LOAD)	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
PDS (RICE, K-OIL, ATTA)	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	3
MALARIA	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	1
T.B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DIARRHOEA	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	1	-	-	-
TRANSPORTATION (AGRICULTURE)	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	-
TRANSPORTATION (DOMESTIC)	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
FOODER AVAILABILITY	-	-	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	1	-
RICE AVAILABILITY	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
VEGETABLE AVAILABILITY	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	1	1	1

Figure 4.8 Seasonality Diagram: Khawbel Village

PARTICULARS KHAWBEL	JAN	FEB	MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	SEPT	OCT	NOV	DEC
RAIN FALL	-	-	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	2	1	-
DRY PERIOD	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	-	-	1	1	2
LANDSLIDE	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	2	-	-	-
FLOOD	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DROUGHT	2	3	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HOT SEASON	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
WORK LOAD	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	1
AGRICULTURE	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	2	1
LABOUR AVAILABILITY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY (WORK LOAD)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3
PDS (RICE, K-OIL, ATTA)	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
MALARIA	-	-	-	2	3	3	3	-	-	-	-	-
T.B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DIARRHOEA	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	3	2	-	-	-
TRANSPORTATION (AGRICULTURE)	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	1	1
TRANSPORTATION (DOMESTIC)	2	2	2	2	1	-	-	-	1	2	2	-
FOODER AVAILABILITY	-	-	-	-	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2
RICE AVAILABILITY	3	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3
VEG AVAILABILITY	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	1

CHAPTER V

SOCIO ECONOMIC STRUCTURAL BASES OF BENEFICIARIES

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to discuss the result of the analysis quantitative data on the demographic, social and economic background of the respondents. This chapter answers the question that the interventions of voluntary organisations benefit whom. The chapter is presented in three broad sections. The first section describes the demographic structural bases of the sample households. The second describes the social structural bases of the selected households and the last section is devoted to discuss the economic structural characteristics of the sample households across two voluntary organisations.

5.1. Demographic Structural Bases of Respondents

In this section, the demographic characteristics of the respondents viz. gender, age group, marital status and education status are discussed (see Table 5.1).

Gender is the basic variable that represents the basic social structure and affects social institutions. Overall, there was almost equal distribution of members surveyed across gender (see Table 5.1). A little more than half of the sample respondents were male (59%) and the rest were female (41%). However, the pattern of beneficiary selection is different for both Open Doors and RADP across gender. In Open Doors area, the majority of respondents belong to female (74%) whilst the remaining is male (26%). The proportion of male was higher in RADP areas (72%) and female constitute lower proportion of beneficiaries (28%).

Age is an important variable that connotes the vigour and also productivity of an individual, subsequently the earning capacity. Age has been divided into three groups viz. youth (18-35), middle age (36-59) and Old age (60 and above). On the whole, majority of the respondents belongs to Middle-Aged group (36-59) which constitute 78 percent of the total. The youth group consist of only one-fifth (20%) of the total respondents while only a single

respondent (2%) represents the Old Age group. The overall mean age stands at 45 yrs. which falls in the age group of Middle Age. This pattern of distribution of the respondents surveyed is both similar in the two VO operational areas (see Table 5.1). However, there is no respondent above the age of 60 yrs. in the case of OD operational area.

Marital Status is another important factor that can mark the family ability to have a cohesive family and in turn have higher social support. Since the majority of respondents belong to middle aged group, most of the respondents are also married (see Table. 5.1). Almost all the respondents are married (92%) and only one respondent is unmarried. However there are a few respondents, who are widowed (6%) and none of the widowed returned to their father's house, but prefer to settle as an independent family.

Education is one the basic needs of human and it denotes the human capital of an individual in terms of Sustainable Livelihood Framework (Carney, 1998; Scoones, 1998). Educational status of the respondents was divided into three levels viz., primary (1-4), middle (5-8) and high school (9-10). Overall there were no illiterate among the respondents. The highest number of respondents belongs to middle education Std (5-8) which constitute 59 percent of the total and one fourth of the respondents (255) had primary education. The least portion of the respondents (15%) had high school education.

5.2 Structural Bases of Family

In this section the type, size, form and gender of head of the family are discussed in detail. Family is classified into two types, nuclear and joint family. Overall, nearly four-fifth (76%) of the sample households are nuclear family while one fifth (23%) of sample households are joint family (see Table 5.2). The pattern is similar for both the organisation operational areas. A similar pattern on family type was also found in earlier study in Mizoram (Kanagaraj and Ralte, 2012; Zaitinvawra, 2014).

The form of family is the third indicator that is taken for family structure. There are only two form of family that were observed in the study, stable and broken. Almost all sample households (98%) have stable form of family while remaining sample household (2%) have broken form of family. Only one family is reported to have broken family which is reported in Open Doors operational area. The similar pattern of form of family is observed in earlier study in Mizoram (Zaitinvawra, 2014).

The size of family is very important in rural Mizoram since it is considered as directly affects the availability of labour for agriculture pursuit. However, large family size does not necessarily affects the income generating potential. In this study, the size of family was classified into three groups, small (1-3), medium (4-6) and large (7-8). The majority of the household were of medium size which constitutes more than half (62%). The large size family constitutes a little less than one-fourth (23%) while the remaining households (13%) constitute the small size family.

Gender of head of the household is another important aspect taken as the fourth indicator of family structure. Majority of the households are male headed (92%) while only a few (8%) comprises of female headed households. Similar findings were also observed in earlier rural studies in Mizoram (Laltlanmawii 2007; Zaitinvawra 2014).

5.3 Social Structural Characteristics of Sample Household

Social structure is the relationship and distinctive arrangement of institution in a society, whereby human beings in a society interact and live together. The social structure characteristics of the sample households that are discussed in this section include ethnicity, religion and denomination.

On the whole, almost all sample household belongs to Lusei (98%), the remaining belongs to on family belongs to Lai (2%). In OD operational area, all the respondents are

belongs to Lusei tribe while RADP operational area has seen the inclusion of one Lai family (see Table 5.3).

All the sample households follow Christianity as their religion. However, there is a diverse denomination among the sample households. This includes Presbyterian Church, Baptist Church, Salvation Army, and United Pentecostal Church, Roman Catholic and local denomination. Overall, a little less than half belongs to Presbyterian (44%) which constitutes the majority. Nearly one fourth of the sample household belongs to Baptist (22%). One-fifth (20%) belongs to The Salvation Army followed by Local Denomination (8%), UPC (4%) and Roman Catholic (4%).

The study showed that, in terms of selection of beneficiaries, Open Doors are more sensitive towards smaller denomination and represent a much more diverse population. Whereas, for RADP, majority of the sample households (83%) belong to Presbyterian and Baptist Church (see Table 5.3).

5.4 Economics Structural Bases

In this section, the economic structural base of the sample household will be discussed which includes the primary occupation, secondary occupation, type of cultivators and also socio-economic status.

The first indicator of economic structure is primary occupation. On the whole, more than half of the sample household (59%) depends on cultivation as their primary source of income. A little less than one-fifth (16%) depends on petty business. One-tenth (11%) of the sample household depends on skilled labour while another one-tenth (10%) depends on government service (see Table 5.4).

Going further, study have showed that in RADP operational area, cultivators consist of more than three fourth (77%) of the total sample household followed by Government workers (11%), skilled labours (8%) and petty business (3%). Open Doors operational area

showed a uniform spread across all occupations where a little less than half (44%) are under petty business, followed by skilled labour (20), large business and cultivators (13%) and government worker (7%).

The second indicator of economic structure is secondary occupation. Overall, a little higher than one-tenth (12%) of the sample household have no secondary occupation. Wage labour and cultivations occupies more than half (61%) of the sample household while a little portion (6%) of the sample household considered NERGA as secondary occupation.

The pattern of secondary occupation distribution is different for the two organisations. While Open Doors has smaller diversity, cultivators (73%), wage labour (20) and petty business (7%), the RADP operational area has showed that a little less than one third (33%) of the sample household are without secondary occupation which occupies the majority sample followed by wage labour (25%), cultivators (22%) and a few (8%) perceived NERGA as secondary source of income.

The third indicator of economic structure is type of cultivator. Overall, the highest proportion is settled cultivators (67%) followed by semi settled, which occupies one fifth of the sample household (10%). Only a little proportion reported shifting cultivation (4%). The pattern is similar for both the organisations.

The socio-economics category reveals the social class and is a reliable indicator of the same (Zaitinwara and Kanagaraj, 2008). The socio-economic category in this study are divided into three class viz. very poor (household classified under Antyodaya Anna Yojana), poor (Below Poverty Line i.e., BPL) and non-poor (Above Poverty Line i.e., APL).

In the study, more than half (57%) of the sample household belong to poor class (BPL). One-fourth belongs to non-poor class (APL) while the remaining (16%) belongs to very poor class (AAY). Further, large majority (73%) of household sample in Open Doors operational area belongs to non-poor group. A little more than one fourth (27%) falls under

poor family and no very poor family. Whereas, the area under RADP showed that majority (69%) belongs to poor category, followed by very poor family (22%) and lastly non-poor (8%). It is clear from the results that, OD beneficiaries are economically more stable than RADP beneficiaries.

In this chapter, an attempt has been made to discuss the household structure including demographic, social and economic. This chapter highlights the structural context of household after the VOs livelihood intervention. In the light of the structural context, the next chapter will highlight the voluntary interventions and their impact on livelihood and living conditions at household level.

Table 5.1 Demographic composition of sample Households

Sl.No	Characteristic	Voluntary Organisation		Total N = 51
		OD n = 15	RADP n = 36	
I	Gender			
	Male	4 (27)	26 (72)	30 (59)
	Female	11 (73)	10 (28)	21 (41)
II	Age Group			
	Youth(18 - 35 Years)	7 (47)	3 (8)	10 (20)
	Middle Aged(36 - 59 Years)	8 (53)	32 (89)	40 (78)
	Old Age(60 and Above)	0 (0)	1 (3)	1 (2)
	<i>Average Age</i>	38 ±6	48 ± 8	45 ± 9
III	Marital Status			
	Unmarried	1 (6.67)	0 (0.00)	1 (1.96)
	Married	12 (80.00)	35 (97.22)	47 (92.15)
	Widowed	2 (13.33)	1 (2.78)	3 (5.88)
IV	Education Status			
	Primary(1 - 4)	0 (0.00)	13 (36.11)	13 (25.49)
	Middle (5 - 8)	10 (66.67)	20 (55.56)	30 (58.82)
	High School (9 - 10)	5 (33.33)	3 (8.33)	8 (15.68)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.2 Structure of Family

SI No	Characteristic	Voluntary Organisation		Total n = 51
		OD n = 15	RADP n = 36	
I	Type of Family			
	Nuclear	11 (73.33)	28 (77.78)	39 (76.47)
	Joint	4 (26.67)	8 (22.22)	12 (23.52)
II	Form of Family			
	Stable	14 (93.33)	36 (100.00)	50 (98.03)
	Broken	1 (6.67)	0 (0.00)	1 (1.96)
III	Size of Family			
	Small (1-3)	2 (13.33)	5 (13.89)	7 (13.72)
	Medium (4-6)	10 (66.67)	22 (61.11)	32 (62.74)
	Large (7 and above)	3 (20.00)	9 (25.00)	12 (23.52)
IV	Gender of Head			
	Male	12 (80.00)	35 (97.22)	47 (92.15)
	Female	3 (20.00)	1 (2.78)	4 (7.84)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.3 Social Structure of Sample Household

SI No	Characteristic	Voluntary Organisation		Total n = 51
		OD n = 15	RADP n = 36	
I	Ethnicity			
	Lusei	15 (100.00)	35 (97.22)	50 (98.03)
	Lai	0 (0.00)	1 (2.78)	1 (1.96)
II	Religion			
	Christian	15 (100)	36 (100)	51 (100)
III	Denomination			
	Presbyterian	2 (13.33)	20 (55.56)	22 (43.13)
	Baptist	1 (6.67)	10 (27.78)	11 (21.56)
	UPC	0 (0.00)	2 (5.56)	2 (3.92)
	The Salvation Army	8 (53.33)	2 (5.56)	10 (19.60)
	Local Denominations	4 (26.67)	0 (0.00)	4 (7.84)
	Roman Catholic	0 (0.00)	2 (5.56)	2 (3.92)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

5.4 Economic Structure of Sample Household

SI No	Characteristic	Voluntary Organisation		Total n = 51
		OD n = 15	RADP n = 36	
I	Primary Occupation			
	Government Worker	1 (6.67)	4 (11.11)	5 (9.80)
	Cultivators	2 (13.33)	28 (77.78)	30 (58.82)
	Skilled Labour	3 (20.00)	3 (8.33)	6 (11.76)
	Petty Business	7 (46.67)	1 (2.78)	8 (15.68)
	Large Business	2 (13.33)	0 (0.00)	2 (3.92)
II	Secondary Occupation			
	None	0 (0.00)	12 (33.33)	12 (23.52)
	Cultivators	11 (73.33)	8 (22.22)	19 (37.25)
	Wage labour	3 (20.00)	9 (25.00)	12 (23.52)
	Skilled Labour	0 (0.00)	4 (11.11)	4 (7.84)
	Petty Business	1 (6.67)	0 (0.00)	1 (1.96)
	NREGA	0 (0.00)	3 (8.33)	3 (5.88)
III	Type of Cultivator			
	Non Cultivators	4 (26.67)	1 (2.78)	5 (9.80)
	Shifting	0 (0.00)	2 (5.56)	2 (3.92)
	Semi settled	3 (20.00)	7 (19.44)	10 (19.60)
	Settled	8 (53.33)	26 (72.22)	34 (66.66)
IV	Socio Economic Status			
	Very Poor(AAY)	0 (0.00)	8 (22.22)	8 (15.68)
	Poor(BPL)	4 (26.67)	25 (69.44)	29 (56.86)
	Non-poor(APL)	11 (73.33)	3 (8.33)	14 (27.45)

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

CHAPTER VI

VOLUNTARY INTERVENTIONS AND LIVELIHOOD IMPROVEMENT

The present chapter tries to highlight the role of VO as a developmental agencies and how the VOs efforts translate to the household development of the project beneficiaries. The second section will also give a clear picture on the perceived impact of the VOs livelihood intervention among the respondents.

The role of voluntary organisations as a change agent is widely acclaimed and well documented by many scholars. VOs or NGOs are considered as the catalysts to facilitate or contribute to improved thinking and action to promote positive change. This may be directed towards individuals or groups in local communities, or among other actors in development. The focus can be vast and varying in nature and may include grassroots organising, gender empowerment, lobbying and advocacy, research and even an attempt to influence wider policy processes. Further, many studies consider that NGOs can also be taken as potentially critical catalysts for unlocking the energies and resources of the poor and voiceless, and for building pluralistic and democratic societies (Lewis 2009; Kanji 2009; Brown 1988). The first section will present the utilization of the service provided by the VO under its Livelihood Intervention. The second section will elaborate on the perceived Impact of the Livelihood Interventions and the third sections will present the household impact vis-à-vis case study.

6.1 Utilisation of Livelihood Interventions

In Sustainable Livelihood Framework, livelihood assets consist of different forms of capital such as natural capital, physical capital, financial capital, human capital, social capital and political capital. Under the livelihood intervention of the VOs, the intervention can be divided into five groups, capacity building, provision of agriculture inputs, non-agriculture cash loan, farm input subsidy and agriculture marketing (see Table 6.1). Under Capacity

building, all the 51 respondents answered that they were covered by the VOs intervention. The main activity under capacity building includes development of extension service to the farmers which can provide technical inputs to trade specific activities focusing on transfer of technologies. None of the respondents reported that they paid for the service. Almost all the respondents (98%) reported that they have utilized the knowledge gain because of the intervention during the past 12 months. Agriculture inputs are also provided to the beneficiaries in both the VO interventions. However, a little less than one fourth (71%) of the respondents reported that they paid for the inputs that were provided by the organisation. In terms of utilizing the service for the last 12 months, all the respondents reported to have utilized their knowledge and inputs provided by the organisation. A credit facility in terms of loans was also made available to the farmers, however only one (2%) of the total respondents took loan which was under Open Doors intervention area. Farm inputs were also made available to the farmers, where focus was made on improving the productivity of the farm trade and which can enhance its efficiency. All the respondents reported to receive the benefits. A noteworthy point for this activity is that, the inputs are not given total free of cost, but the farmers have to bear certain amount of the cost. This increases the ownership of the farmers and increases the participation in all the developmental activities. Agriculture marketing is promoted only under RADP operational area which accounts a little less than one fourth (71%) of the total respondents.

6.2 Perceived Impact of Livelihood Interventions

The sections will elaborate the perceived impact of the VOs livelihood interventions at household level. It probes into the qualitative aspect of the research and effort was made to highlight the effect of the intervention at household level. The respondents were asked different sets of questions on how the intervention has improved their quality of life on which they have to rate “no”, “a little”, “medium” and “a lot”. The entire respondent agreed that

there has been a lot of improvement in skill for income generating activities (see Table 6.2). Similarly motivation to earn more income has increased a lot among all the respondents.

It was also observed that, only in the case of Open Doors operational area, the respondents agreed that there is increased women participation in decision making. Whereas the respondents in RADP area felt that there is only a little improvement in women participation in decision making.

Overall happiness in life has increase across all respondents where it was rate an average of “medium”. The intervention does not provide much support to better market linkage; the average rating was “a little” across the respondents. All the respondents feel that the intervention does not change in environmental awareness and skill to deal with health problems.

6.3 Dynamics of Impact: Select Case Studies

This section will present a few selected case studies that will enhance the understanding on the voluntary organisation livelihood intervention. Two cases each from each of the two organisations are highlighted below:

Case I: An Orange Grower’s Problem Dwindles

K. Pazova, 65, of Baktawng village in Mizoram is quite active and energetic. He has a family of five including two grandchildren. His son is a farmer and helps run the family with a meagre farming income. About 40 years ago, Pazova noticed some orange trees in the jungle. Back then, orange farming was uncommon in Mizoram, but with a view to supplement his income he decided to cultivate oranges. With insurgency in the region at its peak, he migrated from his native village to a new place and set up an orchard in 1988 at Baktawng village.

An agent selling orange saplings was passing through the village; Pazova bought 50 saplings at Rs. 7/- each. His orchard began yielding a rich produce since 1998, leading to a

stable income. Feeling that he had a good thing going, Pazova gradually increased the orange plantation to 300 completely through his own efforts

A few years later, he was disappointed to discover that the yield was dwindling and was at a loss to determine its cause. He also found that other orange growers too faced a similar situation. A self-taught orange grower, he did not know that by just following the traditional method of letting the trees grow on their own was not enough; a proper management practice was the solution. From the year 2005-10, he could only make Rs. 5,000/- annually from the orchard.

The year 2011 proved to be a turning point for Pazova. The Rural Agricultural Development Programme (RADP), Serchhip, started to focus on improved management practices for cultivating oranges in Serchhip district, Mizoram. RADP organised training programmes for farmers such as Pazova, which taught them ways to improve productivity. Initial scepticism soon turned into positive smiles when they applied the recently learned skills which brought significantly better yields.

A smiling Pazova glowingly stated, “My yield has gone up by more than 100 per cent and I earned an income of Rs. 35,000/- in 2011. I look forward to providing better education to my grandchildren and invest in a better livelihood.”

Case II: Appropriate Technology for Better Livelihood

Mr. Rongura, from Chhingchhip village, is one of the beneficiaries under the livelihood intervention of RADP. All of his three sons got married and among the three, two are staying in different houses. Now, he stays with his wife and youngest son who is married and do not have a child. Before the intervention, their main occupation was Jhum Cultivation and they do not have any other secondary occupation.

He started orange cultivation since 1998 and at present he has a total of 200 plants. He harvests the yield since 2008 but the yield was very low. He himself tries to apply manure

and compost to all the plants, but was not able to proceed due to poor economic condition of his family.

Since 2011, when the RADP project started in his village, he was selected as one of the beneficiaries. He practices all the different agriculture technologies that were introduced by the organisation. His orange orchard is improving each year with the application of new technologies. In the year 2010, the return from his harvest (in rupees) was Rs 15,000/- only. But, after the organisation's involvement, the return has increased to Rs 30,000/-. These results showed that the correct and right management has resulted in high harvest. The additional income was used for purchasing two piglets and now the family started to include livestock as tertiary occupation.

Mr. Rongura said, "I face many changes and progress as soon as the project started. Before, I never practiced any kind of management even pruning, proper soil conservation, proper timing of irrigation, half-moon terrace etc. After I applied the technologies, the weak plants have recovered and subsequently a good harvest"

Case III: Diversification of Income through Livestock Development

The first case study selected from Open Doors intervention area is Ms. Lalngaizuali, a 53 year old farmer from Bilkhawthlir village. A family of five members, her husband and herself works on agricultural pursuits mainly jhum cultivation. The main source of income of family is jhum cultivation. All of the three children attended the school system; the eldest is in high school standard, the middle child studying her middle schooling and the youngest child is also studying in middle school. With declining harvest from the jhum fields, the family was living in a tight hand-to-mouth situation. With such a low quality of life, accumulating and developing their household asset is next to impossible.

In the year 2011-12, Mr. Lalngaizuali was selected among the few fortunate farmers as direct beneficiaries of livelihood project under Open Doors. The activity focuses on

enhancing the economic condition of farmers through promotion of improved pig breeding. The specific objectives of the project are to: (i) improve the standard of living of rural poor communities with income generated through pig breeding; (ii) produce good quality piglets through introduction of improved pig breeding practices to minimize dependency on neighbouring states or countries; and (iii) develop capacity of farmers on improved practices on pig breeding; such as better feeding, improved pigsty, community based prevention and control of diseases.

Now, she is a proud owner of two breeding sows and a hygienic-improved pigsty. Before the VOs livelihood intervention, the family do not have any secondary form of occupation. Now, the livestock can be considered as the family's secondary occupation where a maximum input is provided by Mrs. Ngaizuali. As per estimate, from the two breeding sows, the family is able to generate an additional income of Rs 20,000/- annually through the sale of piglets. The additional income is mainly spent on festivities expenses and children education. A note-worthy aspect is that because of increase in additional income, Mrs. Ngaizuali conveyed the improvement in female-hygiene condition for her two daughters and herself through easier access to sanitary napkins. Mrs. Ngaizuali expressed that, she now felt more confident and composed knowing that there alternate income generating portfolio besides agriculture pursuits.

Case IV: Confidence for a Single Parent Enhanced

Mrs Lalrinmawii, 35 years old is a widow in Bilkhawthlir Village. A mother of three children and she is the sole bread-winner for the family. Her husband passed away on a car accident in 2004. Since then, she supported her family through cultivation, cash cropping through arecanut plantation and engaging in wage labour as and when available.

As similar to the previous case, Mrs Rinmawii was selected as direct beneficiaries under the livelihood promotion project of Open Doors in the year 2011-12. Through the

support, she started rearing two breeding sows. The organisation has provided all necessary items and seeds in kind as well as improvement in skill through series of trainings. She expressed that, beside the benefits that were received in kind, the capacity building focusing on improved livestock management had really helped her in gaining confidence to take up livestock as an enterprise or as a livelihood option. Now the family is able to enhance its additional income to a tune of Rs. 25,000/- from the two breeding sows through the sale of piglets. The additional income is mainly used for covering the education expenditure as well as buying household furniture. With a stable alternate income and improved skill set, she felt more confident in dealing with daily life and through the support she received from the Self Help Group; she is more active in interaction to other members of society.

The cases cited above demonstrate the impact of the livelihood promotion strategies of two voluntary organisations at household level. All the cases have showed that the VOs livelihood intervention has assisted in enhancing the household income and there by proved to be successful.

Whilst Case I and Case II focus on agriculture development, Case III and Case IV focus on livestock development; all these cases demonstrate the livelihood strategies are focussing on improving the access of the households to natural assets. Besides improvement in natural assets, the cases also clearly depict improvement in human capital through transfer of technology. The main activities leading to improvement in human capital were the series of training programmes and workshops that were conducted by the VOs. All the four cases have resulted in better livelihood outcome i.e. higher additional income.

The cases also represent the linkage between the different capitals as per the Sustainable Livelihood Framework. In all the above cases, the improvement in Natural Capital and Human Capital leads to increase income and decrease in vulnerability. The improvement in income resulted in higher investment to improve the human capital and

physical capital. Another unique impact of the intervention is represented in Case III, where improvement in livelihood leads to improvement in health and hygiene of an individual again better livelihood outcomes.

In this chapter, the role of VO as a developmental agencies are highlighted and Impact of the livelihood interventions and the third section presented the household impact vis-à-vis case study. In the light of this, the next chapter will elaborate the patterns of rural livelihood and living conditions. The chapter will present the living condition “before” and “after” the VOs livelihood intervention.

6.1 Table Pattern of Utilization of Livelihood Intervention of VOs

Sl.No	Particulars	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36			
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
I	Capacity Building						
	Selected as Beneficiary	15	100	36	100	51	100
	Utilized the Service	14	93	36	100	50	98
	Paid For Service	0	0	0	0	0	0
II	Provision of Agriculture Inputs						
	Selected as Beneficiary	15	100	36	100	51	100
	Utilised the Service	15	100	36	100	51	100
	Paid For Service	0	0	36	100	36	71
III	Non Agriculture Cash Loan						
	Selected as Beneficiary	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Utilised the Service	1	7	0	0	1	2
	Paid For Service	0	0	0	0	0	0
IV	Farm Input Subsidy						
	Selected as Beneficiary	15	100	36	100	51	100
	Utilised the Service	15	100	36	100	51	100
	Paid For Service	15	100	36	100	51	100
V	Agriculture Marketing						
	Selected as Beneficiary	0	0	36	100	36	71
	Utilised the Service	0	0	36	100	36	71
	Paid For Service	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Computed

6.2 Table Perceived Impact of Livelihood Intervention of VOs

Sl.No	Impact	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36			
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Improvement in Skills	2.7	0.5	2.5	0.8	2.6	0.7
2	Motivation to Earn More Income	2.8	0.4	2.3	0.6	2.5	0.6
3	Increased Women Participation	3.0	0.0	1.9	0.6	2.2	0.7
4	Happiness in Life (2-3yrs)	1.9	0.6	1.9	0.7	1.9	0.7
5	Better Market Information	1.0	0.8	1.9	0.8	1.6	0.9
6	Increased Environmental Awareness	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.6
7	Skills to Deal With Health Problems	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5

Source: Computed

CHAPTER VII

PATTERNS OF RURAL LIVELIHOOD AND LIVING CONDITIONS

The present study draws its inspiration from Sustainable Livelihood Framework (see DIFD; Scoones, 1998). This framework is used to understand the livelihood promotion strategies of the voluntary organisations and their impact on their beneficiaries in rural areas of Mizoram. In this chapter, the livelihood assets are discussed so as to understand the pre-livelihood situation. The chapter is divided into two sections. The first chapter is focus on the patterns of rural livelihood and the second sections presents the discussion of the living conditions of the household surveyed.

7.1 Patterns of Rural Livelihoods

Livelihood assets are includes different forms of capital such as natural capital, human capital, physical capital, financial capital, social capital and political capital. To address all these aspects, a single household has diversified engagement to maintain a sustainable livelihood. Many studies have conclude that majority of rural producers have historically diversified their productive activities to cover a range of other productive areas. Impulses for such diversification are multifarious, linked with wide range of possible activities, and associated with both positive and negative outcomes. This recognition has led many researchers to represent rural livelihoods as constructed from a portfolio of resources, or activities (Adams and Mortimore 1997; Dercon and Krishnan 1996; Ellis 1996; Unni 1996).

7.1.1 Pattern of Natural Capital

The natural capital holds a high significance in terms of generating a sustainable livelihood as it is directly linked to the occupation to generate food, shelter and income. Most of the rural families depend upon the natural resource to derive their livelihoods activities. In this study, land and livestock were taken as the indicator for the pattern natural assets.

Overall, the mean value of Natural assets stands at Rs. 1, 54,263 before the livelihood interventions and rise to Rs. 2, 10,135 after the intervention. Land occupies majority (95%) and livestock occupies less than one tenth (5%) of total natural asset before the intervention. However, after the livelihood intervention, land occupies only a little more than three fourth (88%) and livestock occupies a little more than one tenth (12%) of the natural assets after the intervention (see Table 7.1 and Table 7.2).

In the case of OD intervention area, there is a sharp increase in the value of Livestock which stands at Rs. 17,297 before to Rs. 79,107 after VO intervention and thereby increases the share of livestock from 5 percent to 15 percent. Subsequently the share of livestock falls from 95 percent to 85%. The similar trend is not observed in case of RADP operational area where livestock has seen only a marginal increase (9%) from the base share (5%). The share of land shows only slight decrease (91%) from the base share (95%) (see Table 7.2).

7.1.2 Pattern of Physical Capital

Physical capital also gives an insight on the quality of life and living conditions. It includes the basic infrastructure, house, utilities, transports, water, energy and production utilities that enable the people to pursue their livelihoods. In this study, the physical infrastructure includes house, household furniture, television, jewelry, vehicles and mobile phones (see Table 7.2 and Table 7.3).

Before the intervention of livelihoods, the majority (87%) is occupied by house among the physical asset of the sample household. The other indicators shares are negligible except furniture which occupies only a small portion (6%) of the total share. In terms of ranking, house ranks the highest followed by furniture, utensils, television, jewelry and radio in descending order. The pattern is similar in both the organisation intervention area.

After the livelihood intervention, house still occupies the majority (75%) among the physical asset of the sample household. However there is a decline in the share of house by

12 percent. The other indicators shares have increase slightly furniture (9%) and utensil (6%) . The study have shown an entry of new indicator in the physical assets, mobile phones (5%) . In terms of ranking, house still rank the highest followed by furniture, utensils, mobiles phones television, two wheeler, jewelry and radio in descending order. The pattern is similar in both the organisation intervention area.

7.1.3 Pattern of Financial Assets

Financial capital is the third indicator of livelihood asset which denotes the financial resources that are owned by the household for consumption and productive purposes. As per the DFID, financial asset is the most versatile of all the five assets and is the assets that is least available to the rural poor. The study also depicts the same trend where financial assest is least significant with the rural livelihood. The difference between the values of saving and household debt is considered as net financial capital of the household (see Table 7.5)

Overall, there is an increase in household savings and household debts after the VO livelihood intervention. The pattern is similar for both the organisation. The mean value of financial assets before the VO livelihood intervention was Rs. 2,227, it rises to Rs. 10,102 after the livelihood intervention. The mean value of saving was only Rs. 3,039 before the livelihood interventions; however it rises to Rs. 12,543 after the VO livelihood intervention. The mean value of debts before the intervention was Rs. 812 only; however it rose to Rs. 2,441 after the VO intervention.

In OD intervention area, there is cent per cent rise in the debts, where none of the sample households had debts, however after the VO intervention mean value of debt increase to Rs. 4,733. This also shows that the burrowing capacity of the household as well as credit awareness has increased which lead to burrowing of credit. The pattern is still a positive trend since the mean value of savings is higher than mean value of debts (see Table 7.3)

7.2 Pattern of Living Conditions

The last dimension of Sustainable Livelihood Framework is livelihood outcomes (Carney 1998; Scoones, 1998). In this study, livelihood outcomes are defined in terms of household spending, living conditions of household and food adequacy. The first section will elaborate on the pattern of annual household income pattern and the subsequent section will discuss the annual household expenditure pattern.

7.2.1 Annual Household Income Pattern

Income of the household is the first indicator to access the living conditions of the rural household which is a dependable measurement of economic development. The household income is drawn from all the sum of amount from all different income sources (see Table 7.6). The various sources of income include government services, business, agriculture, livestock and daily labour.

On the whole, agriculture and business were the two main sources of household income even before and after the VO livelihood intervention. The pattern is similar for both the VO. There was an increase in annual household income where the mean value was Rs. 77,191 before the livelihood intervention and Rs. 89,651 after the livelihood intervention. Before the livelihood intervention, business occupies nearly half (41%) of the income sources followed by agriculture (29%), NREGA (10%), livestock (9%), government service (5%) and labour (4%) occupying the last rank. After the intervention the overall annual income pattern changes where the majority comes under agriculture (35%), followed by business (34%), livestock (13%), NREGA (7%), government service (5%) and lastly labour (4%)

Further, in the case of Open Doors intervention area, livestock has seen the largest change among the household income sources i.e. before the intervention the mean value of livestock is Rs. 13,933 and it jumped to Rs. 34,933 after the intervention. In the case of RADP, the largest change in mean value is seen in case of agriculture i.e. before the

intervention the mean value of agriculture is Rs. 23,219 and it jumped to Rs. 50,365 after the intervention. This clearly shows that the activity that is chosen under the livelihood intervention has seen a positive significance in terms of annual household income.

7.2.2 Pattern of Annual Household Expenditure

Household expenditure is one of the measurements for living conditions and also poverty. In this section, the pattern of annual household expenditure is taken as an indicator which consists of food and non-food expenditure.

On the whole, among the household surveyed, the share of food expenditure (55%) is a little higher than the share of non- food expenditure (45%) before the intervention of livelihoods. The trend is similar even after the livelihood intervention where, the share of food expenditure (56%) is a little higher than the share of non- food expenditure (44%). Overall mean value of annual expenditure has risen from Rs. 26,123 to Rs. 34,088 before and after the livelihood intervention respectively (see Table 7.7).

In OD intervention area, among the household surveyed, there is same expenditure for the share of non-food (50%) and food (50%). After the livelihood intervention, the expenditure on food (54%) is a little higher than the share of non- food expenditure (46%). Further, in the case of RADP intervention area, the share of food expenditure (59%) is a higher than the share of non- food expenditure (41%) before the intervention of livelihoods. After the livelihood intervention where, the share of food expenditure decrease (57%) while the share of non- food expenditure (43%) increases.

The study has found that the increase in Natural & Physical Assets has significant positive effect on annual household income and annual expenditure (see Table 7.8). However, there is not positive significant relationship between the financial asset and annual household expenditure and income. The analysis on the pattern of livelihood assets and living conditions of the beneficiaries has also shows positive significant (see Table 7.9)

In this chapter, an attempt was made to describe the living condition living condition “before” and “after” the VOs livelihood intervention at household level. The insight gained from the emic and etic perspective will provide the information to draw the conclusion of the present study. In the light of this information, the next chapter will presents the suggestions for development practitioners and social work practice.

Table 7.1 Land Holding Pattern

Sl.No	Land Under	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36		Mean	SD
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1	LSC Before	0 (0)	0	0.22 (7.6)	0.68	0.16 (4.9)	0.58
2	LSC After	0 (0)	0	0.14 (5.0)	0.49	0.10 (3.2)	0.41
3	Periodic Land Pass Before	0 (0)	0	0.33 (11.5)	0.72	0.24 (7.3)	0.62
4	Periodic Land Pass After	0 (0)	0	0.33 (12.0)	0.72	0.24 (7.6)	0.62
5	Temporary Pass Before	3.92 (100)	1.37	2.18 (75.1)	1.50	2.69 (84.1)	1.65
6	Temporary Pass After	3.92 (100)	1.37	2.18 (78.9)	1.50	2.69 (86.7)	1.65
7	Community Land Before	0 (0)	0	0.17 (5.7)	0.38	0.12 (3.7)	0.33
8	Community Land After	0 (0)	0	0.11 (4.0)	0.32	0.08 (2.5)	0.27
9	Land Possessed Before	3.92 (100)	1.37	2.91 (100)	0.86	3.20 (100)	1.13
10	Land Possessed After	3.92 (100)	1.37	2.77 (100)	0.92	3.11 (100)	1.18

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.2 Pattern of Natural Assets

Sl.No	Value of	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36			
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Land Possessed Before	356667 (95.0)	130749	193889 (95.0)	132277	241765 (95.0)	150485
2	Land Possessed After	462667 (85.0)	143650	221278 (91.0)	142922	292275 (88.0)	180044
3	Livestock Before	17297 (5.0)	11690	10738 (5.0)	10561	12667 (5.0)	11200
4	Livestock After	79107 (15.0)	15692	21136 (9.0)	23132	38186 (12.0)	33988
5	Natural Assets Before	373964 (100)	127552	204627 (100)	137161	254432 (100)	154263
6	Natural Assets After	541773 (100)	157132	242414 (100)	161537	330461 (100)	210135

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.3 Pattern of Physical Assets: Before VOs' Intervention

Sl. No	Value of Assets	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36			
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	House Before	233333 (79.9)	77152	181389 (91.8)	118735	196667 (87.2)	110030
2	Furniture Before	31600 (10.8)	49048	5911 (3.0)	3032	13467 (6.0)	28632
3	Utensils Before	12333 (4.2)	6447	5347 (2.7)	2478	7402 (3.3)	5125
4	Television Before	7400 (2.5)	6501	1861 (0.9)	3870	3490 (1.5)	5368
5	Mobile Before	4467 (1.5)	2601	1889 (1.0)	2731	2647 (1.2)	2919
6	Jewellery Before	2813 (1.0)	3143	1064 (0.5)	2050	1578 (0.7)	2522
7	Radio Before	200 (0.1)	414	139 (0.1)	628	157 (0.1)	570
8	Two Wheeler Before	0 (0.0)	0	0 (0.0)	0	0 (0.0)	0
10	Value of Physical Assets Before	292147 (100)	121437	197600 (100)	123040	225408 (100)	128916

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.4 Pattern of Physical Assets: Before and After VOs' Intervention

Sl. No	Value of Assets	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36		Mean	SD
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1	House After	258667 (68.9)	105754	189583 (79.5)	121434	209902 (75.3)	120268
2	Furniture After	58533 (15.6)	114396	10486 (4.4)	6247	24618 (8.8)	64656
3	Utensils After	16827 (4.5)	7509	10739 (4.5)	13031	12529 (4.5)	11938
4	Mobile After	16200 (4.3)	15265	10953 (4.6)	10545	12496 (4.5)	12203
5	Television After	10240 (2.7)	5010	9181 (3.8)	15331	9492 (3.4)	13107
6	Two Wheeler After	12000 (3.2)	24842	6111 (2.6)	20602	7843 (2.8)	21846
7	Jewellery After	2760 (0.7)	3192	1225 (0.5)	1773	1677 (0.6)	2356
8	Radio After	200 (0.1)	414	278 (0.1)	722	255 (0.1)	643
9	Value of Physical Assets After	375427 (100)	218294	238556 (100)	143382	278812 (100)	178047

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.5 Table Pattern of Financial Assets: Before and After VOs' Intervention

Sl. No	Value of Assets	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36		Mean	SD
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1	Household Savings Before	1540 (100.0)	679	3664 (145.8)	16670	3039 (136.5)	13986
2	Household Savings After	26833 (121.4)	50023	6589 (129.1)	21847	12543 (124.2)	33489
3	Household Debt Before	0 (0.0)	0	1151 (45.8)	5021	812 (36.5)	4234
4	Household Debt After	4733 (21.4)	2086	1486 (29.1)	5148	2441 (24.2)	4691
5	Financial Assets Before	1540 (100.0)	679	2513 (100.0)	11777	2227 (100.0)	9870
6	Financial Assets After	22100 (100.0)	51941	5103 (100.0)	17213	10102 (100.0)	32000

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.6 Table Pattern of Annual Household Income: Before and After VOs' Intervention

Sl. No	Source of Income	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36			
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
I	Before Livelihood Intervention						
	Business	108067 (62.3)	62602	11472 (18.3)	27240	39882 (41.8)	59939
	Agriculture	36000 (20.8)	16388	23219 (37.0)	20384	26978 (28.3)	20016
	NREGA	10933 (6.3)	1033	9917 (15.8)	3228	10216 (10.7)	2795
	Livestock	13933 (8.0)	7507	6667 (10.6)	5652	8804 (9.2)	7023
	Government Service	3200 (1.8)	12394	6000 (9.5)	22678	5176 (5.4)	20116
	Labour	1333 (0.8)	5164	5556 (8.8)	20140	4314 (4.5)	17181
	Annual Household Income	173467 (100)	77772	62831 (100)	48884	95371 (100)	77191
II	After						
	Agriculture	41000 (18.6)	17341	50365 (50.4)	30958	47611 (35.2)	27815
	Business	124400 (56.6)	77790	14917 (14.9)	31969	47118 (34.8)	70343
	Livestock	34933 (15.9)	16202	10714 (10.7)	10162	17837 (13.2)	16432
	NREGA	10933 (5.0)	1033	10389 (10.4)	3442	10549 (7.8)	2942
	Government Service	5600 (2.5)	21689	7833 (7.8)	31873	7176 (5.3)	29049
	Labour	3000 (1.4)	7746	5778 (5.8)	20171	4961 (3.7)	17414
	Annual Household Income	219867 (100)	94703	99996 (100)	59560	135252 (100)	89651

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.7 Table Pattern of Annual Household Expenditure: Before and After VOs' Intervention

Sl.No	Expenditure	Voluntary Organisation				Total N = 51	
		OD n = 15		RADP n = 36		Mean	SD
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
I	Food						
	Before	24600 (50)	14510	15739 (59)	15669	18345 (55)	15730
	After	36017 (54)	21498	21133 (57)	18823	25511 (56)	20599
II	Non-Food						
	Before	24632 (50)	10983	11025 (41)	13482	15027 (45)	14150
	After	30511 (46)	11859	16143 (43)	17216	20369 (44)	17046
III	Annual Household Expenditure						
	Before	49232 (100)	13332	26764 (100)	27406	33372 (100)	26123
	After	66528 (100)	24648	37276 (100)	34032	45879 (100)	34088

Source: Computed

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 7.8 VO interventions on Livelihood and Living Conditions: Paired 't'

Sl.No		Voluntary Organisation						Total N = 51		
		OD n = 15			RADP n = 36			Mean Differences	Change %	Paired 't'
		Mean Differences	Change %	Paired 't'	Mean Differences	Change %	Paired 't'			
1	Natural Assets	167809	45	11.92**	37787	18	4.5**	76029	30	6.9**
2	Physical Assets	83280	29	3.03**	40956	21	2.6**	53404	24	3.9**
3	Financial Assets	20560	1335	1.51	2590	103	2.3*	7875	354	1.9
4	Annual Household Income	46400	27	2.48*	37165	59	7.9**	39881	42	6.3**
5	Annual Household Expenditure	17296	35	4.83**	10512	39	5.8**	12507	37	7.3**

Source: Computed

**P<0.01

* P < 0.05

Table 7.9 Table Livelihood Assets and Living Conditions of Beneficiaries: Correlation

Matrix

Sl. No.	Livelihood Assets	Annual Household Expenditure			
		Before	After	Before	After
I	Natural Assets				
	Before	0.58**	0.45**	0.12	0.16
	After	0.70**	0.59**	0.30*	0.33**
	Change	0.44**	0.51**	0.72**	0.74**
II	Physical Assets				
	Before	0.57**	0.54**	0.25	0.25
	After	0.63**	0.58**	0.46**	0.41*
	Change	0.18	0.16	0.52**	0.41*
III	Financial Assets				
	Before	0.20	0.26	0.11	0.07
	After	0.09	0.14	0.21	0.21
	Change	0.03	0.07	0.19	0.21

Source: Computed

**P< 0.01

*P< 0.05

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The present study intends to understand the operational strategies of Voluntary Organisations and their impact on livelihood and living conditions of rural household in Mizoram. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods to gather the necessary data. In this chapter, the findings of the after analysis of data will be presented in the first section. The second section will present suggestions for development practitioner, social work practice and lastly for institution (voluntary organisation).

8.1. Findings

The findings of the present study are summarized into four sub-sections. The first section presents the demographic, social and economic profile of the sample household. The second chapter present the pattern of livelihoods of the households while the third chapter concerned with the pattern of living condition among the household after the VOs livelihood intervention. The last section described the vulnerability context of the rural household and the strategies adopted by the VOs in their livelihood promotion.

8.1.1. Structural of Bases of Beneficiaries

In this sections, the demographic characteristics analysis taking the head of household as respondent viz. gender, age group, marital status and education status are discussed. It also presented the social characteristic and economic characteristic analysis taking the sample household as a unit. On the whole, there was almost equal distribution of members surveyed across gender. As regard to age, majority of the respondents belongs to Middle-Aged group (36-59); similar pattern of age distribution is seen across all the four villages. In this study, since the majority of respondents belong to middle aged group, most of the respondents are also married. As regard to educational status, none of the respondents were illiterates; however, majority of them did not attended beyond middle school.

In this study, the family type, size, form and gender of head of the family are discussed to present the structural base of family. Majority of the family are living in nuclear family and predominantly a most sample household are considered to be stable family. This pattern is highly homogeneous in case of rural Mizoram where social cohesion is higher as compare to urban areas. The size of family is very important in rural Mizoram since it is considered as directly affects the availability of labour for agriculture pursuit. However, large family size does not necessarily affects the income generating potential. The majority of the household were of medium size (4-6 members) and a significant portion constitutes large size family (7 and above). As regard to gender of head of the household, majority of the households are male headed (92%) while only a few (8%) comprises of female headed households.

Under the social structural characteristics of the sample household, ethnicity, religion and denominations are discussed. On the whole, almost all sample household belongs to Lusei and a very few household belongs Lai. All the sample households follow Christianity as their religion. However, there is a diverse denomination among the sample households. This includes Presbyterian Church, Baptist Church, Salvation Army, and United Pentecostal Church, Roman Catholic and local denomination.

The economic structural base of the sample household included the primary occupation, secondary occupation, type of cultivators and also socio-economic status. On the whole, majority of the sample household depends on cultivation as their primary source of income. With regards to secondary occupation, a significant portion of the sample household responded wage labour as secondary source of income while a little higher than one-tenth (12%) of the sample household have no secondary occupation. Most of the sample household are under settled cultivation followed by semi settled, which occupies one fifth of the sample

household. And the remaining portion reported shifting cultivation. The analysis of the socio-economic category indicates that majority belongs to the poor class.

8.1.2. Vulnerability Context and Livelihood Promotion Strategies of VOs

It is important to recognize that vulnerability or livelihood insecurity is a constant reality for many rural populations, and that insecurity is a core aspect of most poverty. Any developmental activities must also address to the vulnerability context of rural household. According to Chambers (1989) vulnerability though is not the same as poverty. It means not lack or want, but defencelessness, insecurity, and exposure to risk, shocks and stress.

Vulnerability due to seasonality shows significant aspects in rural household. As seen from the seasonality diagram, low rainfall is accompanied by drought and subsequently the reduction in productivity basket and scarcity of water. Heavy rainfall also posed a threat to rural household where an events of shocks i.e. landslide is high which directly affects the communication by roads, supply of basic necessities (PDS) and also rice in epidemic (malaria and diarrhoea). The trend in diminishing availability of labour increases the vulnerability during the period of preparation of land for cultivation (Jan-April) and also during period of sowing and harvesting (Oct-November). In addition to this, the availability of rice produce from paddy or jhum last only for a period of six months; the remaining period, the household depends on the supply from PDS which greatly increase their vulnerability on food security

In this study two voluntary organisation- Rural Agriculture Development Programme, from Serchhip District and Open Doors from Aizawl District are selected purposively as they are actively engaged in livelihood promotion. Selection is based on focus area of intervention of the Organisations i.e. livelihood promotion and income generation, volume of activities, coverage, and their existence in the study areas. Whilst both Organisations selected for the study focused on livelihood promotion; they have certain similarities and differences in their programmatic strategies and operational approaches. RADP focuses on cluster based

approach through transfer of technology and Open Doors strategy is mobilization of target group mainly vulnerable sections of society- women. Both the organisation can be clubbed under “local self-reliance” as per the programme strategies framework developed by Korten (1987). All their activities are based out of Community organisation, undertook small scale community base activity with the intent that benefits would be sustained beyond the period of VOs assistance. VO activities are parallel to those of government, but are defended on the grounds that the government services are inadequate in the villages and areas in which the VO works. Whilst Open Doors build their strategy around problem that arises from local inertia, RADP’s strategy is based on problems that are identified within a specific trade. Both the organisations function as an autonomous, self-governing entity in terms of administrative functioning. However, flexibility in working structure is observed as per the need of the project activities

8.1.3. Patterns of Livelihood

The present study draws its inspiration from Sustainable Livelihood Framework to understand the livelihood promotion strategies of the voluntary organisations and their impact on their beneficiaries in rural areas of Mizoram. Livelihood assets are includes different forms of capital such as natural capital, human capital, physical capital, financial capital, social capital and political capital.

The natural capital holds a high significance in terms of generating a sustainable livelihood as it is directly linked to the occupation to generate food, shelter and income. In this study, land and livestock were taken as the indicator for the pattern natural assets. Overall, after the livelihood intervention by the VOs, there is rise in average value of all indicators under natural assets. All the four villages had seen an increase of nearly double the amount as compare to the situation before the VO intervention. Land occupies majority portion and livestock occupies less than one tenth of total natural asset before the

intervention. However, after the livelihood intervention, land occupies only a little more than three fourth and livestock occupies a little more than one tenth of the natural assets after the intervention.

In this study, the physical capital includes the basic infrastructure, house, utilities, transports, water, energy and production utilities that enable the people to pursue their livelihoods. All the indicator has seen an increase in their mean value “before” and “after” the VOs livelihood intervention. There are no notable differences in the pattern and ranking between the indicators.

Financial capital is the third indicator of livelihood asset which denotes the financial resources that are owned by the household for consumption and productive purposes. Indicators taken for the study includes, household annual expenditure and income and household annual savings and debt. Overall, there is an increase in household annual income, expenditure savings and household debts after the VO livelihood intervention. The pattern is similar for both the organisations.

8.1.4. Pattern of Living Conditions

The last dimension of Sustainable Livelihood Framework is livelihood outcomes will present the pattern of living conditions. The livelihood outcomes are defined in terms of household spending, living conditions of household and food adequacy.

In this study, annual income of the household is the first indicator to access the living conditions. The various sources of income include government services, business, agriculture, livestock and daily labour. There was an increase in annual household income wherein agriculture and business were the two main sources of household income. Further, in the case of Open Doors intervention area, livestock has seen the largest change among the household income sources and in the case of RADP, the largest change in mean value is seen in case of

agriculture. This clearly shows that the activity that is chosen under the livelihood intervention has seen a positive significance in terms of annual household income.

On the whole, among the sample household, the share of food expenditure is a little higher than the share of non- food expenditure. The pattern of expenditure is similar “before” and “after” VOs livelihood promotion across all villages. Overall mean value of annual expenditure has risen from Rs. 26,123 to Rs. 34,088 before and after the livelihood intervention respectively. The study also found that the increase in Natural & Physical Assets has significant positive effect on annual household income and annual expenditure.

8.2. Conclusion

Besides being the most isolated part of the country with hilly terrain and poor communication facilities, Mizoram has the unique distinction of coming out from thirty years of insurgency, which ended in 1986. In that sense, the state is still limping back from the loss and therefore posed an interesting developmental challenge. The current rural situation in Mizoram also pose a threat to the vulnerability of rural household; environmentally, the Jhum (shifting cultivation) cycle is getting reduced to 3 or 4 years, thus generating tremendous pressure on the forest lands. This, in turn, creates environmental pressures on the rich biodiversity, as well as pressures on the households in terms of food security. Mizoram also lacks sufficient diversity in terms of a cultivation basket; this can be seen with the increasing promotion of cash crop (rubber, palm oil, jathropha etc). Marketing is another issue as perishables have to be sold in a land locked space with scarce transport facilities. Increase in cultivation gets limited by the irrigation facilities, as only 11% of the total cultivable land is under any irrigation. The case studies and PRA exercise demonstrated that all these features need to be taken into account while formulating and implementing any development activities which the state has been continuously failing every now and then.

It is imperative that development activities must serve the entire community as a whole without leaving out the weaker sections of the society- women, children, senior citizen and differently abled communities. Democratic decision making can arise when there is comprehensive participation from all sections of the society. The present study has showed that, in terms of selection of beneficiaries, Open Doors have displayed a higher degree of gender sensitivity. Majority of their beneficiaries were women. The selection of beneficiaries under RADP was based on trade specific i.e. agriculture development where the male beneficiaries are larger in numbers as compared to the female beneficiaries.

Livelihood promotion and enhancement of farm productivity is the need in order to increase the quality of living conditions in rural household. The two organisations that were studied focus on livelihood intervention for upliftment of rural communities. At initial stage of inception, Open Doors do not focus on livelihood activities as their main areas of intervention. However, emphasis was geared towards empowerment of weaker section of the society through economic empowerment. As of now, all their activities have income generating aspect as their core focus. Contrary to this, RADP, from its initial set up was directly focused on rural livelihood and skill building. However the activities were limited to group mobilization and SHG formation. Their core area is agriculture development for increase productivity of crops.

With regards to addressing vulnerabilities of rural household- in case of RADP operational strategy, the need to intervene in area of agricultural livelihoods was driven by trends – the decline in productivity mainly orange. Similarly, in the case of Open Doors, with declining productivity of jhum cultivation and rapid price rise of commodities, the economic status of agricultural household in rural areas are increasingly becoming vulnerable. It is clear that Open Doors are much more flexible in terms of operational strategies and can adjust to the demand of the context without losing the core value of uplifting the weaker section of the

society. Whereas, for RADP, since the engagement will always be trade specific, growth in terms of operation and outreach will be fairly slow or limited.

The present study has two hypotheses which serve as the building bases for the research. The first hypothesis is “the livelihood promotion strategies of Voluntary Organisations enhance the livelihood and the living conditions of the rural household”. As per the research findings, it has been proved that the intervention has managed to increase the household annual income where the overall mean value increased from Rs. 77,191 to Rs. 89,551 which has a positive impact on the living condition. The results also showed there is overall increase in the natural assets, physical assets and financial asset. All these increment led to improvement in the living conditions.

The second hypothesis is “there is direct relationship between livelihood assets and living conditions of the poor”. The result have showed positive significant relationship between livelihood assets- natural and physical assets and living condition. However, there is no significant relationship between financial asset and living condition among the sample household.

8.3 Suggestions for Policy and Social Work Practice

The present study is comparative assessment of two organisation on their approach to livelihood promotion and it aims at offering suggestion for policy makers, social workers and individual involves in third sector organisation. Therefore the suggestion is divided into two sections i.e. promotion of sustainable livelihood and enhancing institutional performance.

8.3.1 Promotion of Sustainable Livelihood

- i. Greater Involvement of women in development: Involvement is the easiest way to bring about participation which in turn leads to democratic decision making. Equal opportunity in education and training is important if rural women are to participate effectively in the development process. The need for more training to improve information, knowledge and

skills in the areas of health, hygiene, nutrition, child care, household management, food storage, family budgeting, family planning and home based income producing activities.

Action points: Creating training opportunities to enhance rural women's role as agricultural producers on farm management, training in techniques and leadership for cooperatives and appropriate technical agricultural skills.

- ii. **Minimizing Dependency Syndrome:** Majority of any assistance from the state, if not all have not tried to increase the community ownership. Without efficient ownership of the community, the dependency of an individual on other institute or a government will increase. To minimize the dependency and increase the ownership of any developmental activities, contribution from the rural household must be sought not only in monetary terms, but also in kind and labour. This will increase their ownership to a far greater extent. In addition, enhancing capacity and skills for any type of activity through transfer of attest technology will improve the human capital of an individual.

Action Points: During project formulation, operational systems must be put in place where community contribution is part of the project design.

- iii. **Increasing Credit awareness and availability among rural communities:** Rural communities are highly underserved. Traditionally, in Mizoram formal financial institutions do not exist and also the formal institutions that are created have avoided or failed to offer sustainable services in rural areas (e.g. rural or agricultural development banks). Thus, informal or semi-formal financial institutions as well as alternative providers like traders or input suppliers have become major providers of financial services. However, these informal providers often have weak institutional and managerial capacity; and operating in isolation from the financial system has let some of these providers charge steep interest rates. People living in rural areas may need access to financial services to purchase agriculture inputs; obtain veterinary services; maintain

infrastructure; contract labour for planting/harvesting; transport goods to markets; make/receive payments; manage peak season incomes to cover expenses in low seasons; invest in education, shelter, health; or deal with emergencies.

Action points:

- Promote a savings and insurance culture among rural populations through awareness campaigns, financial education trainings or experience/testimony-sharing among insured and uninsured people
- Avoid pressuring informal or semi-formal institutions to become regulated large formal institutions. Informal institutions have unique advantages that can be leveraged by linking them to formal finance.
- Integrate rural finance into the broader financial system development agenda. For this, a forum can be created which will act as a lobbying unit to mobilized the financial institution so as to increase their participation and commitment.
- Support index-based insurance products like weather-based crop insurance by providing accurate statistical data (e.g. on regional rainfall) and infrastructure (e.g. weather stations) to collect data and make it available to insurers and farmers
- Integrate financial components in interventions like entrepreneurship development and any developmental activities.

8.3.2 Enhancing Institutional performance (Voluntary Organisation)

- i. Strengthening Monitoring System: Effective and accountable monitoring system is the corner stone of VO accountability and sustainability, and a key component of program and organisational management. However, majority of VOs in Mizoram, the organisation's administrative and financial planning, monitoring, and reporting systems and how they are integrated into the overall organisational management

process still needs strengthening. Effective monitoring system will provide not only self-assessment, but also course correction for any wrong action if any.

Action Points: Organizing a routine workshops and trainings on Project Management Cycle, Financial Planning, VO statutory mandates and Logical Framework Analysis for VO.

- ii. Enhancement of Human Resource: The major limitation of Voluntary Organisation is the limited technical personnel available in the field. In Mizoram, the problem intensifies as the attrition rate among staff is very high. A competent team will always have the capacity to effectively deliver any activities and will also have high absorption capacity of development works.

Action Points: Attending capacity development training on relevant topics for staff of VO (short term/long term training).

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Voluntary Organisations and Livelihood Promotion in Mizoram

Household Interview Schedule

(Confidential and for Research Purpose Only)

1. Individual Profile

1.	Schedule No.	Date of Interview:
2	Village:	Block:
3	District	
4	Name:	
5	Ethnicity:	0.Non Mizo; 1.Mizo; 2.Lai; 3.Mara; 4.Chakma; 5.Bru
6	Sex	Male/ Female
9	Religion	1.Christian; 2.Buddhist; 3.Hindu
10	Denomination	1. Presbyterian; 2.Baptist; 3.UPC M; 4.UPC NE 5.SA; 6.Seventh Day; 7. Local Denomination
11	Type of Family	0 Nuclear / 1 Joint
12	Size of Family	
13	Form of Family	1. Stable; 2. Broken; 3. Reconstituted Step
13	Socio Economic Category	0 AAY; 1 BPL; 2 Others 3 APL
14	Type of Cultivators	0 Non cultivators; 1 Shifting; 2 Semi settled 3 Settled

2. Household Profile:

Kindly furnish the demographic details of the members of your household.

ID	Name	Age	Sex	Marital Status***	Type of Clan	Edn.	**Earner/ Dependent	*Relation To Head
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								

6								
7								
8								
9								

*** **0** Unmarried; **1** Married; **2** Divorced/Separated; **3** Remarried; **4** Widowed

** **0**. Dependent **1**. Earner

* **0**. Head; **1**. Wife **2**. Son; **3** Daughter; **4**. Parents; **5**. Others

3. Please give us the details of the occupation of the earning members of your household.

ID	Sex	Occupation		Annual Income (Rs)	
		#Primary	##Secondary	Primary	Second

1. Govt Officer; **2**. Govt. Workers; **3**.Cultivators **4**. Wage Labourer; **5**. Skilled Labourer;
6. Petty Business; **7**.Large Business; **8** NREGA

0. None; **1**. Govt. Officer; **2**. Govt. Workers; **3**.Cultivators; **4**. Wage Labourers; **5**. Skilled Labourer; **6**.Petty Business; **7**.Large Business; **8** NREGA

NOTE: Hereafter “before” and “after” means “before voluntary organization intervention” and “after voluntary organization intervention” respectively

4. Kindly furnish the details of the land possessed / owned by your family members.

Title	Area(Tins)		Value(Rs)	
	Before	After	Before	After
Land Settlement Certificate				
Periodic Land Pass				
Temporary Pass				
No title/Community Land				
Other (Specify)				
Other (Specify)				

5. Agricultural Implements Owned/used

Implement	Number	
	Before	After

6. Livestock Owned

Livestock	Value	
	Before	After
Pig		
Goat		
Poultry Birds		
Cow		
Fish		
Others (specify)		

Others (specify)		
------------------	--	--

7. Kindly give us the details of your other household assets

Asset	Value (In (Rs))	
	Before	After
Television		
Transistor/Radio		
House, Buildings		
Jewels		
Household Furniture		
Household Utensils		
Others (Specify)		

8. Details of Household Income

Source	Monthly Income(Rs)	
	Before	After
Govt. Service		
Business		
Agriculture		
Livestock		
Daily Labour		
Others (specify)		

9. Details of monthly expenditure of your household.

Item	Monthly Expenses(Rs)	
	Before	After
FOOD		
Food Grains and Pulses		
Greens Vegetables and Roots		
Meat		
Grocery and Edible Oil		

NON FOOD		
Electricity		
Clothing		
Transport		
Recreation		
Drugs and Medical		
Education		
Alcoholic Beverages		
Pan & Supari		
Tobacco & Smoking		
Others (specify)		

10. Details of household Savings and Investments in rupees.

Form	Savings(Rs)	
	Before	After
Cash in hand		
Friends and Relatives		
Money Lenders		
Commercial Banks (Including govt. loan)		
Cooperatives		
Post Office		
LIC : Insurance Savings		
Self Help Group(SHG)		
Others(Specify)		

11. Kindly give us the details of household debt in rupees.

Source	Debt(Rs)	
	Before	After
Friends and Relatives		
Money Lenders		
Commercial Banks (Including govt. loan)		
Cooperative Banks		
Post Office		
Self Help Group(SHG)		

12. Voluntary Organisation intervention

Intervention	Does any organisation/institution provide this service for you Yes = 1 No = 0 Don't know = 2	Who provides this service Government = 1 NGO = 2 Farmers Club = 3 Do not know = 4 Church = 5 Not applicable = 0	Has your household utilised this service for the past 12 months Yes = 1 No = 0 Don't know = 2	Did your household pay for this service (in kind or cash) Yes = 1 No = 0 Don't know = 2
1.Capacity Building: Training on improvement of soft skills				
2.Agricultural inputs on credit				

3.Cash loans for agricultural purposes						
4.Cash loans for non-agriculture uses						
5.Subsidized (or free)any inputs (livestock, agriculture etc)						
6. Help selling agricultural products (for example: collecting, finding buyers,transporting, etc.)						
7. Storage for agricultural commodities						
8. Crop Insurance						
9. Animal Insurance						
10. Health education and free clinic						
11. Education						
12. Has this training improved your lives by providing: Answer following questions	No	A little	Medium	A lot	NA	Don't Know
	0	1	2	3	4	5
a) skills for income generation						
b) participation in decision-making						
c) better market information						
d) awareness about protecting forest for your children and their future						
f) skills to deal with health problems						
g) Has the NGO Project provided opportunity for women in your household to participate						

actively in project activities?						
h) Has women participation in NGO Project improves their importance in decision-making?						
i) Has your household participated in decision-making in NGOactivities?						
	No	A little	Medium	A lot	NA	Don't Know
	0	1	2	3	4	5
13. Have your skills in livelihood activities been improved in recent 2-3 years?						
14. Has your household motivated to carry out more income generation activities to increase the income source?						
15. Has women participation led to their importance in decision-making in your village and family?						
16. Has your village had a strong leadership in the village head and village organization?						
17. Is protecting the forest ecosystem important for you and your family?						
18. In general, are you happy about your life during recent 2-3years?						

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COMMENCEMENT OF SECOND SEM	:	18 th February, 2013
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2. SCHOOL BOARD	:	23 rd October, 2013
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