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From Editor's Desk

It is now more than six months since Narendra Modi took over as Prime Minister. Though many flagship programmes such as Jandhan Yojna, Swachata Abhiyan and many others have been implemented and are being appreciated, the economy is yet to experience a turnaround. Inflation is now getting calmed a bit, thanks to the easing of global crude prices and efforts of the government. Though automobile sector shows some revival, the country is yet to come out of manufacturing stagnation, after nose diving to -0.7 per cent in 2013-14. It is ironical that condition of poor does not show any noticeable improvement, despite high rate of GDP growth. It is notable that per capita income has been showing significant upward trend in the last 25 years, with rising GDP growth. GDP grew at an average rate of nearly 8 per cent in the last two Five Year Plans; however, we find that nearly 30 per cent population is still reeling under poverty. For improving the condition of the poor, it is essential that they are made part of the development process. Financial inclusion in this regard could be an important tool. Jandhan Yojna may prove to be a milestone but for real financial inclusion we have to go miles ahead. Education, skill formation, health, promotion of SSIs, artisans and cottage industry could provide suitable employment and respectable living for the poor and deprived.

Nobody can deny the importance of policy reforms to make conditions for development better. However, contents and direction of reform need debate. It is unfortunate that reforms so far have been based on a set of policy suggestions made by international financial institutions like IBRD (World Bank), International Monetary Fund etc., what John Williamson termed as the Washington Consensus. These so called 'reforms' included a set of policy measures for opening up boundaries for foreign goods, services and capital by removing tariff, non-tariff and institutional barriers, changing intellectual property regime etc. to facilitate foreign companies even if they

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were contrary to the interests of Indian economy and people. For instance, the new intellectual property regime was harming public health and opening up of imports was harming the interests of SSIs. It is notable that there was no consensus about these so called reforms.

India has never got good ranking in terms of ease of doing business. It is generally believed that India is not a good destination due to unfriendly business environment. According to World Bank rankings, India stands at 142nd position out of 189 countries on this count. A close perusal of the World Bank report shows that India stands at 158th position in terms of ease of getting permission to start business, 184th in terms of getting permission for construction, 137th for ease of getting electricity and 121st regarding registration of property. With regard to international trade, the report says that we are at the 126th position. About ease of enforcing contract, perhaps we are the worst at the 186th position. Thanks to our banking institutional development, we are better placed at 26th position regarding credit, while we are much better in terms of protecting interests of minorities, at the 7th position. With such inconveniences, how can we strive for economic development of the country? Our nation is known for its abundance of natural resources and our banks also have overflowing funds. Adverse environment of business, which is vitiated due to our institutional drawbacks, has been making us uncompetitive. It is unfortunate that in the last more than 23 years, despite talk about economic reforms, all efforts have been to open up imports, allowing and raising FDI cap in different sectors, tax concessions or changing of rules to facilitate foreign investors, even if it is for being lenient towards their tax evasion activities, through illegal methods of transfer pricing or routing their funds through tax havens. Even after 67 years of independence there was hardly any talk, and no effort to end the inconveniences to do business, as reflected by the fact that we are still lagging at 142nd position in this regard. It is notable that our small scale sector still faces the menace of inspector raj, difficulties of getting credit, labour law issues and unmanageable web of laws, despite its huge contribution to national economy. However, no effort is being made to end the sector's miseries.

Whether it is policy announcements, international agreements or the budget, all the efforts of the government(s) are concentrated on how to make international trade, especially, imports of goods easy, making foreign business interests happy, even if they are at the cost of the exchequer. A classic example is that making of GAAR (General Anti Avoidance Rules), by the then Finance Minister was considered to be a retrograde step, because they were made to discourage tax evasion by foreign companies. Delaying implementation of GAAR was considered as a progressive step. To facilitate the provision of land for the business houses by amending the recent Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement (LARR) Act 2013, even at the cost of farmers is also being propagated as an economic reform. Recently concluded WTO Agreement on trade facilitation is yet another example of how the international trade agreements are not for facilitating the domestic sector, but for facilitating foreigners to do business.

Need of the hour is to ensure that ease of doing business for domestic entrepreneurs is improved and to build their competitiveness, so that such businesses, especially the smaller ones, thrive. Starting a business should be made easier. Ease of registration of property, ease of starting construction, ease of getting electricity connection, ease of implementing contract etc. are essential for this sector. Indians who have proven their worth in terms of entrepreneurship, brains, skills, hardworking and devotion world over can excel in their own country also. Then there would be no need to invite foreigners saying 'come and make in India'.

Dr Ashwani Mahajan

Chief Editor

Impact of Advertisements on Teenagers Buying Behaviour

Dr. B. Venkata Rao

Abstract

Consumer market competition leads towards advertisement through different media targeting teenagers in India now. The ripple created through media like television and Internet which are close to teenagers in day to day life. Secondly advertisements targeted to teenagers leading to decision making of parents in buying products and services. It created interest to study about impact of advertisements on undergraduate teenagers buying behaviour. Look through a survey of 200 teenagers who are from high per-capita families to know about buying behaviour. This paper came out of interesting results about buying behaviour of teenagers of specific brands.

Keywords: Brand marketing, teenage advertisement, buying behaviour

Introduction

The consumer market competition was increased by leaps and bounds in view of the globalization, liberalistic and privatization of the Indian economy. By the result business firms have to put vigorous efforts in the market by creating awareness and permanent acceptance of its brands and products. Communication with the target audience plays a key role towards this end. Advertising, which is an art of persuading a buyer to buy a product or a service as per his/her needs and wants is one of the four elements of the promotional-mix. Advertising is in fact a major tool of persuasive communication that marketers (George and Michael, 2005) often use to attract the consumers. The effectiveness of advertising depends much on the extent the advertisement content is going to be reached and believed by the target group of audience or customers.

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Advertisement may be in different forms. It may be in the form of printed material such as ads with newspaper, magazine, pamphlets, posters and billboards etc. It may also be through radio, television (TV) and the Internet. Among the listed, TV advertisements are less expensive, most effective and well reachable.

Target Group –Undergraduate Teenagers

Teenagers these days are considered by marketers as the most vulnerable group as they often patronize products with novelty and creativity. Most of the brands today are targeted at youth market and linked to their emotions, feelings and behaviour. In India, nearly 60 per cent of 16- to 34-year-olds were both religious and happy (BSH, 2007). Like, Pepsi promised to be the drink for the younger generation. Vehicle two wheeler manufactures like Bajaj, Hero Honda, TVS Suzuki, ROYAL ENFIELD, Escorts, Yamaha and HONDA Activa compete with each other to catch youth market. Similarly some brands are target gender specific like teenage girls, which constitute a major share of the total population. The marketers also try to attract teenagers by various means through different media.

Since the advent of Television, it has become the major media for advertisements and many firms prefer to advertise their products through TV as it has wider viewership. TV now-a-days become a common man's household item. By industry observation on an average, teenagers spend about two to three hours a day watching television (Arya, 2004). The next best media to target teenagers is the Internet. With the emergence of World Wide Web teenagers have started using the Internet and browse through various websites of their own choice. It creates a wide space for advertisements through Internet to reach teenagers.

Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the present study are:

1. To study the attitude of undergraduate teenagers towards advertisements.
2. To know the most preferred media by teenagers.
3. To examine the influence of different advertisements on teenager's behaviour.
4. To know the role of teenagers in the family buying decision-marking.

Methodology

The buying behaviour of the teenagers specifically the age group of 17-19 years who are doing undergraduates was computed in response of advertisements through media. To measure the impact of advertisement on undergraduate teenagers buying behaviour a schedule was developed using two groups of students of two different colleges in Visakhapatnam, a city which is an industrialized city with a little higher per capita even compared with capital of Andhra Pradesh. It has two sections mainly– Socio economic background of customers and Advertisement impact broadly. But under advertisement impact we are looking at advertisement issue of brands, role of media and the teenager's role in buying decision making by family. The information obtained based on the pre-defined answers to the queries raised as per the field experience of the researchers from pilot study undertaken. Pilot study was conducted with 20 consumers to study the questionnaire effectiveness and to know the ground reality of the field.

The study was conducted in Vishakhapatnam city and two colleges are selected randomly where BBM and B.Com undergraduate courses are running. These two courses provide an opportunity for getting into higher qualifications (management and CA) as well as into industry if need be. 100 students are selected from each college with 50 each from each course. A sample of 200 respondents (between 17 and 19 years age group) who are studying Bachelor of Business Management (BBM) and Bachelor of Commerce (B.Com) of English medium in GITAM and Dr. LB College are chosen for this study by using convenience sampling method. The colleges selected are premiere colleges in the city where upper per-capita teenagers take admission. Data was collected personally using a structured interview schedule which was appropriately pre-tested and evaluated.

Analysis and Interpretation

Teenagers get product related information from various media sources. This can be seen at Table-1 as 79 per cent of teenagers get their information though Television commercials, 13per cent from Newspapers and Magazines and another 6 per cent from hoarding and display at shops. Television advertisements as per the above data are their main source of information. It is true that Television as an auditory and visual media provides more information to teenagers and leaves

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permanent impact on them. Newspapers and magazines, which are of different types, are also important sources of information. It can also be seen from this table that only one per cent of the sample teenagers get information from radio.

Table 1: Media as Information Source

<i>Media</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Television	79
News Papers/Magazines	13
Radio	1
Hoardings	6
Others (Websites, Pimples)	1
Total:	100

Teenagers watch TV programmes and listen in Radio programmes during their leisure time. The usual time is between 7pm to 10pm with some intermittent breaks in general. They also read newspapers/magazines as and when they find leisure time. Table -2 shows that 82 per cent teenagers watch TV programmes regularly while 36 per cent read newspapers/magazines regularly. However, only 9 per cent of teenagers who watch roadside hoardings or displays at shops and about 8 per cent of the respondents who are regularly listen in radio programmes.

Thus it can be concluded that diffusion of TV with audience is wider than newspapers/magazines readers and radio listeners among teenagers. TV being the audio-visual medium is not enjoyed by household members in general and teenagers in particular. The teenagers also show interest in reading the newspapers/magazines regularly. The predominant role of TV is mainly on account of release of certain channels like music channels, sports channels, and discovery channels etc. which are most liked by them.

Table 2: Spread of Different Media among Teenagers

<i>Media</i>	<i>Regular</i>	<i>Occasional</i>	<i>Never</i>
Television	82	14	4
News Papers/Magazines	36	60	4
Radio	8	65	23
Hoardings	9	9	82

Product Advertisements Liked by Teenagers

Teenagers enjoy various commercials as per their interest and liking. They show keen interest in some of the products advertisements while they dislike the advertisements on certain other products. They remember certain products due to their advertisement immediately after looking at the product.

A majority of the teenagers prefer advertisements which relate to electronic and sports items and soft drinks. They enjoy entertainment in such advertisements and feel that the product gives enjoyment to eat, to drink and to wear.

Table 3: Advertisements Liked by Teenagers

<i>Product Category</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Food Product	34
Soft Drinks	30
Entertainment Product	20
Motor Bikes	3
Cloths (Fashionable Cloth)	12
Others (Health Care)	1
Total:	100

As can be seen from Table-3, 34 per cent of the teenagers like the advertisements on food products which they find attractive. 30 per cent of the teenagers like the commercials on soft drinks. Advertisements influence the buying decision of teenagers. They are the important decision makers when it comes to purchasing food items like ice-creams, soft drinks, biscuits etc. more even advertisements such as motorbikes, jeans, underwear etc. are popular among teenagers. The study revealed that advertisement on SAMSUNG cell phone has attracted majority of the respondents (25 per cent) followed by German (around 10 per cent).

Role of Teenager in Family Buying Decisions

Teenagers not only help their family members in attending various chores at home but also help family members in their buying decisions (Sandra, 2008). Elders especially the parents seek the opinions of teenagers regarding their choice and preference about various products. Due to influential impact of these teenagers in the families some buying decision are highly dominated by teenagers.

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Table 4: Role of Teenagers in Parents Buying Decisions

<i>Role</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Help Parents frequently in their Buying Decisions	75
Do not help Parents in their Buying Decisions	6
Help Parents in their Decisions Occasionally	19
Total:	100

As can be seen from Table-4 nearly three-fourths of the family members seek the opinion of their teenagers before buying some or the other product. Thus most of the teenagers help their family elders in their buying decisions. In some cases, teenagers themselves make the actual purchases of the particular product on behalf of their family elders; who lack time to purchase also. According to a study, they are also nearly 20 per cent teenagers who help their family elders in this regard occasionally. Only 6 per cent of the teenagers do not help their elders in their buying decisions reasons not yet arrived.

Though teenagers involve in family buying decisions, at times their voice are not given due importance by family elders for certain products. An overwhelming 96 per cent respondent agreed that their family members especially parents accept their purchase demands/requests. They said that their family elders did not ignore their likes and requests. 62 per cent teenagers were of opinion that their family elders generally accept their purchase request. Only 4 per cent of the respondents revealed that their family elders rejected their requests. The family elders generally see the products from their functional utility and safety point of view and then decide to purchase as requested by their teenage kids (Table-5).

Table 5: Opinion of Teenagers about the way their Parents react to Purchase request

<i>Opinion</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Agree	34
Mostly Agree	62
Disagree	4
Total:	100

Influence of Advertisement on the Buying Behaviour of Teenagers

Advertisements have a major influence on the buying behaviour in general and more among teenagers. They encourage the teenagers in trying out the brands which are advertised. To what extent advertisements influence the buying behaviour of teenagers is shown in Table-6. As we can see from the table, about 68 per cent of respondents are of the opinion that advertisements did sometimes evoke their desires in buying in the product. For buying an advertised brand, teenagers use their pocket money or ask their parents to buy for them. Only 16 per cent respondents said that they desire to buy product immediately after they saw the ad. Another 16 per cent of the respondents expressed that advertisements rarely or never influence them in buying some product.

Table 6: Influence of Ads on Buying Behaviour of Respondents

<i>Influence</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Often	16
Sometimes	68
Rarely	12
Never	4
Total:	100

Influence of Advertisements for Buying Advertised Brands

The impact of advertisement on teenagers may be either positive or negative. It brings a change in the outlook and mindset of teenagers. Some advertisements influence the purchase behaviour in such a manner that the teenagers being to pressurize their parent to buy the advertised brand for them. It can be seen from Table-7, sometimes 49 per cent of the teenagers agreed to pressurise their parents to purchase a certain product after exposing to an advertisement of that product; while 18 per cent of teenagers rarely insist their parents about buying a product. 28 per cent do not pester at all to have the advertised product. Only 5 per cent of the respondents clearly reveal of often pressurizing their parents to buy advertised products.

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Table 7: Influence of Advertisement for buying Advertised brands

<i>Influence</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Often	5
Sometimes	49
Rarely	18
Not at all	28
Total:	100

Role of Advertising the Products

The role of advertisement as expressed by the respondents under the study was presented in Table-8. Some advertisements provide information while some other advertisement provide excitement i.e. curiosity in the product. As we can see from the table that nearly 69 per cent of the respondents expressed that advertisement should provide information as well as entertainment while over 21 per cent are of the opinion that advertisement should provide both information as well as curiosity. Thus it can be concluded that majority of the teenagers seek information from the advertisements one way or the other.

Table 8: Role of Ads as expressed by the number of Respondents

<i>Attribute</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Information	6.00
Entertainment	-
Curiosity	-
Information & Entertainment	69.00
Entertainment & Curiosity	4.00
Information & Curiosity	21.00
Total:	100.00

The information asked with respondents about “Which attribute of the product/brand you like most?” is presented in Table-9. It is clear from the table that nearly 50 per cent of the teenagers look for quality, and about 20 per cent of teenagers prefer brand reputation. Price is not an important attribute as only 9 per cent of the teenagers seek products with lower prices. Since majority of the teenagers prefer quality and brand imager of the product. Hence the advertisement

should stress these attributes of the product while designing the advertisement message to younger generation.

Table 9: *Attributes Linked by the number of respondents*

Attribute	Per cent
Quality	49
Price	9
Quantity	1
Brand Image	20
Others (appearance, service, durability, guarantee)	20
Total:	100

An attempt is made in the study to find out celebrities preference in the advertisement and the information is presented in Table-10. It is clear from the table that nearly one-third of the teenagers favour celebrity like Ranbir Kapoor (32 per cent) followed by Amir Khan (around 17 per cent) and Akhsay Kumar (around 10 per cent).

Table 10: *Distribution of respondents who favour different celebrities*

Celebrity	Per cent
Ranbir Kapoor	32.00
Amirkhan	17.00
Dipikapadukone	08.00
Priynkachopra	08.00
Sruthi Hasan	06.00
Salman khan	06.00
Virat Kohli	08.00
Akshaykumar	05.00
Sharukh khan	10.00
Total:	100

Since majority of teenagers are favouring these celebrities, the advertising manager should keep in mind these personalities are to be part of their product advertisements at present. Buying is not spontaneous one as it involves certain stages to be followed. These assume prominence in purchase of consumer durables. These stages are:

1. Need identification.
2. Search for information.

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3. Brand decision.
4. Budget decision.
5. Actual purchase.
6. Post purchase evaluation.

Table-11 shows that the relative role of teenagers in family buying decisions with respect of consumer durables. As we can see from the table that except in budget decision, the teenagers play a prominent role in all other stages. The marketing manager should therefore keep in mind that the role of teenagers while preparing advertisement.

Table 11: *Relative role of Teenagers in Family Buying Decisions (Durables)*

<i>Stage</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Other (family)</i>	<i>Joint</i>
Need Identification	68	12	20
Search for Information	70	8	22
Budget Decision	10	80	10
Brand Decision	75	15	10
Actual Purchase	83	8	9
Post Purchase Evolution	85	8	7

Now-a-days presentation of women with exposed clothing to attract the attention of the consumers towards the product advertised. The opinion of the respondents was sought in this point and a little over 87 per cent of respondents are against the present practice. All girl respondents expressed their opinion otherwise. The respondents were asked "what will you do if you came across an advertisement in midst of the program". The study revealed that, nearly 65 per cent of the respondents change the channel if the advertisement is not interesting; while around 24 per cent of the respondents immediately change the channel if advertisements appear. Only a little over 4 per cent of the respondents watch the advertisement without changing the channel. Thus we can conclude that to make teenagers retain to the channel where the product advertisement is running we must create interest and attraction towards it.

Table -11(a): *Respondents Opinion on Semi-nude Presentation of Women in Ads*

<i>Opinion</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Yes	13.00

An attempt is made in the study to find out the TV channel most liked by the respondents. The study revealed that among the listed TV channels- the music channels (such as MTV, V etc.), Star Plus, U channel and TV9 are more popular among them. Hence marketing management should keep this point in mind while preparing and releasing an advertisement to a particular TV channel.

Conclusion

The study highlights the diffusion of different media among teenagers. It is revealed that most of the teenagers like to watch TV compared to other media. Marketers are of the view that TV is the best media for advertising any product to teenagers. Radio has least preference to this age group. Most of the teenagers recalled advertisement of a food product and soft drink immediately. Celebrities like Ranbhir Kapoor and Amir Khan are popular among teenagers. The study revealed that teenagers play a key role in their household buying decisions while purchasing products. The teenagers also help their parents in their buying decision making. The study also revealed that teenagers give preference to esthetic feature rather than functional feature of the product. The marketers now have to keep this point of view in mind while designing and advertising of their products in media using celebrities.

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Sustainable Agriculture Through Community Based Organisations: CMSA Initiatives

Dr. Madhuri

Abstract

Sustainable agriculture conserves our soil and water resources, protects our climate, enhances agro-diversity, ensures biodiversity, meets the demand for food and safeguards livelihoods. In short, it ensures that the environment thrives, the farm is productive, the farmer makes a net profit and society has enough nutritious food. Community Managed Sustainable Agriculture(CMSA) is one such initiative which is implemented in the state of Andhra Pradesh through the women SHGs and their federations. This paper highlights the major initiatives taken up under the project and their impact on the farmers.

Introduction

India is striding ahead to face the gigantic triple challenges of sustainable increased agriculture productivity, environmental sustainability and poverty alleviation which are further aggravated by climate change, global competition and rapidly advancing technologies. Of late, India is facing a food crisis due to the destruction of farmlands and food production systems over the last five decades through uncontrolled use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides, mono-cropping and other intensive agricultural practices. Ecological farming is the answer to the problems being faced by agriculture in our country today. It will also keep agriculture sustainable. This form of agriculture conserves our soil and water resources, protects our climate, enhances agro-diversity, ensures biodiversity, meets the demand for food and safeguards livelihoods. In short, it ensures that the environment thrives, the farm is productive, the farmer makes a net profit and society has enough nutritious food. (www.greenpeace.org)

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Andhra Pradesh is one of the India's largest states with about 60-70 percent of population engaged in agriculture comprising of 80 percent small and marginal farmers. The productivity and production from various crops is very low. Farmers are not able to organize themselves to get access to credit and marketing. The agricultural research, extension and farmer linkages are also relatively weak. The agricultural development depends on development of appropriate technologies which has to be decided by technology management systems comprising of all the stakeholders namely; research, extension, farmers, markets etc.,

The current system of extension is based on the linear transfer of technology model which needs to be made more response to the local situation and community needs. Therefore the shift should focus on providing integrated range of services and to make the grass root workers work more on the location specific problems and be accountable to the community. The new approach also calls for organizing farmers into commodity interest groups/farmer's interest groups and federations so that these institutions become the platforms to deliver the integrated range of services from production to marketing. The above interventions call for preparing plans from the village level with convergence and in a participatory manner involving all stakeholders. Similarly, the technology should be emerging from location specific needs and practices as well as the transfer should be through multi-media and multi-agencies extension approaches. Hence, the community managed sustainable agriculture needs to be promoted in order to meet the challenges.(Ratnakar & Suryamani)

Society for Elimination of Rural Poverty (SERP) an autonomous organization under Department of Rural Development (DRDA), Govt. of Andhra Pradesh has developed a vision to promote the Non Pesticide Management (NPM) approach in a wider range of farming community over a large area. This initiative aims to address the major causes of agriculture distress such as extensive use of chemical inputs, high costs of agriculture, displacement of local knowledge, unsustainable agricultural practices like monocropping, imperfect markets etc.

SERP initiated Community Managed Sustainable Agriculture (CMSA) project in 2004 as part of its mandate to eradicate poverty and to improve livelihoods of the rural poor. CMSA supports the poor farmers to adopt sustainable agriculture practices, reducing the costs of cultivation and increasing net incomes. The project is implemented by SERP through DRDA, Government of Andhra Pradesh assisted by district project officer, cluster activists, village activists and sasyamitra

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groups(farmers groups). The project is being implemented in 22 districts of Andhra Pradesh covering 653 Mandals and 14191 villages.

CMSA is a paradigm shift in moving from input centric model to knowledge and skill based model. It involves making use of locally available natural resources and takes advantage of the natural processes. The main objective of CMSA is to bring sustainability to agricultural based livelihoods, with special focus on small and marginal farmers, tenants, agriculture labour and women. Its major objective is to make small farming viable by using non-chemical pest management and low or zero chemical fertilizers and thereby improve net incomes from farming and create farm based multiple livelihoods to women farmers.(aajeevika.gov.in)

Implementation Arrangements

The project is implemented by SERP through DRDA, Government of Andhra Pradesh at district Level. In each district there is District Project Manager (DPM). He is supported by the state level consultant and community resource persons. DPM is assisted by the Assistant Project Manager (APM) at district level and Cluster Activists (CAs), each one in charge of 5 Gram Panchayats and supported by community Response Person (CRP) and each Gram Panchayat has a Village Activist (VA). The VA implements the programme through groups (Sasya Mitra Groups) following Farmer Field School(FFS) approach (Organic Farm Schools– Sendriya Polambadi). The village organization of women Self Help Groups(SHG) and the Federation of Women Self Help Groups is the main implementation platform of the program at the village level. The Mandala Mahila Samakya (MMS), the federation of women SHGs at mandal (Block) level anchors the program.

The program management is in the hands of the women organizations represented by 4024 village level sub committees, 304 sub district level (mandal) sub committees and 21 district level sub committees. Separate sub committees are formed with practicing SHG women and NPM farmers at village, mandal (sub district) and district level to monitor day to day activities. These sub committees (samakhyas) meet once in a month to review the program. Budget is provided for subcommittee's field visits and review meetings. Sub committees review the performance of village activist(VA), cluster activist(CA) and District Project Manager(DPM) on monthly basis. For every four to five mandals there is a technical consultant (agriculture

graduate) who provides professional support to samakhyas. Samakhyas attend FFS meetings, make field inspections, pay salaries of VA/CA. The final word in programme management lies with the Village Organizations (VO) and Mandal Samakhya's (MS). Funds are released only to women organisations. Subcommittees will manage the funds and are responsible for the office bearers. Subcommittees are trained on program management and financial management.

Support to Women SHGs

CMSA provides support to women SHGs implementing the program in the areas of capacity building, extension support, building human resources, marketing and infrastructure building at village level.

- a) *Capacity Building*: Capacity building is the key component in CMSA. Components of capacity building include life cycles of pests and on enabling climatic condition for disease prevalence and spreading, farming systems, sustainable use of resources, maximizing output from a unit land area, effective utilization of inputs like seed, organic fertilizers, sun light, water, land etc. Conservation of renewable natural resources and genetic bio diversity both flora and fauna, and SRI in paddy received special attention. Capacity building programs are organized to build the capacities of farmers and women SHG's.
- b) *Extension Support & Transfer of Technology*: The core investment is on supporting community managed extension system than on material inputs. CMSA is essentially a farmer centred movement. The transfer of technology is through community based local best practicing farmers. Farmers field school (FFS) is the key activity for transfer of technology and sharing of best practices. Farmers upgrade knowledge by sharing, observations and experiments. 20-25 farm families are formed into a group known as "Sasyamithra Sanghas" and these sanghas are assisted by a village activist (VA-a practicing farmer) and a cluster activist (CA) for a group of five villages, who is also a practicing farmer who facilitates the knowledge sharing processes. They are paid by the S.H.G federations.
- c) *Support for Building Human Resources*: CMSA focuses on building community best practitioners in technology transfer. They are known as "Community Resource Persons (CRPs)". These CRPs provide extension support to farmers. These practicing farmers are role models, who have adopted CMSA practices successfully in their fields and improved their net incomes. They are extensively trained in all aspects of

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sustainable agriculture. CRPs are nurtured by the extension workers at village and cluster level. Best practicing farmers and farmers with good communication skills are identified for this purpose.

- d) *Marketing:* The basic objective of CMSA is providing food security at household level. However support systems are provided to marketing marketable surplus of the products. Marketing outlets are established at DRDA offices, Zilla Samakhya offices, collectorate etc. Further awareness is created among consumers on availability of pesticide free produce with the SHG members. During 2011-12, Rs. 11crores worth produce has been sold under different outlets. Comprehensive strategy is developed to produce pesticide free chillies in four districts of AP. Buyers from seven European countries visited the chilli fields and tested the produce in an accredited lab for pesticide residues. They purchased chillies at a price of Rs.1850/qtl. Links are established with exporters, testing labs etc. and farmers.(Season end reports,CMSA,2012)
- e) *Infrastructure Building at Village Level:* C.M.S.A is not confined to provision of extension services. Since it is anchored in the S.H.G network, members are able to get credit for agriculture, credit for expanding their asset base, etc. from the federations. The setting up of NPM enterprises and custom hiring centres by the Village Organization is another service to the farmer.

Interventions

Methods promoted under Community Managed Sustainable Agriculture (CMSA) are blend of scientifically proven technology, local wisdom, and, farmers innovations. Over a period of time the objective is to see that these methods are leading to reducing the costs on pest management to 'zero'. Further, the focus is on building life into the soil by adopting various recommended practices, such as monocot-dicot crop combinations, multilayered poly crop system to harvest maximum sun light, mulching, creating enabling environment for local deep borrowing earth worms, efficient composting techniques and by using dung based inoculants paving way to reduce chemical fertilizers. Extensive use of Azolla in paddy fields is also observed. Following are the major interventions promoted under CMSA:

- 1) *Non Pesticide Management (NPM):* CMSA has adopted Non pesticide management (NPM) approach for plant protection.

NPM is the first step in CMSA. The ultimate goal is natural and ecological farming, without any usage of external chemical inputs. The main principle underlying NPM is that pests can be managed by understanding their behaviour and lifecycle. The emphasis is on prevention rather than control. A comprehensive strategy is evolved for pest management. These include: deep summer ploughing, community bonfires, seed treatment, bird perches, border crops, trap crops, yellow and white plates, intercrops, light traps, pheromone traps, delta traps in ground nut, alleys in paddy, cutting of the tips in paddy at the time of transplantation. The above practices are called as 'non-negotiables' and are made mandatory for all NPM farmers.

- 2) *Comprehensive Soil Fertility Management*: CMSA considers soil as a living organism and bank for crop nutrients. Focus is on building soil microbial activity under which the core principle of natural soil fertility enhancement is to return the crop residues to the soil, either directly or through animal route during the crop period. CMSA believes that to sustain the productivity level, the nutrients removed by the crop have to be replenished. It promotes mulching, incorporation of straw and other crop residues into soil to replenish the soil. Role of earthworms is critical in soil fertility management. CMSA adopted three pronged strategy to enhance earth worm activity in soil: elimination of chemical fertilizers, adopting mulching and application of dung based inoculants.
- 3) *Marketing Premiums for Pesticide free and Organic Products*: In addition to reducing the cost of production, crops raised without the use of pesticides and fertilizers are commanding higher prices in the market. Although CMSA produce is not certified as 'organic', there is a growing recognition of the benefits of pesticide and fertilizer-free vegetables, lentils and cereals, especially in the urban retail market. The increase in prices is currently in the range of 14 -33 percent for vegetables, red gram (lentils), chilli peppers, cotton and rice. And this price realization comes to the producer without the hassle of middlemen, as marketing operations are handled by the district and sub-district federations. (www.rd.ap.gov.in)
- 4) *Rain fed Sustainable Agriculture (RFSA)*: Soil and moisture conservation works are taken up which include conservation furrows for every 4mts, trench around farm, farm pond and

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compost pit. Main objective of this intervention is to harvest rainwater and to increase cropping intensity.

- 5) *Household Nutritional Security Models (36X36 models)*: 36*36 models have been promoted by CMSA as a tool to achieve nutritional security at the household's level. As the crops diversity ranges from tuber crops to fruit crops, from vegetables to pulses, all the nutritional requirements for a family are being met.
- 6) *System of Rice Intensification (SRI)*: System of Rice Intensification (SRI) is a cost effective and resource efficient method of cultivation of Paddy. SRI is promoted to reduce ground water exploitation and to increase yields. Following table shows intervention wise no of farmers benefited and the incomes realized by them over a period of time. Total population refers to the population in CMSA villages.

Table No. 1: Scale of Interventions

S.No	Intervention	No of districts	No of Mandals	Covered Population (in lakhs)
1	Non pesticide Management and Comprehensive soil fertility management	22	550	11,89,574
2	House hold level nutritional security model (36X36 models)	22	550	60,000
3	System of Rice Intensification (SRI)	22	100	18,414
4	Rain fed sustainable Agriculture (RFSA) in convergence with MGNREGA	21	321	25,000
5	Poorest of the poor (POP) strategy	22	550	5,000
6	Marketing premiums for pesticide free and organic products	5	25	2,00,000

Source: Internal MIS of CMSA Project

Impact

Studies show that due to implementation of NPM practices, the cost of cultivation has reduced. The range of savings varied from crop to crop ranging from Rs.3,000/ha in case of Paddy to Rs.12,500/ha in case of cotton and Rs.37,500/ha for chillies. Total savings under CMSA across 21 districts is estimated at Rs.213 crores. There has also been an increase in the area under sustainable agriculture. It is an expansion driven by the experience of the farmers. SERP initiated this program in 2004 with about 250 farmers and 400 acres and by the end of 2013-14 it has reached to 25 lakh farmers and 35 lakh acres. (Season end reports, CMSA,SERP)

- a) Increased yields: Third party evaluation done by Acharya NG Ranga Agricultural University (ANGRAU) shows that CMSA methods enabled the farmers to increase their yields. Increase in yields ranges between 1-2 qtls. Following table shows increase in yields in different crops:

Table 2: Increase in yields

S.No	Name of the district	Crop	Increase in yield (in qtls)
1	Kadapa	Paddy	2.0
2	Chittoor	Paddy	2.5
3	Vizag	Paddy	2
4	Medak	Maize	1
5	Medak	Jowar	1
6	Karimnagar	Cotton	1

Source: ANGRAU, third party evaluation under RKVY

- b) Increased savings: Farmers adopting CMSA methods are able to save considerable amounts by avoiding chemical pesticides and reducing chemical fertilizers. SERP studies reveal that savings range between Rs.1200/Acre to Rs.16000/Acre, based on the crop. Following table shows crop wise savings by CMSA farmers:

Table 3: Total savings due to usage of CMSA methods

S.No	Name of the crop	Total savings in Rs. / Acre
1	paddy	1650
2	Chillies	16,300
3	Red gram	1550
4	Ground nut	1200
5	Cotton	5800
6	Vegetables	200

Source: Internal MIS of CMSA Project

- c) Increased net additional incomes: ANGRAU study in 300 villages in 18 districts of AP reveals that CMSA methods increased net additional incomes to farmers. The net additional incomes range between Rs.3000 to Rs.7000 per acre based on the crop. Following table shows the net additional incomes realized by CMSA farmers:

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Table 4: Net additional incomes after usage of CMSA methods

<i>S.No</i>	<i>Name of the crop</i>	<i>Net additional income in Rs./Acre</i>
1	Paddy	5590
2	Maize	5676
3	Cotton	5676
4	Chillies	7701
5	Groundnut	10,483
6	Vegetables	3790

Source: ANGRAU, Third party evaluation for RKVY

- d) **Reduced Health Risks:** Women who have traditionally performed the task of spraying the crops and suffered numerous health problems due to the resultant high exposure to pesticides are now strong advocates of the NPM/CMSA movement. A quick survey of three districts by SERP has shown that the number of cases of hospitalization due to pesticide poisoning has reduced from 242 cases per year before adoption of NPM to 146 cases per year—a 40 percent drop. Farmers who have adopted non-pesticide management agriculture have been totally free of pesticide related hospitalization.

Table 5: Details of hospitalization before and after usage of CMSA methods

<i>No of districts</i>	<i>Hospitalization</i>		
	Before NPM	After NPM	
3	242	Inside NPM village	Outside NPM village
		Nil	146

Source: Season end reports, SERP

- e) **Increased access to food:** Achieving self-reliance and self sufficiency in food production at community level are very important aspects of CMSA. Crop diversity and multistoried cropping systems ensure nutritional security to farm families. Perennial species such as red gram, moringa, guava and papaya take care of very critical nutritional requirements for the family throughout the year. Pesticide free produce is integrated into the existing food security scheme.
- f) **Marketing premiums:** Branding of pesticide free and organic products is being attempted through women federations. Following table shows the premium prices achieved under different brands:

Table 6: Details of marketing premiums for organic products methods

S.No	Name of the district	Name of the brand	Commodities	Turnover in Rs.
1	Srikakulam	Sahaja Thrupthi	Rice Pickles	20 lakhs 50 lakhs
2	Khammam	Kinnera	Rice, Red gram, Chilly powder	30 lakhs 20 lakhs
3	Guntur	Amaravathi	Dry Chillies, Green chillies, Chilli powder, Vegetables	6.0 Crores
4	Ranga Reddy	Prakruthi	Vegetables	3.5 crores
5	Adilabad	Susthira	Rice	50 lakhs
Total				11.2 Crores

Source: Internal MIS of CMSA Project

- g) Lowering of risk perception, increasing investment in agriculture: CMSA methods build confidence on agriculture among the farmers. SERP conducted a sample study in seven districts which reveals that large farmers prefer CMSA farmers to give their land on lease. Following table shows number of resource poor farmers who have taken additional land on lease:

Table 7: Number of resource poor CMSA farmers who have taken additional land on lease

Sl. No.	Name of The District	Number of Villages surveyed	Number of NPM families who have taken land on lease from resource rich families			
			2005	2006	2007	2008
1	Vizianagaram	44	20	41	63	67
2	Nellore	50	23	352	287	496
3	Vishakhapatnam	3	0	12	15	14
4	Karimnagar	20	6	12	9	12
5	Chittor	15	0	4	8	14
6	Ranga Reddy	20	15	42	10	12
7	Adilabad	50	17	95	170	276
Total				562		891

Source: Season end reports, SERP

Conclusion

Under the changing agricultural scenario, the agricultural technologies need a shift from production oriented to profit oriented sustainable farming. The conditions for development of sustainable agriculture are becoming more and more favourable. New opportunities are opening the eyes of farmers, development workers, researchers and policy makers. They now see the potential and importance of these practices not only for their direct economic interest but also as the basis of ecological sustainability. The key to sustainable agriculture is

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organic farming. The integrated agriculture with different farming systems meets the demands of organic farming system. It also promotes nutritional and food security. C.M.S.A is a very powerful poverty eradication measure for the poorest of poor. This model is owned by community and managed by community itself. The platform of women SHGs and their federations are effectively used to implement the CMSA program. To conclude, a small farm management through organic farming to improve productivity, profitability and sustainability of the farming system will go a long way to ensure the all round sustainability which is demonstrated by CMSA.

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Limits to Decentralized Planning of Kerala An Experimental Approach

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1. Introduction

The Kerala Legislative Assembly passed the Kerala Panchayati Raj Act 1994 to empower the local government institutions and to decentralize the governance and administration. It led to the establishment of a three-tier Panchayati Raj system¹ in the State in accordance with the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992, for securing a great measure of participation of the people in the planned development and in the local Governmental affairs, by constituting Village, block and district Panchayats. In Kerala, the widely acclaimed people's planning started from the 9th Five Year Plan onwards (1997-2002). Now we have almost completed 18 years of decentralized planning by creating and empowering Grama Sabhas². Grama Sabhas are given more authorities, responsibilities and accountabilities in the decentralized planning process. Grama Sabhas are the final authorities in determining the development priorities and selecting the beneficiaries of the welfare schemes for the poor and the needy. Grama Sabha is assumed to play supreme role and the decisions of the Grama Sabha on development priorities cannot be overruled.

2. Statement of the Research Issue

The Kerala Panchayati Raj Act of 1994 gives more powers, responsibilities, supervisory role to the Grama sabhas to assess and evaluate the performance of the development and other welfare schemes of the Panchayath in a particular ward. It is assumed that Grama Sabha is the highest decision making body on all matters related to a ward and even Panchayath and other higher agencies at the governmental level cannot overrule the decisions of the Grama Sabha. The determinations of development priorities and selection of beneficiaries of a ward for a particular welfare scheme of the

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government are decided by the Grama Sabha. But personal observations and frequent visits to many Panchayaths, verifying the records of the development activities on identification and finalization of beneficiaries for the welfare schemes in many panchayats seem to be not following the basic spirit and guidelines of the Kerala Panchayati Raj Act of 1994. There has been much procedural irregularities/lapses/favouritism/willful negligence in the Panchayati Raj Institutions in Kerala. The genuine beneficiaries were excluded and relatives/ rich persons got in the list of beneficiaries. The political colours and personal equations of the members of wards (voters) with the elected representative of the ward play a crucial role in getting the benefits from the Panchayath.

So the present study makes an investigative and experimental approach to understand and expose these faulty practices of Panchayats.

3. Objectives of the Study

The present study started with the following objectives

1. How far Grama Sabha is effective in ensuring the powers and responsibilities entrusted on it?
2. To probe into how Grama Sabha is used as a scapegoat for hiding inefficiencies, corruption and poor performances of the Panchayath
3. To narrate how Panchayath authorities deal with the questions and challenges to their dislikes and inefficiencies.

4. Methodology of the Study

The present study is analytical, participative and empirical in its approach. To understand and describe the practices of Panchayath in development as well as the finalization of beneficiaries of welfare schemes, we sought information using the RTI Act of 2005, submitted a mass petition signed by 37 persons using a road and waited for the reply to the mass petition submitted to the panchayat, made repeated personal request to the ward Member, went for first appeal against some false information given to the questions raised using RTI Act and filed a case before the Ombudsman³ of the Local self Government Institutions (LSGIs). We selected ward no.22 of the Kalluvathukkal Grama Panchayath in Kollam district of Kerala. Kalluvathukkal panchayat is a special grade panchayat and the panchayat and the selected ward for the study too have been ruled by a leading working class party for the past 20 years without any disturbance, discontinuity

and discomfort. The arguments raised by the panchayat authorities before the Hon'ble Ombudsman of the LSGIs of Kerala, the comments, queries and the final verdict of the Ombudsman and also the arguments, appeal and the counter arguments of the first author of this paper before the Ombudsman are pointed out in the study.

We selected this experimental approach to study the working of the Panchayati Raj System to expose its real practices. In the experimental approach, the researcher himself involves in the entire process of litigation/implementation or the process of running a programme or project. This method is truly successful in revealing the actual practice of a system or project.

5. Data Sources for the Study

The study has used both primary and secondary data sources. The Panchayati Raj Act of 1994, subsequent amendments and the decisions of the Hon'ble High Court of Kerala, the relevant records of the Kalluvathukkal grama panchayat, minutes of the grama sabha of the ward no.22 for the last 5 years, mass petition submitted before the panchayat, information sought using RTI Act, the decisions of the first appellate authority of the panchayat (Deputy Director of Panchayat , Kollam) on RTI, the submission of the panchayat authorities before the Ombudsman of LSGIs of Kerala and the final verdict of the Ombudsman, relevant publications and books were used as the major data and information sources of the study. Kalluvathukkal Grama Panchayat is one of the Panchayats in Kollam district of Kerala State.

We also had personal interaction with the members of the grama sabha of ward no.22, officials of the Kalluvathukkal grama panchayat, elected representatives of the neighbouring wards, officials of the local self-government department of the government of Kerala.

A close scrutiny and cross checking of the minutes of the grama sabha, the 'selected' beneficiaries on the paper and interaction with the rejected and genuine beneficiaries and exposing many fake practices of the elected member of the ward, leads this study.

6. A Macro Profile of Panchayati Raj System in Kerala

In 1996, the Government of Kerala decided to introduce Decentralized Planning as "People's Planning Campaign". In the Ninth Five Year Plan period (1997-2002), 35-45 percent of untied grants-in-aid earmarked to the local bodies for the plan purpose. The

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decentralized planning in Kerala has been given special emphasis to the preparation of viable projects that would meet the criteria laid down by financial institutions. The decentralized planning in Kerala laid emphasis on additional resource transfers by local bodies. In Kerala, decentralization and restructuring of Local Self Government was started on 17th August 1996 by launching People's Planning Campaign in the Ninth Five Year Plan period. Department of Public Relations and State Planning Board have published extensive literature on people's planning.

Kerala has 978 Grama Panchayats, 152 Block Panchayats and 14 District Panchayats, 60 Municipalities, and 5 Corporations in rural and urban areas. The distribution of LSGs according to the area, population, etc., is give in the following table.

Table 1.1

Level of LSGIs	Number	Number of Wards/Divisions	Average Area per LSGIs (Sq.KM)	Average Population per LSGIs
Grama panchayats(GPs)	978	16680	37.16	26674
Block Panchayats(BPs)	152	2095	244.24	175309
District Panchayats(DPs)	14	332	2651.70	1903357
Municipalities	60	2216	23.65	51664
Municipal Corporations(MCs)	5	359	95.60	491240
Total	1209	21682	-	-

Source: Panchayat Guide -2014, Published by LSG Department & CAG Report, 2013

7. The Experiments and Major Findings of the study

There are many panchayat roads in the ward no.22 and out of these two major and widely used Panchayath roads in the ward number 22 of Kalluvathukal Panchayat which were never maintained by the panchayat have been identified. They are *Puliyara Ela* Road and *Vazhapally Ela* Road⁴. These two roads are going to the paddy land (now tapioca is cultivated).*Puliyara ela* road is used by more than 400 people a day as this is the one road for the people coming from the other side of the past paddy land. The main beneficiary of this road is cashew factory workers of *Ambadi* cashew factory of *Nadakkal* village of this Panchayath. In the dawn and in the dusk too, a large number of poor women cashew workers are commuting through the poor road which has been remaining unmaintained for the past 18 years which has been a period of the actual implementation of the Panchayath Raj system in Kerala. A large number of farmers, agricultural labours,

taxi-auto- tempo drivers use these roads for carrying agricultural products and inputs. The approach of the panchayat authorities is very hasty and ridiculous. They value a road depending on the number of families live on the two sides of the road. Based on their approach, if the numbers of families are less, the road is not needed to be maintained and vice versa. But the same criteria is not followed in maintaining other roads of the same ward.. A Panchayath road is a public road and who lives on the two sides of the road has been used as a criterion to value a road seems to be very unscientific and dogmatic. A mass petition signed by 37 people using the road (Vazhapally Ela Road) was submitted to the Panchayath and in reply to this petition, the panchayat said in the submission before the ombudsman that, out of the total 37 parties signed, only three people are living on the sides of the road and all others were not the residents of the area. As an answer to one question submitted based on RTI Act 2005, the panchayat tried to misguide the researcher by giving false information that the said roads are not in the list of roads (asset register) of the Panchayath. Actually these two roads are there in the asset register of the Panchayath.

Conducting Grama Sabha, identifying and selecting beneficiaries of welfare schemes, determining the priorities of the development works including maintenance of roads, walls and ponds, street light and writing the names and putting the signatures of the participants of Grama Sabha are another area needs more attention and interest. The conduct of Grama Sabha starts with informing all the members of the Grama Sabha and how will inform all the voters? The usual practices are mike announcement and putting notices on the notice board of the Panchayat and other important places. There is no mechanism to ensure that all the voters could know about the Grama Sabha. Mike announcement may be or may not be done and for this they may fabricate evidences of hiring vehicles and mike sets and vouchers for such payments may be manipulated. When somebody raises complaints about this of not hearing the mike announcement, the person or persons very close to the member and the party men would dispute that the mike announcements could have done and the notices were pasted on important places. But some 'anti-social' elements teared and destroyed the public notices informing about the time, venue and date of the Grama Sabha.

Then about the conduct of Grama Sabha, a minimum quorum may not be there. The meeting would discuss the development needs, problems and solutions to the important problems. The participants of

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the meeting would be asked to write their names and put signature on the paper kept on the dais. After the meeting, may be after one or two days, the elected ward members would take voters list and fill the names and forge signatures of the poor members of the Grama Sabha who in their whole life might not have attended or participated in a Grama Sabha. The ward member or his helper would complete the Grama Sabha minutes and submit to the Panchayath for the approval. A close scrutiny of the minutes revealed many manipulations and fake signatures are being cleverly done by our elected member of the Grama Sabha. It is noticed that a voter of a ward has put his signature twice in a Grama Sabha minutes and the signatures are different for one voter in different Grama sabhas. Children below the age of 18 have also put their names and signatures. One common feature of the minutes is that the all-time non-participants who are poor would be 'present' in all the Grama sabhas. Selection of beneficiaries is another stock of wit. The voters who are friends and relatives of the elected ward member and also very close to him would get their names first in the list of beneficiaries and would be given the benefits. Whether the beneficiaries are poor or rich, monthly salaried or pensioners, land lord or tenants do not matter much in the eyes of the ward member. There are serious violations of procedures in the selection of beneficiaries of the welfare schemes. Who should be given or not to be given is up to the ward member to decide and write such and such names in the minute book of the Grama Sabha. This is nothing but absolute corruption. In the submission before the Ombudsman to the petition filed by the first author of the paper, the Panchayath took the stand that the Grama Sabha decided not to accept the proposal of maintaining the *Vazhappally Ela* road in the 2014-15 financial year. But actually, the Grama Sabha had no objection to accept the proposal of maintaining the road and already accepted the proposal. But when the ward Member wrote the minutes, the same Grama Sabha "*decided*" not to include the road for maintenance in the financial year 2014-15. These are all clear cases of unreasonable, unjust, oppressive, willful negligence, discriminatory or nepotism on the part of Panchayat authorities.

The issue of maintenance of *Puliyayra Ela Road* was discussed in the Grama sabha on 31st January, 2010 and the same grama sabha decided to accept the suggestion of maintaining PuliyayraEla Road. The

decision has been included in the minutes of the grama sabha. But till date, the work for maintenance of the road has not yet started after five and half years of the decision of the grama sabha. This road is widely used by the poor women workers of the cashew factory. The concept of grama sabha is excellent and the mode and method of operation of the grama sabha are very strange and totally detrimental to the basic spirit of the Panchayati Raj Act of 1994. A great concept has become totally utopian and has been misutilised and misinterpreted to suit the personal whims and fancies of the elected members and the Panchayat authorities. The basic spirit of the grama sabha has been directed against some minorities (in numbers) and to appease some other extreme minorities (who are personally close to the elected members) and to largely devastate the aspirations of the large majority. Here, in the Panchayat Raj system who decides the luxury and necessity?. The answer is grama sabha. But it is the elected representative in unholy terms with the panchayat authorities through passing misinformation and repeating the same misinformation and false propaganda even before the Hon'ble Ombudsman of the Local Self Government Institutions of Kerala at Thiruvananthapuram. This fabricated-false version is imposed on the Ombudsman and the Ombudsman believed their version and passing comments favouring their imposed version. The issue of non-maintenance of *Vazhappally Ela Road* (Just 200 metres) has been brought to the attention of the Ombudsman. The Panchayat President, the Secretary and the Member of the ward vehemently opposed the demand for the maintenance of the *Vazhappally Ela* road on the ground of paucity of funds and limited number of families living on the sides of the road. They misinformed the Ombudsman that the Panchayat lacks revenue and there are no factories and such production units. The first author of this paper tried to convince the Ombudsman about the ineffectiveness of Grama Sabha and the futile exercise of raising the same issue again and again in the same Grama Sabha. As the Grama Sabha minute is prepared by the ward Member/or his assistant and the issues discussed in the Grama Sabha which the Member doesn't like would not find a place in the minutes. It is pertinent to note that the Panchayat has an annual budget of Rs.20 crores. There are many cashew factories in the Panchayat, shops and commercial establishments, bar hotels, revenue from shopping complex etc. The first author stated before the Ombudsman

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that it is nothing but the prejudiced and arrogant approach of the Panchayat which led to the non-maintenance of *Vazhappally Ela road*. During the rainy season, the vehicles cannot pass through the road and the vehicles would slip and dip in the mud and need almost an hour of rigorous effort to take the vehicle out.

While presenting the case, the Hon'ble Ombudsman suggested the complainant to mobilize maximum people and field a candidate to consider the suggestion of maintaining *vazhappally ela* road through the Grama Sabha and then the complainant felt diminished and asked himself about the relevance of Ombudsman in this context. Another fact pointed out by the complainant was about the manipulation of Grama Sabha minutes and fabrication of fake signatures by the elected member of the ward and the complainant was ready to present the minutes of the Grama Sabha for the past five years obtained through the RTI. But the response of the Ombudsman was very shocking. The Ombudsman consented that there have been such practices due to the lack of quorum for the Grama Sabha meetings in Kerala and for this the elected members need not be blamed. In the final judgment, the Ombudsman observed that *"if the Grama Sabha of the ward decides to construct the road, the same should be implemented at the earliest and with this direction, actions in the mentioned petition closed"*. The Ombudsman was reluctant to give orders to the Grama Panchayat to maintain the road stating that the Panchayat may challenge his order in the Hon'ble High Court of Kerala. Then what is the option for the complainant to get the road maintained by the Panchayat. The normal and the gentle option of demanding in the Grama Sabha is manipulated by the elected representative and supported by the Panchayat authorities by ratifying the false minutes and fake signatures of the Grama Sabha minutes. The second option is challenging it before the Hon'ble Ombudsman of LSGI has been defeated by the unwanted reservations.

Conclusion

The above presented case is not an isolated event and there are many such cases in the different local government bodies in Kerala. The Kerala's decentralized planning is widely acclaimed and highlighted as a model for other States to emulate. But a very detailed and critical examination of the practices of the elected members,

panchayat authorities would reveal the true implementation of decentralized planning in Kerala and practices in the minutes of the Grama Sabha. The intended spirit and basic objectives of the Grama Sabha are spoiled by the elected members and Panchayath authorities who have been representatives of a leading 'working class' party in Kerala. The same 'working class' party has been ruling the panchayat and the ward no.22 of the same panchayat for the last 20 years.

The mechanism of Ombudsman to rectify corruption, favouritism, willful negligence, procedural irregularities committed by the LSGIs have been reluctant and subtly accepting the manipulations of the Grama Sabha minutes. So we need not have much faith on the Panchayati Raj system of Kerala.

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(Footnotes)

- ¹ There has been a three-tier system for the Local Self Government Institutions in Kerala. In the rural area, there is Panchayat system, at the district level, there is District Panchayat and in between the Village Panchayats and district panchayats, there are block panchayats.
- ² All persons whose names are included in the electoral rolls relating to a village/ward comprised within the area of a village Panchayath shall be deemed to be constituted as Grama Sabha of such village. All persons of a particular ward are invited to participate in the Grama Sabha to be held twice in a year.
- ³ *There shall be an authority for Local Self Government Institutions, at State Level known as 'Ombudsman' for making investigations and enquiries, in respect of charges on any action involving corruption or maladministration or irregularities in the discharge of administrative functions, in accordance with the provisions of the Kerala Panchayat Raj Act 1994.*
- ⁴ Ela Road means a road to the paddy land. Now paddy is not cultivated in the area. But tapioca is cultivated extensively. Ela road is a usage in the rural area of Kerala.

Study of urban religious demography of India

(With Special Emphasis on Urban-Muslim Population of India)

Jagatjyoti Barua

Introduction

The Study of “urban religious demography of a country” offers a realm for the demographers, economists, development researchers, anthropologists, and sociologists to ponder on the various dimensions and work relentlessly to bring out the new, undiscovered vistas into light. The religious demography of nation is also affected by the degree of Urbanisation. The various religious communities react differently and at a different pace to the process of urbanization. .Urbanization is an index of transformation from traditional rural economies to modern industrial one. It is a long term and spontaneous process. Urbanisation is a product of demographic explosion and poverty induced rural- to-urban migration. Urbanisation is not the outcome of mere urban pull factors but also the rural-push factors.

Objectives

1. To study the urban religious demography with special emphasis on urban-Muslim population of India.
2. To examine how the Urban-Muslim population is distributed across the towns of India.
3. To make a comparative study of the Urban-Muslim population vis-à-vis Christian Urban-population.

Limitations

The endeavour of examining the Urban demography of Urban-Muslims suffers from few inherent limitations.

- (1) The data used is of a single year. The data of Census 2011 on religion has not been published yet.

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- (2) The study is carried out only for urban Muslim and to some extent the urban Christian population. The study does not pertain to the demographic pattern of other religions existing in India.
- (3) The study of Urban demography is to make an observation of the pattern of distribution of urban Muslim population across the towns of India. No effort has been made to test any hypothesis or prescribe policy for any problems .

Data Source

To study the urban religious demography for India the data of Census of India 2001 has been used.

Literature Review

There are significant research works and academic exercises carried out related to this topic. There has been an endeavour to carry out a detailed literature review. The following are the highlights of the literature review.

The “Religious Demography of India” authored by Dr A.P. Joshi, Dr M.D. Srinivas and Dr J.K. Bajaj has exhaustive compilation of the religious demographic data of the last hundred years for different regions of the Indian Subcontinent and almost all districts of the Country. The book also contains the religious demography of different countries and regions of the world in the course of the twentieth century

R. Ramachandran in his book “Urbanization and Urban Systems in India” has elaborately explained the classification of urban places in chapter 6. In the same chapter in page 173, he has classified urban areas based on religion and ethnicity. He states that Indian cities vary in religious compositions of their population. Describing the classification he states that “except for the Sikhs, religious minorities show a distinct tendency towards concentration in urban places.

Prof .Ashish Bose in his book “India’s Billion Plus People” presents the first results of the 2001 census of India in a user-friendly manner. He has described briefly the house listing operation and the enumeration as well as the new features of the census, demographic profile of India and the states and union territories, implications of the census results, census methodology .

Population Profile of Religion in India : District wise Data from 1991 Census by Ashish Bose is another reference book, the first of its kind, is based on 1991 census data on religion, The focus was on religious composition of population at the district level in each state and union territory of India.

Rural-Urban Divide: Changing Spatial Pattern of Social Variables is a book by Sneh Sangwan and Randhir Singh Sangwan., The book is really useful to get a idea of the concept of the changing spatial pattern.

Sriya Iyer's book "Demography and Religion in India" examines the role of religion on population growth in India. The book examines the theological content of Islam and Hinduism in the context of population growth. It also offers evidence that religious differences in fertility and two of its proximate determinants, contraceptive choice and the age at marriage, are in fact, due to differences in socio-economic characteristics, such as access to education. The econometric analysis is based on fieldwork carried out among Hindu, Muslim, and Christian women in a cluster of communities in the south Indian state of Karnataka.

The Sachar committee report has evoked the interest to go for a study of the pattern of the distribution of Muslim Population across the country. The committee was set up to enquire into the social, economic and educational status of Muslims in India.

Methodology

The methodology involved the study of distribution of urban Muslim population in the towns of India is simple yet pragmatic. Firstly the towns of India have been classified according to the urban population of the individual towns. In this case, the classification used is more elaborate than the traditional / usual classification in which towns are classified into 6 classes for a better understanding of the phenomena, an attempt has been made to classify the towns into 18 classes ranging from "less than 5000" to "above 5,000,000". Although this classification is wide yet at any point of time one can revert back to the usual classification of 6 classes and make a comparative study.

Another classification of towns is undertaken to study the distribution of urban Muslim and urban Christian population and to make a comparative study of the two. Under this classification, towns are classified according to the percentage of Muslims and Christians in the individual towns. The towns are classified into 12 classes ranging from "less than 5%" to "above 90%". Here, "less than 5%" implies that the urban population of Muslim in that particular town is less than 5% of the population of that town.

Pearson's correlation is calculated for the percentage of Urban-Muslims and percentage of Urban-Christians to study if there exists any correlation between the two.

Analysis and Observations***Decadal Growth of Urban-population in India (1951-2001)***

Table 1: Decadal growth of Urban-population (1951-2001)

<i>Census Years</i>	<i>Number of Towns</i>	<i>Urban Population</i>	<i>% Decadal Growth</i>
1951	2,843	62,443,709	-
1961	2,363	78,936,603	26.41
1971	2,590	10,9113,977	38.23
1981	3,378	159,462,547	46.14
1991	3,768	21,7177,625	36.19
2001	5,161	28,6119,689	31.74

The Table 1 shows that the percentage growth of urban population in India was rapidly increasing in 1961–1981 from 26.41% to 46.14%. Subsequent increase in seen the number of towns, they were 2,363 in 1961 and went up to 3,378 in 1981. Since 1981 the percentage decadal growth rate started decreasing it was 31.74% in 2001 but the number of towns kept on increasing to 5,161 in 2001.

Definition of Urban Area According to the Census of India

In census of India, 2001 two types of towns were identified:

- (1) Statutory Towns : All places with a municipality , corporation , Cantonment Board or notified town area committee etc. so declared by state law.
- (2) Census Towns: Places which satisfy following criteria :
 - (i) Minimum population of 5000
 - (ii) At least 75% of male working population engaged in non-agricultural pursuits ; and
 - (iii) A density of population of at least 400 persons per square Kilometre.

The usual classification of towns on the basis of population is to classify them into six classes: viz.

Class I: Greater than 1,00,000 population.

Class II: 50,000 -1,00,000 population.

Class III: 20,000 —50,000 population.

Class IV: 10.000 — 20,000 population.

Class V: 5,000 — 10,000 population.

Class VI: Less than 5000 population.

In the present study towns have been classified into the class sizes ranging from less than 5,000 to Above 5,000,000. This Classification

enables to give a more vivid and clear depiction of the phenomenon of Urbanization.

Table 2: The Classifications of the towns

<i>Classification used in this study</i>	<i>Usual / traditional Classification</i>
Class size	
less than 5,000	Class-VI
5,001 to 10,000	Class-V
10,001 to 20,000	Class-IV
20,001 to 30,000	Class-III
30,001 to 40,000	
40,001 to 50,000	
50,001 to 100,000	Class II
100,001 to 150,000	Class I
150,001 to 200,000	
200,001 to 300,000	
300,001 to 400,000	
400,001 to 500,000	
500,001 to 1,000,000	
1,000,001 to 2,000,000	
2,000,001 to 3,000,000	
3,000,001 to 4,000,000	
4,000,001 to 5,000,000	
Above 5,000,000	

To start the study with, the towns of India have been classified according to the urban population of the individual towns. In this case, the classification that has been used is more elaborate than the traditional / usual classification in which towns are classified into 6 classes. For a better understanding of the phenomena, an attempt has been made to classify the towns into 18 classes ranging from “less than 5000” to “above 5,000,000”. Although this classification is wide yet at any point of time one can revert back to the usual classification of 6 classes and make a comparative study. “Towns” in this study refers to 5,161 urban areas as derived from 2001 Census irrespective of itself being a metropolitan city or a small township.

Another classification of towns is undertaken to study the distribution of urban Muslim and urban Christian population and to make a comparative study of the two. Under this classification, towns are classified according to the percentage of Muslims and Christians in the individual towns. The towns are classified into 12 classes ranging

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from “less than 5%” to “above 90%”. Here, “less than 5%” implies that the urban population of Muslim in that particular town is less than 5% of the population of that town.

Table3: Distribution of Urban population of Indian ,Urban-Muslims(M), Urban-Christians(C) and number of towns across the Indian states

State	Total Urban Population	Urban Muslim	Urban Christian	%Urban Muslim	%Urban Christian	No. of Towns
Andaman & Nicobar	116,198	13,939	13,182	12	11.34	3
Andhra Pradesh	20,808,940	4,058,287	537,344	19.5	2.58	210
Arunachal Pradesh	227,881	10,306	22,210	4.52	9.75	17
Assam	3,439,240	525,992	50,581	15.29	1.47	125
Bihar	8,681,800	1,702,039	23,133	19.6	0.27	130
Chandigarh	808,515	31,491	7,255	3.89	0.9	1
Chattisgarh	4,185,747	257,448	99,909	6.15	2.39	97
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	107,811	11,878	4,266	11.02	3.96	4
Delhi	12,905,780	1,558,220	123,953	12.07	0.96	62
Goa	670,577	75,117	169,630	11.2	25.3	44
Gujarat	18,930,250	2,693,821	121,945	14.23	0.64	242
Haryana	6,115,304	177,163	17,510	2.9	0.29	106
Himachal	595,581	16,981	3,317	2.85	0.56	57
Jammu& Kashmir	2,516,638	1,504,492	13,425	59.78	0.53	75
Jharkhand	5,993,741	945,395	174,517	15.77	2.91	152
Karnataka	17,961,529	3,815,301	680,754	21.24	3.79	270
Kerala	8,266,925	1,998,397	1,426,646	24.17	17.26	159
Lakshadweep	26,967	25,229	290	93.56	1.08	3
Madhya Pradesh	15,967,145	2,440,210	112,322	15.28	0.7	394
Maharastra	41,100,980	7,188,933	898,736	17.49	2.19	378
Manipur	575,968	55,445	32,905	9.63	5.71	33
Meghalaya	454,111	12,148	284,471	2.68	62.64	16
Mizoram	441,006	6,781	410,256	1.54	93.03	22
Nagaland	342,787	18,373	241,128	5.36	70.34	9
Orissa	5,517,238	317,509	134,666	5.75	2.44	138
Pondicherry	648,619	46,887	58,005	7.23	8.94	6
Punjab	8,262,511	166,529	81,640	2.02	0.99	157
Rajasthan	13,214,375	2,317,295	41,625	17.54	0.31	222
Sikkim	59,870	2,780	3,923	4.64	6.55	9
Tamil Nadu	27,483,998	2,525,837	2,135,338	9.19	7.77	832
Tripura	545,750	17,694	2,669	3.24	0.49	23
Uttar Pradesh	34,539,582	11,073,861	120,982	32.06	0.35	704
Uttaranchal	2,179,074	386,209	15,733	17.72	0.72	86
West Bengal	22,427,251	3,395,509	121,792	15.14	0.54	375
Total	286,119,689	49,393,496	8,186,058	17.26	2.86	5,161

Source: Census Report of India, 2001

A study of the State-wise demographic composition of the towns reveals that the towns of India are unevenly distributed across the states and Union Territories.

According to Census report, 2001; Tamil Nadu has the highest number of towns (832), followed by Uttar Pradesh (704), Madhya Pradesh (394), Maharashtra (378) as shown in Table 3.

Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Lakshadweep have 3 towns each. Chandigarh and Union Territory has 1 town.

There are 18 states having less than 100 towns .The number of states having more than 200 towns is 16. Assam (125), Bihar (130), Haryana (106), Jharkhand (152), Kerala (159), Orissa (138), Punjab (157) are the states having number of towns in between 100 to 200.

In 2001, Maharashtra (41,100,980) has the highest total urban population, followed by Uttar Pradesh (34,539,582) and Tamil Nadu (27,483,998). Lakshadweep (27,483,998) has the lowest Urban Population.

Uttar Pradesh (11,073,861) has the highest Urban- Muslim Population in India, followed by Maharashtra (71,88,933), Andhra Pradesh (405,827) and Karnataka (3,515,301).

Lakshadweep with the urban-Muslim population of 25,229 has the highest percentage (93.56) of urban-Muslim followed by Jammu & Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh.

Meghalaya and Punjab have 2.68% and 2.02 % of Urban-Muslim Population respectively. Mizoram with total urban Population of 441,006 and urban-Muslim Population of 6,781 has the lowest percentage of Urban- Muslim population (1.54%)

Interestingly, Mizoram with a Christian Population of 410,256 has the highest Percentage (93.03%) of urban-Christian Population. Nagaland with (70.34%) and Meghalaya with (62.64%) follow Mizoram.

Bihar has the lowest percentage of Urban-Muslim. Haryana and Rajasthan has higher than Bihar. Bihar has a total Urban Population of 8,681,800 of which only 23,133 are Christians and that amounts to 0.27 % of Bihar's total urban –population.

This particular classification of towns although different from the usual classification is very useful in the endeavour to trace the urbanization of Muslim and Christian Communities in India. In this classification towns are classified into 18 class sizes as shown in Table 4.

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Table 4 *Distribution of Total-Urban, Urban-Muslim, Urban-Christian Population of India (according to the new Classification)*

Class size	Total Urban	Urban Muslim	Urban Christian	% Urban Muslim	% Urban Christian	No. of Towns
less than 5,000	820,632	89,365	42,997	10.89	5.24	232
5,001 to 10,000	7,889,668	1,055,689	254,172	13.38	3.22	1041
10,001 to 20,000	22,614,319	3,616,591	979,541	15.99	4.33	1563
20,001 to 30,000	18,599,573	3,407,541	631,204	18.32	3.39	769
30,001 to 40,000	13,606,963	2,606,395	452,018	19.15	3.32	396
40,001 to 50,000	9,912,744	1,937,858	331,571	19.55	3.34	223
50,001 to 100,000	34,451,500	7,015,294	839,506	20.36	2.44	496
100,001 to 150,000	19,162,887	2,874,107	382,367	15	2	159
150,001 to 200,000	14,720,827	2,507,058	284,550	17.03	1.93	87
200,001 to 300,000	17,617,231	2,657,437	743,511	15.08	4.22	73
300,001 to 400,000	10,246,737	1,701,551	329,412	16.61	3.21	30
400,001 to 500,000	9,372,047	1,923,346	180,264	20.52	1.92	21
500,001 to 1,000,000	28,967,967	5,513,083	1,068,068	19.03	3.69	40
1,000,001 to 2,000,000	21,330,893	2,796,246	239,609	13.11	1.12	18
2,000,001 to 3,000,000	14,357,156	2,252,831	122,550	15.69	0.85	6
3,000,001 to 4,000,000	7,353,484	2,064,923	114,999	28.08	1.56	2
4,000,001 to 5,000,000	13,237,439	1,992,462	646,260	15.05	4.88	3
Above 5,000,000	21,857,622	3,381,719	543,459	15.47	2.49	2
TOTAL	28,611,689	49,393,496	8,186,058	17.26	2.86	5,161

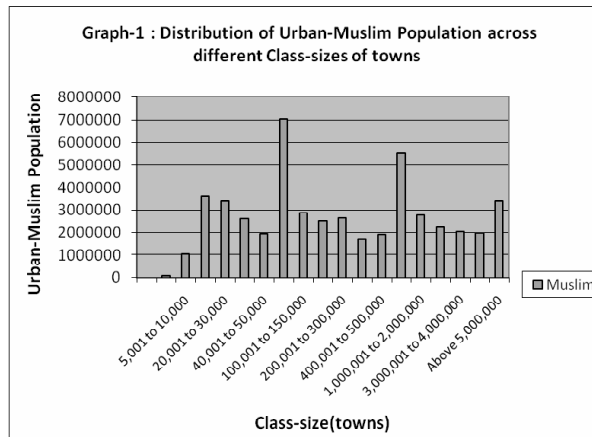
The towns are unevenly distributed across the different class-sizes. There are 232 towns in the class-size of “Less than 5000” population. The Class-size having a population “Above 5,000,000” has just 2 towns. The Table 4 also portrays the distribution of urban –Muslim and Urban-Christian population in the different categories of towns.

The urban- Muslim population

The Urban-Muslim population is 49,393,496, which constitutes 17.26% of the Total-Urban Population. (Graph-1).

The Urban-Muslim Population has been distributed in an uneven manner as found in graph 1. 0.18% of Urban –Muslim Population reside in the class size of towns of “less than 5000”. The Urban-Muslim population and the number of towns of this class size are 89365 and 232 respectively.

The Class –size “Above 5,000,000 “ contains 6.85% of the Urban-Muslim Population that amounts to 3,381,719. The number of towns in this class-size are 2.

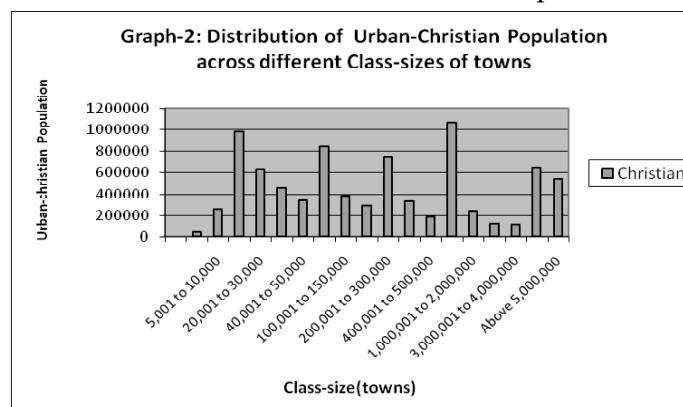


9.46% of the Urban-Muslim Population stay in towns of less than 20,000 population. This includes the class sizes {Less than 5,000; 5001 to 10,000 and 10,001 to 20,001}. 4,761,645 Urban –Muslim population included in this class stay in 2,836 different towns across India.

39.94% of the Urban-Muslim populations stay in 4,720 towns that have population less than 100,000. The towns with population above 100,000 have 60.06 % of the Urban-Muslim Population distributed among 441 towns. There are 31 towns having population above 1,000,000 that has 25.28% of the urban-Muslim population, which is equal to 12,488,181.

The urban-Christian population

The Urban-Christian Population constitutes 2.86% of the Total Urban Population of India. There distribution across the 5,161 different towns is uneven too. The total Urban-Christian Population is 8,186,058.



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In the class-size of “less than 5000”, the urban Christian, population residing amounts to 0.53% of the total Urban-Christian Population of India. 0.53% means 42997 urban-Christians, who reside across 232 towns.

The 2 towns having population above 5,000,000 have 6.64 % of the Urban-Christians, which equals to 543,459.

15.07 % of Urban Christians i.e. 1,276,710 Urban-Christians stay in towns having population less than 20,000 .43.13% of the Urban-Christians which is equal to 3531009 reside in 4720 towns that have population below 100,000. The towns of the class “Above 5,000,000” have 6.64 % of the Urban-Christian population, which is equal to 543,459 Urban-Christians. The 441 towns that have population above 100,000 have 4,655,049 Urban-Christians, which constitute 56.87% of the Total Urban-Christian Population.

The Distribution of Urban-Muslim Population in India

In order to get a clear picture of the phenomenon of distribution of Urban-Muslim population in India, the towns are classified according to the percentage of Urban-Muslim population residing in the towns as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Categorization of towns according to the percentage of Muslim

	<i>Total Urban Population</i>	<i>Urban-Muslim</i>	<i>% Urban Muslim</i>	<i>No. of Towns</i>
Less than 5 %	49,669,952	1,161,495	2.34	1,742
Between 5% to 10 %	52,092,502	3,984,915	7.65	892
Between 10 % to 15 %	55,637,145	6,914,876	12.43	618
Between 15% to 20 %	44,720,189	7,899,114	17.66	450
Between 20 % to30 %	42,782,259	10,075,498	23.55	592
Between 30 % to 40 %	17,262,217	5,964,741	34.55	326
Between 40 % to50 %	12,346,224	5,399,253	43.73	177
Between 50% to 60 %	4,131,993	2,233,232	54.05	120
Between 60% to 70 %	2,566,637	1,688,629	65.79	86
Between 70 % to 80%	2,489,234	1,852,367	74.42	69
Between 80 % to90 %	816,055	696,667	85.37	40
Above 90%	1,605,282	1,522,709	94.86	49
Total	286,119,689	49,393,496	17.26	5,161

According to 2001 Census Report, In India there are 1,742 towns where the urban-Muslim population is less than 5% of the total urban Population. The urban-Muslim population that comes under this category is equal to 1,161,495.

On the contrary, there are 49 towns where the Urban-Muslim population is higher than 90% of the total population of the towns, each town taken separately. 1,522,709 urban-Muslim Population are distributed among these 49 towns as shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Percentage Distribution

<i>State</i>	<i>Area Name</i>	<i>Urban-Muslim</i>	<i>Urban-Christian</i>	<i>% Urban-Muslim</i>	<i>% Urban-Christian</i>
Assam	Anand Nagar (CT)	4,606	1	91.64	0.02
Assam	Silchar Part-X (CT)	4,827	2	97.99	0.04
Jammu & Kashmir	Kupwara (NAC)	13,925	18	93.73	0.12
Jammu & Kashmir	Handwara (NAC)	9,753	30	91.68	0.28
Jammu & Kashmir	Bandipore (NAC)	24,433	45	94.72	0.17
Jammu & Kashmir	Hajan (NAC)	9,875	2	99.03	0.02
Jammu & Kashmir	Sumbal (NAC)	10,531	6	98.84	0.06
Jammu & Kashmir	Sopore (TC+OG)	58,524	51	98.16	0.09
Jammu & Kashmir	Pattan (NAC)	11,109	1	97.83	0.01
Jammu & Kashmir	Kunzer (NAC)	1,898	0	99.84	0.00
Jammu & Kashmir	Ganderbal (NAC)	13,390	9	97.59	0.07
Jammu & Kashmir	Srinagar	898,529	1,353	94.35	0.14
Jammu & Kashmir	Magam (NAC)	4,285	0	99.37	0.00
Jammu & Kashmir	Khan Sahib (NAC)	2,031	0	99.66	0.00
Jammu & Kashmir	Chrari Sharief (NAC)	7,354	0	99.73	0.00
Jammu & Kashmir	Pampore (NAC)	16,770	16	98.86	0.09
Jammu & Kashmir	Khrew (NAC)	7,135	3	99.57	0.04
Jammu & Kashmir	Tral (NAC)	10,951	39	93.99	0.33
Jammu & Kashmir	Pulwama (NAC)	12,845	39	90.27	0.27
Jammu & Kashmir	Shupiyani (NAC)	12,175	17	99.42	0.14
Jammu & Kashmir	Pahalgam (NAC)	5,753	12	94.84	0.20
Jammu & Kashmir	Bijbehara (NAC)	19,062	10	96.30	0.05
Jammu & Kashmir	Mattan (NAC)	5,987	3	91.59	0.05
Jammu & Kashmir	Anantnag	88,125	91	96.46	0.10
Jammu & Kashmir	Achabal (NAC)	5,820	0	99.76	0.00
Jammu & Kashmir	Kulgam (NAC)	12,764	11	97.17	0.08
Jammu & Kashmir	Qazigund (NAC)	3,336	5	94.32	0.14
Jammu & Kashmir	Duru-Verinag (NAC)	16,186	16	93.90	0.09
Jammu & Kashmir	Thanamandi (NAC)	3,381	3	97.29	0.09
Jharkhand	Paratdih (CT)	5,996	19	90.23	0.29
Lakshadweep	Amini (CT)	7,238	35	98.44	0.48
Lakshadweep	Minicoy (CT)	8,891	141	93.64	1.48
Rajasthan	Basni Belima (CT)	20,548	19	95.31	0.09
Tamil Nadu	Pallapatti (TP)	17,643	125	92.67	0.66
Uttar Pradesh	Sahaspur (NP)	20,683	12	91.49	0.05
Uttar Pradesh	Umri Kalan (NP)	15,124	8	98.89	0.05
Uttar Pradesh	Naugawan Sadat (NP)	25,146	8	92.91	0.03
Uttar Pradesh	Bhargain (NP)	18,680	41	93.49	0.21
Uttar Pradesh	Richha (NP)	16,230	21	92.70	0.12
Uttar Pradesh	Thiriya Nizamat Khan (NP)	17,907	45	93.02	0.23
West Bengal	Uttar Mahammadpur (CT)	6,091	4	98.37	0.06
West Bengal	Chachanda (CT)	9,283	3	90.13	0.03
West Bengal	Charka (CT)	5,729	0	97.45	0.00
West Bengal	Khodarampur (CT)	4,866	1	95.24	0.02
West Bengal	Raigachhi (CT)	6,570	1	97.64	0.01
West Bengal	Dakshin Baguan (CT)	4,289	2	91.76	0.04
West Bengal	Chak Enayetnagar (CT)	5,637	0	99.52	0.00
West Bengal	Uttar Kalas (CT)	5,215	0	95.36	0.00
West Bengal	Bilandapur (CT)	5,583	0	97.57	0.00

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4,797 towns in India are such that the urban-Muslim population of such towns is below 50% of the urban population of the towns considered separately. 41, 399,892 urban-Muslim people are found in this category.

Comparison of Urban- Muslim and Urban-Christian Population

A significant and interesting phenomenon is noted when a relative study is carried out for the urban-Muslim and Urban-Christian population. To study both the groups of population, two sets of towns are being taken.

1. The first set consists of 29 towns where Urban-Christian population is "above 85%". (Table 7)
2. The second set consists of 70 towns where Urban-Muslim population is "above 85%". (Table 8)

Table 7: Towns with Urban-Christian Population above 85 %

<i>State</i>	<i>Distt</i>	<i>Area Name</i>	<i>% Urban- Muslim</i>	<i>% Urban- Christian</i>
Goa	South Goa	Varca (CT)	1.56	86.93
Goa	South Goa	Chinchinim (CT)	1.69	85.10
Meghalaya	West Khasi Hills	Nongstoin (TC)	0.18	98.18
Meghalaya	West Khasi Hills	Mairang (TC)	0.08	92.68
Meghalaya	East Khasi Hills	Mawlai (CT)	0.31	90.53
Mizoram	Mamit	Zawlnuam (NT)	3.24	95.29
Mizoram	Mamit	Mamit (NT)	0.51	96.95
Mizoram	Mamit	Lengpui (NT)	0.54	98.35
Mizoram	Kolasib	Bairabi (NT)	4.18	85.47
Mizoram	Kolasib	Kolasib (NT)	1.08	91.45
Mizoram	Kolasib	N.Kawnpui (NT)	0.25	92.01
Mizoram	Aizawl	Darlawn (NT)	0.57	98.34
Mizoram	Aizawl	Sairang (NT)	0.91	96.50
Mizoram	Aizawl	Aizawl (NT)	2.12	92.20
Mizoram	Aizawl	Saitual (NT)	0.38	92.51
Mizoram	Champhai	Khawzawl (NT)	0.93	85.79
Mizoram	Champhai	Champhai (NT)	0.86	97.00
Mizoram	Champhai	Khawhai (NT)	0.29	99.54
Mizoram	Champhai	Biate (NT)	0.22	99.01
Mizoram	Serchhip	Serchhip (NT)	0.61	98.44
Mizoram	Serchhip	Thenzawl (NT)	0.22	98.84
Mizoram	Serchhip	N.Vanlaiphai (NT)	0.18	98.20
Mizoram	Lunglei	Lunglei (NT)	1.20	93.78
Mizoram	Lunglei	Hnahthial (NT)	0.64	94.91
Mizoram	Saiha	Saiha (NT)	0.78	96.30
Nagaland	Mon	Mon Town (TC)	2.41	88.95
Nagaland	Tuensang	Tuensang (TC)	2.38	85.45
Nagaland	Zunheboto	Zunheboto (TC)	1.23	88.83
Nagaland	Wokha	Wokha (TC)	2.13	92.66

Table 8: Towns with Urban-Muslim Population above 85 %

<i>State</i>	<i>Distt</i>	<i>Area Name</i>	<i>% Urban- Muslim</i>	<i>% Urban- Christian</i>
Assam	Dhubri	Anand Nagar (CT)	91.64	0.02
Assam	Cachar	Silchar Part-X (CT)	97.99	0.04
Gujarat	Jamnagar	Salaya (M)	88.15	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Kupwara	Kupwara (NAC)	93.73	0.12
Jammu- Kashmir	Kupwara	Handwara (NAC)	91.68	0.28
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Bandipore (NAC)	94.72	0.17
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Hajan (NAC)	99.03	0.02
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Sumbal (NAC)	98.84	0.06
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Sopore (TC+OG)	98.16	0.09
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Pattan (NAC)	97.83	0.01
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Baramula (TC+OG)	88.93	0.17
Jammu- Kashmir	Baramula	Kunzer (NAC)	99.84	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Srinagar	Ganderbal (NAC)	97.59	0.07
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Srinagar	94.35	0.14
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Magam (NAC)	99.37	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Beerwah (NAC)	89.12	0.32
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Badgam (NAC)	85.40	0.12
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Khan Sahib (NAC)	99.66	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Badgam	Chrari Sharief (NAC)	99.73	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Pampore (NAC)	98.86	0.09
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Khrew (NAC)	99.57	0.04
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Tral (NAC)	93.99	0.33
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Awantipora (NAC)	85.04	0.45
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Pulwama (NAC)	90.27	0.27
Jammu- Kashmir	Pulwama	Shupiyani (NAC)	99.42	0.14
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Pahalgam (NAC)	94.84	0.20
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Bijbehara (NAC)	96.30	0.05
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Mattan (NAC)	91.59	0.05
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Anantnag	96.46	0.10
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Achabal (NAC)	99.76	0.00
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Kulgam (NAC)	97.17	0.08
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Qazigund (NAC)	94.32	0.14
Jammu- Kashmir	Anantnag	Duru-Verinag (NAC)	93.90	0.09
Jammu- Kashmir	Kargil	Kargil (NAC)	85.31	0.12
Jammu- Kashmir	Doda	Banihal (NAC)	85.80	0.14
Jammu- Kashmir	Rajauri	Thanamandi (NAC)	97.29	0.09
Jharkhand	Hazaribag	Palawa (CT)	85.04	0.30
Jharkhand	Giridih	Paratdih (CT)	90.23	0.29
Lakshadweep	Lakshadweep	Amini (CT)	98.44	0.48
Lakshadweep	Lakshadweep	Kavaratti (CT)	89.93	1.13
Lakshadweep	Lakshadweep	Minicoy (CT)	93.64	1.48
Manipur	Bishnupur	Kwakta (NP)	87.34	4.50
Manipur	na	Lilong (Thoubal)	85.45	0.17
Rajasthan	Nagaur	Basni Belima (CT)	95.31	0.09
Tamil Nadu	Karur	Pallapatti (TP)	92.67	0.66
Tamil Nadu	Perambalur	Labbaikudikadu (TP)	86.29	0.64

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Uttar Pradesh	Bijnor	Jalalabad (NP)	88.87	0.09
Uttar Pradesh	Bijnor	Sahaspur (NP)	91.49	0.05
Uttar Pradesh	Moradabad	Umri Kalan (NP)	98.89	0.05
Uttar Pradesh	Moradabad	Bhojpur Dharampur (NP)	89.24	0.17
Uttar Pradesh	Jyotiba Phule Nagar	Naugawan Sadat (NP)	92.91	0.03
Uttar Pradesh	Etah	Bhargain (NP)	93.49	0.21
Uttar Pradesh	Budaun	Saidpur (NP)	88.26	0.31
Uttar Pradesh	Budaun	Kakrala (MB)	89.05	0.06
Uttar Pradesh	Bareilly	Richha (NP)	92.70	0.12
Uttar Pradesh	Bareilly	Shishgarh (NP)	88.01	0.08
Uttar Pradesh	Bareilly	Thiriya Nizamat Khan (NP)	93.02	0.23
Uttar Pradesh	Pilibhit	Nyoria Husainpur (NP)	87.84	0.45
Uttaranchal	Hardwar	Manglaur (MB)	85.52	0.19
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Anup Nagar (CT)	87.65	0.17
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Uttar Mahammadpur (CT)	98.37	0.06
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Kankuria (CT)	88.09	0.09
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Chachanda (CT)	90.13	0.03
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Charka (CT)	97.45	0.00
West Bengal	Murshidabad	Khodarampur (CT)	95.24	0.02
West Bengal	North 24 Parganas	Raigachhi (CT)	97.64	0.01
West Bengal	Medinipur	Dakshin Baguan (CT)	91.76	0.04
West Bengal	South 24 Parganas	Chak Enayetnagar (CT)	99.52	0.00
West Bengal	South 24 Parganas	Uttar Kalas (CT)	95.36	0.00
West Bengal	South 24 Parganas	Bilandapur (CT)	97.57	0.00

From the above tables it is found that the places where Urban-Christian population is high, the percentage of urban-Muslim population is low and the places where urban-Muslim population is high, the percentage of Urban-Christian population is low.

In Chinchinim of Goa, Urban-Christian Population is 85.10 % of the total urban population of the town, but the urban-Muslim population is just 1.69 %. Similarly, In Khawhai of Mizoram the percentage of urban-Christian population is 99.54 % of the total urban-population of the town, whereas the urban-Muslim Population of Khawhai is just 0.29%. It is found that, In Awantipora of Jammu & Kashmir and Palawa of Jharkhand the urban –Muslim population is 85.04 % of the total Urban-populations of the towns taken separately. But, the Urban Christians in these towns represent only 0.45 % and 0.30 % of the total urban population of the towns respectively.

Kuzner in Jammu & Kashmir has urban-Muslim population that amounts to 99.84% of the total urban population of the town, but as we can see from the table that no urban-Christian population exists in this town. There are 10 towns in the table where no Urban-Christians

are residing and these towns have been found to have urban-Muslim population above 88.15 %.

The Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is calculated for the percentage of urban population of both Christian and Muslim population in the individual towns of the 5,161 towns. The Pearson Correlation is found to be (-.154) also indicates the presence of a negative correlation between the Urban-Christian and Urban-Muslim Population in India.

For certain reasons, not discussed and beyond the scope of the present study, it is very important to observe a very special phenomenon of Urban-Muslim and Urban-Christian co-habiting. The towns, where Urban-Christian population is high, the percentage of urban-Muslim population is low and similarly, where Urban-Muslim population is high, the percentage of urban-Christian population is low.

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Deconstructing Women's Position in the Environmental Discourse

Amrita Jaiswal

It is well known reality that women everywhere are the catalysts and initiators of environmental activism, however the policy-makers continue to ignore the centrality of women role and needs and in the whole discourse of environmentalism very little attention is paid to women contribution. Throughout the world, male-dominated cultures have negatively interpreted such intense and deep historical, cultural and physical links between women and nature. The suppression of women and of nature is historically and ideologically linked. Women though have a remarkable role in the environmental protection but still they live in culture of silence and negligence. Ecofeminism believed that there is close link between women and environment. Single responsible reason for the domination of both women and nature is patriarchy (father-rule). Henceforth the feminists and environmentalists share the same goal that is to abolish this oppressive conceptual framework. Nevertheless women voice is seldom being heard, in the global politics of the environment. Women are both victim and actors of environmental issues. Moreover, it is also important to take into consideration that women are not only vulnerable to environmental crises but are also effective actors or agent of change in relation to both mitigation and adaptation to climate change. These marginalized sections of the society are responsible for drawing sustenance for themselves and their families. At the same time the destruction of nature thus becomes the destruction of women's sources for 'Staying alive'.

The present paper will illustrate that the association of woman with environment and their suppression belong to same conceptual framework. Second part of the paper would reveal that how women act as a victim and also as an actor in the environmental discourse. Third part of the paper would examine whether and how there had

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been relation neglect of women experience and concern in the institutional arena of environmental governance. The paper further reveals that there is a crucial need for us to identify gender-sensitive strategies to respond to the environmental problem, and whole of environmental discourse really needs innovative conceptual work and practical intervention, in order to explore the right position of women in the environmental discourse.

Part I

It is well acknowledged and worldwide accepted reality that everywhere women are catalysts and initiators of environmental activism, but throughout the world male-dominated cultures have negatively interpreted such intense and deep historical, cultural and physical links between women and nature. Nevertheless, the suppression of women and of nature is historically and ideologically linked. Though women have a remarkable role in environmental protection but still women they live in culture of silence and negligence. Ecofeminism believed that there is the close link between women and environment. Single responsible reason for the domination of both women and nature is patriarchy (father-rule). And henceforth the feminists and environmentalists share the same goal that is to abolish this oppressive conceptual framework (Warren, 1990). Val Plumwood (1991), while criticizing rationalism to be the responsible reason for the oppression of both women and nature, he stress on the issue that rationalism perpetuate dualism leading to the inferiority and superiority of the two things. For example taking the stand of rationality, between reason and emotions, mind/body, human/nature and man/women, it is always the former which take precedence over the later; because rationalism always leads to dualism, making the distinctive ground for assessing superior and inferior thing (Plumwood,1991). Thus in order to end domination of nature by human and women by man, what is needed is to challenge Rationalism and ultimately this dualism which is fostered by this rationalist thought.

According to feminist theologian Rosemary Radford R Uether, being a critique of western dualistic philosophy he accentuated that such dichotomizing has created a strong hierarchal structure which is reflected in the policies and practices of social institutions, including the academy. It has resulted in a relationship where man is the object, the one who is defined, and women are the object, the one who is not defined. And it is due to this notion; women's own self-definition and perspectives are hardly ever heard or incorporated culturally. Women,

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henceforth being the vulnerable section of the society and like all oppressed people, live in a culture of silence, though they had immensely contributed in the field of environment. However, Ruether proclaimed, women nature and the liberation of society go together. And one of the basic important issue is to eliminate “pervasive dualism” (Engel, 1990) which always propels us to think that women is always defined in association with the male member in the society further alleviating the difference between the two.

Theologians Rosemary Ruether and Elizabeth Dobson Gray, they talked about patriarchal hierarchy, whereby they see the patriarchal belief system which justifies all these things as a hierarchy, a ‘Great chain of being with God or Allah at the top, next man, the steward of nature, than women, children, animal and finally plants and rocks at the base. A deep divide separates the categories of ‘man’ and ‘women’ and it is this same line which maintains the polarization of ‘reality’ into the ‘truly human’ and the ‘simply natural’.

Women are by their very nature close to nature and even qualitatively, women’s relationship with nature is organized around logic of reciprocity rather than mastery and control (Engel, 1990). As Mies 1986, puts it, women ‘are not owners of their own bodies or of the earth, but they cooperate with their bodies and with the earth in order to let grow and to make grow’. Ecofeminist Vandana Shiva argued violence against nature and against women as built into the very mode of perceiving both. She even argues that violence against nature is the result of colonial imposition, which insists us to adopt dominant industrial/developmental model. And with the adoption of this developmental model, Shiva proclaimed, that there was a radical conceptual shift away from the traditional Indian cosmological view of (animate and inanimate) nature as Prakriti, as “activity and diversity” and as “an expression of Shakti, the feminine and creative principle of the cosmos” which “in conjunction with the masculine principle (Purusha).....creates the world”. With this shift, the living, nurturing relationship between man and nature as earth mother was replaced by the notion of man as separate from and dominating over inert and passive nature. “Viewed from the perspective of nature, or women embedded in nature,” the shift was repressive and violent “For women.....the death of Prakriti is simultaneously a beginning of their marginalization, devaluation, displacement and ultimate dispensability. The ecological crisis is, at its root, the death of the feminine principle.....” (Shiva, 1988).

Shiva even argued on the point and noted that violence against women and nature are linked not just ideologically but also materially. She argued with an example that “Third world women are dependent on nature “for drawing sustenance for themselves, their families, their societies”. And therefore destruction of nature becomes the destruction of women’s source for “Staying Alive” (Agarwal, 1992). Shiva had an opportunity to work with women activists in the Chipko Movement which gave her an experience- the environmental movement for forest protection and regeneration in the Garhwal hills of northwest India- Shiva argues that ‘Third world women’ have also a special knowledge of nature (ibid). However, in the whole discourse of women and environment the idea that women they are seen as closer to nature was introduced by Sherry Ortner in the field of contemporary feminist discourse.

Part II

Woman as Victim and Actor in the Environmental Discourse

At several points related to the environmental deterioration, women are more vulnerable to this effect than man primarily as they constitute the majority of the world’s poor and are more dependent for their survival and livelihood on natural resources that are threatened by climate change. Basically women and men in rural areas particularly of developing countries are especially vulnerable when they are highly dependent on local natural resources for their livelihood. But at the same time, it is also important to take into account, that women are not only vulnerable to environmental cures but they are also effective actors or agents of change in relation to both mitigation and adaptation. Women often have a strong body of knowledge and expertise and therefore on the basis of their experience they may prove fruitful in climate change mitigation, disaster reduction and adaptation strategies. All over the developing world, women and girls bear the burden of fetching water from distant sources for their families, in that sense they are responsible for drawing sustenance for themselves and their families. At the same time the destruction of nature thus becomes the destruction of women’s sources of “staying alive’ (Agarwal, 1992).

Moreover, when environmental degradation forces them to search farther afield for resources, women and girls become more vulnerable to injuries from carrying heavy loads long distances and also face increased risk of sexual harassment.

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The destruction of the environment clearly poses the biggest threat to marginal cultures and occupations like that of tribals, nomads, fisherfolk and artisans, which have always been heavily dependent on their immediate environment for their survival. But the maximum impact of the destruction of biomass sources is on women. Women in all rural cultures are affected, especially women from poor landless, marginal and small farming families. Seen from the point of view of these women, it can be argued that all development is ignorant of women's needs, and often anti-women, literally designed to increase their work burden (Guha, 2002).

The migratory consequences of environmental factors result in higher death rates for women in least developed countries as a direct link to their socioeconomic status, to behavioural restrictions and poor access to information. It has been noted that women also have a systematically disadvantaged position in the labour market. As a consequence to this they have fewer employment opportunities, less occupational mobility, lower levels of training and lower payments for the same or similar work. The gender discrepancy is another one of the reasons responsible for the vulnerability of women, and this gender discrepancy has come to light in a range of major disasters, including the Asian Tsunami, Hurricane Mitch, Hurricane Katrina and other storms in the America, European heat waves, and Cyclones in South Asia etc. The vulnerability of women to disaster is increased particularly in the context of cyclones, floods and other disasters that require mobility, cultural constraints on women's movement may hinder their timely escape, access to shelter or access to health care. However it is crucial to identify gender sensitive strategies for responding to human security needs and environmental and humanitarian crises caused by climate change.

Women are not simply victims of environmental degradation but, as Shiva argue, 'Voices of liberation and transformation'. Women experience issues related to the management of natural resources. For some women can also make great contribution for sustainable development (Elliott, 1998). For some, the role that women have to play in sustainable development arises not just because of their experience but as a result of their very woman-ness. In this view women are, because of their reproductive and nurturing roles, close to nature than men. Indeed, on the basis of their experiential understanding and knowledge, they can provide a special perspective on the processes of environmental regeneration, one that needs to inform our view of alternative approaches to development (Agarwal, 1992).

Women had time and again played an important role and lead ecology movements in the Third world. The world acclaimed movements mobilized by women with the help of Wangari Maathai are probably the globally acclaimed Greenbelt Movement in Kenya, begun by the National council of women in 1977, and the Chipko movement which began in Northern India as a grassroots opposition to logging and forest destruction, in which Gaura Devi with several other women from the Reni village played very significant role in this effort. In India during the last few decades, there has been increasing resistance to ecological destruction, in which women have been active participants in most of these protests. They strongly raised their voice against environmental destruction in India weather caused by direct deforestation (which is resisted through non violent movements such as Chipko in the Himalayan foothills and Appiko in Karnataka) or by large irrigation and hydroelectric works, such as Narmada valley Project covering three regions in central India, the Koel-Karo in Bihar, the Silent Valley Project in Kerala (which was shelved through central government intervention and local protests in 1983), the Inchampalli and Bhopalpatnam dams in Andhra Pradesh (against which 5,000 tribal people, with women in the vanguard, protested in 1984), and the controversial Tehri dam in Garwal. In this above mentioned ecology movement women played a significant role with their immense contribution (Agarwal, 1992).

There were many other examples of women working together to protect and repair the environment. The examples here are drawn from women's environment and development projects which were presented as success stories at the partners in life conference in Miami in 1991. Women have worked to combat soil erosion in Ghana, to focus on pollution control on lake Maruit in Egypt and to oppose toxic waste dumping in the Bay of Bengal in Bangladesh (Eliott, 1998).

Part III

Where are the Women?

Since environment has become quite critical issue in the last four decades and international society have taken this concern with utmost importance. However in this entire discourse of environmentalism, there is little attention given to women's relationship with the environment. This section of my paper would try to examine the articulation of women's concern and views on environmental degradation, furthermore the present part of the paper would also examine whether and how there had been relation neglect of women

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experience and concern in the institutional arena of environmental governance.

Many instances rightly reveal that very often women's skill and expertise are undervalued. If we make cursory look, then we would find that at an international level, few of those making decisions on the environment are women. The absence of women is evident to the extent to which decision-makers ignore or simply do not think to consider the perspectives, views and needs of women. As has been discussed above, it would be right to say that women are catalysts and initiators of environmental activism. Yet policy-makers continue to ignore the centrality of women's roles and needs (Worldwide network, 1992). By this time it is clear that women are 'managers and conservers of natural resources' but international agencies and governments everywhere have ignored the vital part that women played in caring for the environment. 'Their voice, like their knowledge and experience is simply not heard' (Elliott, 1998).

In some parts of Africa for example, women produce 80% of the food and in India about 60% of the farmers are women. Jacobson put forward this idea that 'women are rarely involved in designing or caring out development programmes' (1992, p.8). She noted for example, that most agricultural extension workers in Africa are men even though most of the farmers are women, a pattern which is repeated in other parts of the world (1992, p.30) and that forestry management programmes rarely include women or consider women's experiences despite their 'prominent role as users and managers' of forest resources (1992, p.38). Henceforth, these programmes do not address women's needs and experience but are also, she suggests, likely failing for this very reason. Moreover, the important role women play in Third world agriculture must be seen as remarkable, given the serious constraints that they normally face (Brohman, 1996). Due to this 'countless programmes to reverse deforestation have failed because their planners did not think to construct village women who are the primary managers and harvesters of forest products in their communities (Jacobson, 1992). Therefore, the participation of women is essential, not only to benefit women but to incorporate vital experience and knowledge in the pursuit of sustainable development.

Ariel Salleh accentuated this idea that women could contribute to the discussions of environmental sustainability 'the truth of an ethic of care'. Yet their 'different voice' is seldom heard. Moreover, Hilka Pietila, 1990 also draws our attention towards the commission of women in world commission on Environment and Development. The paramount

thrust of the report of the world commission on environment and development, Our Common Future, is the concept of sustainable development. The report stresses that unless we make development in all countries ecologically sustainable, there will not be a future. One of crucial importance of this commission was that, it was led by women; two others of its twenty one members were women, one woman for every six men. In spite of having had women's participation in its formation, the report omits any discussion of the potential within women's culture to provide practical and philosophical guidelines for sustainable development. By doing this, it omits the energy, creativity and traditions of half of humanity at a time when we need to mobilize all available human resources to pave a new way towards sustainable common future. And nevertheless we should not ignore that it is women's experiences of environmental degradation and ecosystem management that have given them a particular knowledge and ensured that this knowledge and expertise is crucial to the pursuit of sustainable development.

Women's concerns about and views on environmental degradation, as well as their expertise all poorly represented in the institutional arena of environmental governance. Attention in official circles of the gendered nature of environmental degradation and environmental governance is a product of the late 1980's (Elliott, 1998). If we go back to Stockholm conference (first summit ever taken place on environmental protection); neither the impact of environmental degradation on women nor their role in environmental governance were articulated at the Stockholm conference, and indeed, the Stockholm agreement not only ignore women but are also highly gendered in their language. Within the UN system, UNEP has taken a lead in acknowledging and responding to the linkage between environmental degradation and women's lives. In 1986 UNEP established a committee of Senior Women Advisors on Sustainable Development (SWAGSD). Between 1989 and 1991, and prior to the UNEP- convened Global Assembly on women and the Environment (the partners in life conference) in November 1991, UNEP sponsored four regional assemblies on women and the environment as part of its programmatic response to the Forward Looking Strategies (FLS) which were adopted at the 1985 Nairobi Conference to review the UN Decade for women. While the FLS did note that 'environmental degradation is.....a contributing factor to deplorable conditions endured by many women' (UNICE/UNFPA 1991), nevertheless the link between women and

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environment had not been a major theme at the Nairobi Conference (Rodda, 1991, p.5).

The Brundtland Report, which was very comprehensive at the same time progressive in many ways with its emphasis on social justice as a fundamental theme of sustainable development, developed almost no time to women on gender concern at all. Gender issues were also given little attention in the early precomms for UNCED and the issue was only taken up after intense lobbying from women and after Filomina Chioma steady, from Sierra Leone, was appointed a special advisor on women in environment and development to the conference secretary-general. Even then, most of those doing the work of deciding at UNCED were men, or elite men to be more accurate. There were far fewer women than men on the delegations at UNCED. Of the heads of state or government attending the final two-day summit, only two were women- Gro Harlem Brundtland of Norway and President Finnbogadottin of Iceland.

However, besides the omission of the vital role of women in the way of environmental concern there had been certain provision of UN which proved the fact that women's contribution had not been totally ignored. Principle 20 of the Rio Declaration states that 'women have a vital role to play in environmental management and development. Their full participation is therefore essential to achieve sustainable development' (UNCED, 1992a). Agenda 21 devotes a full charter to the role of women, the rather awkwardly titled chapter 24, 'Global action for women towards sustainable development'. Chapter 24 says that effective implementation of a range of international programmes already in place for the 'full, equal and beneficial integration of women in development activities' will depend on the 'active involvement of women in economic and political decision-making and will be critical to the successful implementation of Agenda 21' (UNCED, 1992b, para 24). Together, principle 20 and chapter 24 give voice to a recognition that governance should be inclusive of women (the democratization argument) and that the participation of women in environmental governance and the pursuit of sustainable development are vital.

Therefore women contribution in many environmental movements is worth noting. Some impressive grassroots projects- the Chipko movement among Indian peasants to preserve forests and livestock deposits from 'formal' economy; the Greenbelt movement of Kenya Women, led by Wangari Maathai, which won an alternative Nobel prize;

and model farming by Acao Feminea Democratica Gauca in the Amazon- are internationally acclaimed. The Women's Action Agenda 21, a product of the 1991 World Women's Congress for a Healthy Planet, argued that 'Women are a powerful force for change' (WEDO, 1992, p. 16) and that 'by acting together, by organizing cooperatives and by managing credit and financing institutions, women can help change policy, protect the environment, improve their standards of living and challenge current economic analyses' (WEDO, 1992, P.15).

If we take a cursory glance then it would be very clear that until recent time women played a remarkably excellent role in the environmental protection debate but what is sadly lacking is that the due recognition given to the efforts women put towards achieving the above mentioned goal. Very often women's voice and concerns were silenced and neglected. Therefore need of the present era is to not only recognize women contribution in most of the environmental discourse rather this is an area which also needs creative conceptual work and practical interventions. Moreover environmental discourse would be of very little significance without incorporating the women's dimension into local, national and international environment and development decision-making. Indeed, women voices need to be heard by not only incorporating them and making their participation in a structure that has systematically marginalized them rather instead of just giving due attention to their full participation it would be something productive if adequate attention would be given to the underlying gender inequities and power relationships within those structures Therefore it is intuitive to give importance to gender inequity while acknowledging and addressing the women's concerns.

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Human Rights and Tribals: Indian Perspective

Vineeta Kumari

The human rights movement represents the historical journey travelled by human kind ever since the beginning of an institutionalized political and social order. The concept of human rights can be traced back to signing of Magna Carta in 1215. In 18th and 19th century, the concept of natural rights was proposed by several philosophers like John Locke, Thomas Paine & J.J.Rousseau. American Declaration of Independence (1776), French Declaration of Rights of man and citizen (1789) declared the natural and inalienable rights of man. Most significant breakthrough in this field was Declaration of human rights (10th Dec 1948). This declaration is regarded as fountain of justice, freedom and peace in the world¹.

The Universal Declaration is considered a benchmark as it sets the standards for achievement of human rights across the globe. The legal status of this declaration is embroiled in controversy. But, it is a great source of inspiration for many constitutions including Indian constitution .To enforce the legality of Declaration, two covenants were passed in 1966. India is signatory to both these covenants. In fact, Indian freedom struggle was a comprehensive movement which included anti-colonial movement as well as profound movement for liberty, equality and justice. In fact, Indian constitution reflects the aspirations of the above comprehensive movement in the form of fundamental rights and directive principles of state policy.

Fundamental rights and directive principle together present a broad vision for development in independent India. If this vision would have been implemented with the firm political commitment by the Indian state, there could have been a perfect condition for enjoyment of freedoms and justice. The quality of human rights would have been far higher. But, in practice the path of development was not paved keeping the constitutional vision of development in mind. The path chosen resulted in retarded development, giving rise to violent distortions in

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polity. The distortions are manifested not only in the widespread restlessness in society but also in the types of amendments that were made to the constitution of India over a period of time².

International Protection to the Rights of Indigenous People

Most of important rights of the indigenous people are not specifically framed, but they are part of more general treaties, like The Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Human Rights council and working group of the commission on Human rights has elaborated draft declaration regarding their rights.

Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People: This is the most comprehensive statement of the rights of indigenous people to date, establishing collective rights to a greater extent than any other document in International human rights law. It establishes the rights of the indigenous people, to the protection of their cultural property and identity as well as the right of education, employment, health, religion, language and more. It also protects the rights of the indigenous people to own land collectively. Although states are not legally bound by the declaration, it will exert considerable amount of moral force when adopted by General Assembly consisting of 46 Articles. The draft declaration is divided into 9 parts:³

Part 1.Fundaamental rights

Part 2.Life and Security

Part 3.Culture, Religion and language

Part 4.Education, Media and Employment

Part 5.Participation and Development0.

Part 6.Land and Resources

Part 7.Self government and Indigenous

Part 8.Implementation

Part 9.Minimum standard

Originally drafted in 1985, by the working Group on Indigenous People, The world's largest human rights forum, the draft Declaration was adopted by the United Nations Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights in 1994. This draft was submitted to the commission on Human Rights, Which established the working group on the draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous people.

After taking more than 20 years to draft, on June 29, 2006, the United Nations Human Rights Council adopted the UN Draft Declaration on the rights of Indigenous People. The Declaration emphasizes the rights to maintain and strengthen their own institutions, cultures and traditions and pursue their development in accordance with their aspirations and needs.

Tribals in India

India has the largest concentration of tribal people anywhere in the world except perhaps in Africa. The prominent tribal areas constitute approximately about 15 per cent of the total geographical area of the country. The main concentration of tribal people is the central tribal belt in the middle part of the India and in the north-eastern states. However, they have their presence in all states and union territories. There are nearly 533 tribes (with many overlapping types in more than one state) as per notified schedule under article 342 of the constitution of India, in different states and union territories of the country with the largest number of 62 being in the state of Orissa.

Adivasis, (*literally: original inhabitants*) is an umbrella term for a heterogeneous set of ethnic and tribal groups believed to be the aboriginal or indigenous population of India. They comprise a substantial indigenous minority of the population of India.⁴ Officially recognized by the Indian government as “scheduled Tribes” in the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution of India, they are often grouped together with Scheduled Castes in the category “Scheduled Castes and Tribes”.⁵ Although terms such as *atavika* (Sanskrit for forest dwellers), *vanvasi* or *giriyan* (hill people) are also used for the tribes of India. *Adivasi* carries the specific meaning of being original and autochthonous inhabitants in the 1930s.

The constitution of India, it may be noted, does not define the term “Scheduled Tribes”. Instead, Article 366(25) refers to Scheduled Tribes as those communities who are scheduled in accordance with Article 342 of the Constitution. According to Article 342 of the Constitution, the Scheduled Tribes are the tribes or tribal communities or; part of or groups within these tribes and tribal communities that have been declared as such by the President of India through a public notification⁶

The Constitution of India provides for a comprehensive framework for the socio-economic development of Scheduled Tribes and for preventing their exploitation by other groups of society. It provides

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the necessary safeguards for the rights of tribal peoples in Articles 15, 16, 17 and 23 of the Constitution. Article 46 of the “directive principles of the state policy” which are “fundamental in the governance of the country” states:

“The State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation.”

Further Article 330 of the Constitution of India makes reservation of seats for Scheduled Tribes in the House of people. Article 335 requires the government to consider the claims of Scheduled Tribes in appointments to services and posts in connections with the affairs of the Union or of a state.

In October 1999 a Ministry of Tribal Affairs was created by the government of India through the bifurcation of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment. The objective was to ensure more focused attention on integrated socio-economic development of the most under-privileged section of Indian society, the Scheduled Tribes in a Coordinated and planned manner. A number of welfare schemes have been created by the Ministry to advance the interests of tribal peoples⁷. Indeed, as Betteile observes, ‘India has one of the oldest and most extensive programmes of positive discrimination or affirmative action’⁸. Its experience has been unique and worthy perhaps of more extensive study.

Human Rights Violations against Indian Tribals

Human rights situation of the tribal peoples in India remain grim, its future bleak. Since independence tribal peoples were rightly seen as victims of development and encroachments by non-tribals. The pauperization of the tribals continued unabated and unchecked. The affirmative action programmes could not simply keep the pace with the marginalization of the tribal peoples.

a. Land Alienation

The constitutional safeguards as provided in the 5th Schedule and 6th Schedule to the Constitution of India and various other State level laws which among others prohibit transfer of the lands of the tribal people have failed to prevent widespread land alienation of the tribals.

The root cause of the land alienation has been the Land Acquisition Act of 1894 under which the government can exercise its sovereign power to take away any land in the name of “public purposes”.

On 12 November 2010, the Minister of State in the Ministry of Tribal Affairs informed the Lok- Sabha (Lower House of Parliament) that, as of July 2010, a total of 477,000 cases of tribal land alienation had been registered, covering 810,000 acres of lands, of which 378,000 cases covering 786,000 acres had been decided by the Court. Of these, 209,000 cases had been decided in favour of tribals, covering a total area of 406,000 acres. This means that 169,000 cases had been decided against the tribals⁹.

b. Development-induced Displacement

On 23 April 2010, the Minister of State in the Ministry of Tribal Affairs admitted in the Lok- Sabha that displacement of tribal communities from their traditional habitats had taken place on account of the acquisition of their lands by State Governments/Union Territory Administrations for various development projects. Ironically, the Ministry of Tribal Affairs did not maintain data on such displacements¹⁰. Not only does the state have no proper data on the displacement of tribals, it also remains indifferent towards the plights of the tribals, who have been denied rehabilitation and compensation following acquisition of their lands for development projects.

c. Repression under Forest Laws

Although the Scheduled Tribes and Other Traditional Forest Dwellers (Recognition of Forest Rights) Act 2006 came into force on 1 January 2009, lack of proper implementation has deprived tens of thousands of tribals of their rights over forest land. According to the Ministry of Tribal Affairs, more than 3.031 million claims have been filed, more than 1.106 million titles have been distributed and more than 32,000 titles were ready for distribution as of 31 December 2010. Yet the implementation record of most states remains very poor. Twelve States and Un-ion Territories have thus far not distributed any titles at all: Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Uttaranchal, Daman & Diu, and Dadra & Nagar Haveli. None of the states that have been implementing the Forest Rights Act has an impressive record. In terms of percentage of titles distributed over number of claims received, Tripura leads the pack with 66.89%, followed by Orissa (56.22%),

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Andhra Pradesh(50.80%), Rajasthan (49.84%), Chhattisgarh (43.73%), Kerala (39.42%), Maharashtra (30.84%), Assam (26.01%), Madhya Pradesh (26.75%), Jharkhand (20.57%), West Bengal (19.75%), Tamil Nadu (14.52%), Gujarat (13.41%), Uttar Pradesh (11.04%) and Karnataka (3.85%)¹¹.

d. Non-implementation of Reservation in Employment

The Scheduled Tribes (STs) are legally entitled to 7.5% reservation in all government jobs. The lack of “suitable” candidates amongst the STs has often, however, been cited as the main reason for not filling the reserved vacancies in India. There were thousands of backlog vacancies for the Scheduled Tribes across the country. For example, according to figures available with the Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment in September 2010, the share of Scheduled Tribes in the government services such as Group ‘A’ was 4.1 per cent, Group ‘B’ at 4.6 per cent, Group ‘C’ at 6.7 per cent and Group ‘D’ at 6.7 per cent against the reserved quota of 7.5 per cent in each group¹².

e. Non-utilization and Mis-utilization of Tribal Funds

The funds meant for development of the tribals are grossly under-utilized or mis-utilized in India. In its report on the Ministry of Tribal Affairs, the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Social Justice and Empowerment found that, during 2009-10, the Ministry of Tribal Affairs had been forced to withhold funds for crucial schemes, including the Special Central Assistance to Tribal Sub Plan, Grants under Article 275(i) of the Constitution, the Scheme of Development of Particularly Vulnerable Tribal Group etc. from various state governments due to their failure to submit utilization certificates for funds from previous years. Since the Ministry of Tribal Affairs depends on states to execute various planned schemes for the development of tribal welfare, delay, non-submission or incomplete proposals from states are a major cause of the under-utilization of funds. The Committee was informed by the Ministry of Tribal Affairs that if state governments were not performing, the Ministry had no power to press beyond a point. The budgetary allocation of 32.055 billion Rupees (US\$703,269 million) for 2009-10 has been drastically reduced to 2 billion Rupees (US\$43,879 million) in the revised estimates of the Ministry of Finance, taking into account the utilization of funds by the Ministry up until the third quarter of the financial year¹³.

f. Armed Repression

Presently, 21 out of 28 States of India are afflicted by internal armed conflicts. All the areas afflicted by internal armed conflicts, except Jammu and Kashmir are inhabited by indigenous and tribal peoples, and they have been the worst victims of human rights violations at the hands of the State and non-State actors. The armed opposition groups have also been responsible for gross violations of international humanitarian laws including by killing, torture, extortion, trial in Jana Adalats, Peoples' Court and destruction of economic infrastructure and public properties.

Impunity has been provided to the armed forces under the Armed Forces Special Powers Act of 1958, which is in force in some of the Northeastern states and Jammu and Kashmir. The AFSPA gives the armed forces the license to arrest and kill any body. Under Section 6 of the AFSPA, the members of the armed forces cannot be prosecuted except by the permission from the Central government. The guidelines of the Supreme in the DK Basu Vs State of West Bengal (popularly known as DK Basu judgement) of 1996, relating to the procedures to be followed by the police at the time of arrest and detention, are not applicable to the armed forces.

Conclusion

Above mentioned factors combined together have contributed and accelerated the gross human rights violation of the poor and the helpless tribals of India. In the name of development, atrocities are inflicted on tribals. Their rights to life and dignity are grossly violated. But, what has been redeeming factor is the role of Indian Judiciary in this matter. The Supreme Court observed¹⁴:

“Agriculture is the only source of livelihood for scheduled tribes, apart from collection and sale of minor forest produce to supplement their income. Land is their most important natural and valuable asset and imperishable endowment from which the tribals derive their sustenance social status, economic and social equality and permanent place of abode and work and living. It is a security and source of economic empowerment. Therefore, the tribes too have great emotional attachment

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of their lands. The land, on which they live and till, assures them equality of status and dignity of person and means to economic and social justice and is a potent weapon of economic empowerment in a social democracy.”

The Supreme Court further observed :

“The Fifth and Sixth schedules constitute an integral scheme of the constitution with direction, philosophy and anxiety to protect the tribals from exploitation and to preserve natural endowment of their land for their economic empowerment to cognate social and economic democracy with liberty, equality, fraternity and dignity of their person in our political Bharat.”

The court again emphasized:

“Since the Executive is enjoined to protect social, economic and educational interests of the tribals and when the state leases out the lands in the scheduled areas to non-tribals for exploitation of mineral resources, it transmits the correlative constitutional duties and obligation to those who undertake exploitation of the natural resources, that they should also improve social, economic and educational empowerment of the tribals.”

Two of India's Supreme Court judges have passed ground breaking judgment on 21 Jan 2011 recognizing India's tribal people as the nation's 'original inhabitants' and strongly condemning their 'historic injustice'. Judges Gyan Sudha Misra and Markandey Katju were hearing an appeal case regarding the stripping, beating and parading naked of a Bhil tribal woman for having had a relationship with a man of 'higher' caste. The judges proclaimed that the sentences given to the men involved were too lenient and that the crime was 'shameful, shocking and outrageous' and 'totally unacceptable in modern India.' The judges praised the tribes of India who 'have managed to preserve many of their tribal customs despite many oppressions and atrocities from other communities'. They recognized explicitly that the country's tribal people, or adivasis, are 'descendants of the original inhabitants of India', unlike the remaining 92% of the population who are 'descendants of immigrants'. The official Indian government position has been that all

its citizens are 'indigenous' not just the adivasis. The Bhil woman's case was examined in the context of 'thousands of years' of 'terrible oppression and atrocities' towards the country's adivasi people. The judges blamed the ill-treatment of adivasis on the commonly held view of tribal people as 'inferior'. 'The mentality of our countrymen towards these tribals must change, and they must be given the respect they deserve as the original inhabitants of India. ... The injustice done to the tribal people of India is a shameful chapter in our country's history. ... They were slaughtered in large numbers, and the survivors and their descendants were degraded, humiliated, and all kinds of atrocities inflicted on them for centuries. They were deprived of their lands, and pushed into forests and hills where they eke out a miserable existence of poverty, illiteracy, disease.' The judges warned that the injustice suffered by the adivasis is not yet a thing of the past and that 'now efforts are being made by some people to deprive them even of their forest and hill land where they are living, and the forest produce on which they survive.' The impacts of being removed from their land can be devastating for tribal communities¹⁵.

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Studies on Socio-economic Status of Scheduled Castes School Going Boys and Girls in and around Gaya of Bihar State

Kumari Soni* and Suprita Suman**

Introduction

Socio economic status and environment condition has great impact on the population. Though, adequate studies has been carried out on the status of school going boys and girls in general but very little for schedule caste children going to school who suffers a lot due to their poor socio-economic status. It is evident that surrounding environment, social status, educational status, facilities for health, social work and assistance provided by Government has direct bearing on over all status of scheduled castes parent and their children going to school.

In Bihar 23% population is of schedule cat. Among all the district of Bihar, Gaya District has highest scheduled castes population i.e. 34% (GOI, NSSO 2009-10) Gaya District is also under the preview of extremist activities. Thus this study is of prime importance in present context which may check the inflow of young generation for going towards nuxalism. Adolescent children are the future of nation. They are base for national resource personal. Out of 23.05% schedule cast population male is 22.93% and female 21.96. The total illiteracy among schedule cast is 31% but in rural female it is 58.10%. The registration for school going boys (34.37%) and girls (24.52%) but as the age of the student increases the drop out percentage from school increases. Thus it is the need of the time that the study among scheduled castes children shout be taken with this view the studies were take with following objectives :-

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- 1) Study on schedule cast boys and girls in age group of 13 to 16 years going to school.
- 2) Status of parents qualification a relation to their boys and girls going to school.

Methods

To undertake the study two hundred students from different primary / secondary schools of in and around Gaya was taken. While conducting study who so ever were available in these category of castes were taken under study. The following parameters were taken under study.

- a) Children of various age group going to schools between 13 to 16 years of age were studied.
- b) The children in private and government school taken were equal in numbers.
- c) The study of parents of schedule cast boys and girls were taken through questainers.
- d) Two private and two government schools were taken for studies.

Two private and two government schools out of four selected for each group were taken up:-

Private School

- 1) Primary school, Gaya
- 2) Urdu girl's School, Gaya
- 3) Gaya High School, Gaya
- 4) Tea Modal School, Gaya

Government Schools

- 1) Girl's Primary School, Gaya
- 2) Primary School, Swarajpuri Road, Near Station, Gaya
- 3) Primary school Chandrawati, Gaya
- 4) Zila School, Gaya

The schedule caste students taken from Private and government school has been indicated in table 1

Table 1

Classes	Private school		Government school		Total boys and girls		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
8 th (in no)	30	30	30	30	60	60	120
%	30	30	30	30	50	50	100
9 th (in no)	35	35	35	35	70	70	140
%	35	35	35	35	50	50	100
10 th (in no)	35	35	35	35	70	70	140
%	35	35	35	35	50	50	100
Total	100	100	100	100	200	200	400
%	25	25	25	25	50	50	100

Studies were conducted among 8th, 9th & 10th class students.

Results

Normally after 13 years and before 16 years the boys are girls goes under maximum changes and they becomes sensible to reply the questions placed before them. The boys and girls taken for study were half and half (Table-1). Table 2 indicate that the boys and girls going to private school as compared to government school were significantly ($P<0.05$) higher. As the age advances, the number of boys and girls going to school significantly ($P<0.05$) increased upto the age of 16 years in private and government school. The number of girls going to government school were less as compared to boys where as in private school the 13 years aged boys going to private school were significantly ($P<0.05$) higher as compared to girls. At the age of 14 and 16 years the girls going to school were significantly ($P<0.05$) higher than boys in private school. It indicate that the government school going children decrease significantly ($P<0.05$) as the age advances but in private school the number of boys and girls student increased with increase of age.

Table -2

	<i>Private school</i>		<i>Govt. school</i>		<i>Mean</i>	
	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
Age of 13 Years (%)	23	13	35	14	29	13.5
Age of 14 Years (%)	25	38	41	33.2	33	35.6
Age of 15 Years (%)	43	38	17	28	30	33
Age of 16 Years (%)	65	35	7	7	36	21
Mean	39	31	25	20.6		
CD					78.54	28.20
CV					77.13	34.38
SEm					17.45	6.26

Table -3 indicate that uneducated parents are not at all particular for sending their children to school and do not care for their children study, whereas literate parents sends their children's under any adverse situation. As the parent education increases from uneducated to nonmatric, matric, graduation and above graduation, the level of their children being send to private and government school significantly ($P<0.05$) increases Girls being Send to school were significantly ($P<0.05$) higher as compared to boys. But in case of above graduation level parents the boys going to school were significantly ($P<0.05$) higher in number as compared to girls. The single family parents could send their children (either boys or girls) significantly ($P<0.05$) more as compared to Joint family. Above graduation parent could send their children more in number to private schools as compared government schools.

Table 3

	<i>Private school</i>		<i>Govt. school</i>		<i>Mean</i>	
	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>	<i>Girls</i>
Uneducated (%)	1	2	1	7.80	1	4.90
Below Matriculation (%)	10	18	8	21.10	9	19.55
Above Matriculation (%)	6	22	44	60.5	25	41.25
Above Graduation (%)	84	60	47	10.5	65.50	35.25
Single Family (%)	68	65	42.20	40	55.10	52.50
Joint Family (%)	32	35	57.80	60	44.9	47.50
Mean	33.50	33.70	33.30	33.30		
CD					52.36	58.77
CV					60.95	68.25
SEm					14.40	16.16

Discussion

It indicate that that boys and girls of scheduled castes prefer more for going to private school as compared to government school. This indicate that the present status of government school in Gaya in average. As the age of boys and girls advances, the preference of boys and girls significantly ($P < 0.05$) increases for private school. But due to financial condition of their parent they are send to government school or dropped out after the age of 16 years in both type of school. The drop out in schedule caste students at primary school 30.09%, elementary 52.47% and secondary school 68.42% has been recorded (GOI, Ministry of Human Resources Development, Selected Education Statistics, 2007-2008).

The uneducated schedule caste parents do not care for sending their children to either private or government school. As the education among schedule caste parents increased the number of boys and girls being send to school increased. Though the desire for sending their children to private school is more but the economic status became the baricater, not to send their children to government school. This condition is under the support of data given as follows, the poverty level in scheduled castes in rural area is 43.5% and under Urban 33.0% (GOI, Planning commission 2007-2012, Vol. 1, Indusive growth and NSSO Primary Data 2009-2010).

Conclusion

Motivation among schedule caste parents and their children be made either by governmental or private agencies to accelerate their interest in send children to school there by inhancing their Socio-economic status. The level and facilities in government school be improved to

make them at par with the private schools. Motivation be made among poor schedule caste people to send their children to school. In Bihar the illiteracy percentage among scheduled castes rural and urban area is 58.1% and 31% respectively (GOI, NSSO, Primary Data 2007-10). With change in scenario the level of literacy has gone up from 1961 (5.9%) to 58.5% among schedule caste in Bihar (Economic Survey Govt. of Bihar. 2012). Thus the education is the base which can change the socio-economic status of parents as well as children of scheduled castes. It also indicate that education is the only way by which the extremist activities among children in and around Gaya district may be brought to an end. By this way the peace in Gaya as well as in Bihar may be maintained.

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- Note – Paper being submitted from Ph.D. Thesis of Kumari Soni

Demographic and Socio-economic Correlates of Morbidity of under Five Children in Two Selected Districts of Uttar Pradesh

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Abstracts

Research question: What is the morbidity pattern among under 5 children in the districts of Ballia and Ghaziabad what their socio-demographic co-relates are? Objective: To study the morbidity pattern among of under 5 children in the districts of Ballia and Ghaziabad and to find out various socio-demographic correlates associated with morbidity. Study Design: Descriptive cross sectional study. Setting: Eight villages of Ballia and Eight villages of Ghaziabad. Participants: Mothers in the age group 15-45 years with minimum one or two living children. Conclusion: The study reveals that high incidence of infant/child morbidity has been found among the younger aged mothers. Infant/child morbidity is high among the mothers who conceived children before 21 years of age. Morbidity of children has been increasing with the increase in the number of surviving/live births. In Ghaziabad, type of house has been found to be an important determinant in influencing the incidence of infant/child morbidity. Illiterate mothers had high incidence of infant/child morbidity, when compared to educated mothers. Children, in joint and extended families, had higher morbidity than children belonging to nuclear families.

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Further, children born to mothers who had blood related marriages, seems to have more morbidity and also children belonging to SC/ST seems to have high morbidity. Mothers, who came from high socio-economic status, had less incidence of infant/child morbidity.

Key Words: Morbidity; Under 5 Children; Socio-economic determinants, infant/child

Introduction

Morbidity is an important area in research studies. The study of morbidity patterns of an area given a clear understanding about the health situation in that area. The pattern of mortality and morbidity varies from region to region in the country. Under five children, not only constitute a large group but they are also vulnerable or high risk group. The risk is connected with growth, development and survival. First five years are full of health hazards. Since they are high risk group, under five children are exposed to many factors leading to diseases in children. Two major infective illnesses in children are respiratory tract infection and diarrhoea. Skin infections like scabies, boils, furuncles and impetigo are fairly common in children as 30 per cent of all out patients visit to a paediatrician consist of dermatological cases. Intestinal helminthic infestation is one of the multiple etiologies of malnutrition and of the helminths; ascariasis is associated with growth of preschool children. Eye diseases, mainly conjunctivitis are also noticed frequently in children. The assessment of health status of under five children reflects the health condition of a nation. It also helps in for planning, interventions, follow up and evaluation of health services, provided to these children. Recently, the public health specialists have been giving growing attention to the bio-social determinants of health. The social determinants of the health are the conditions in which people live, grow, work and age, including health care delivery system prevailing in the society (Raphael, 2008) and also biological factors.

Mortality and Morbidity of infants and children have assumed greater importance in EAG states. Continuous exposure to malnutrition and infectious disease and poor socio-economic status increases the risk of infant & child morbidity. Hence mortality and morbidity of infants and children are a worthwhile study, in view of the various difficulties faced by the couples. The investments incurred by the parents both financially and psychologically go waste due to prolonged illness of infants and children. This study aims at the investigation of determinants of infant & child morbidity and mortality, in two different

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situations. Keeping in view the above facts, this study was carried out to identify the determinants of morbidity in the district where level of development of is low and the better developed district. The present study is planned accordingly in two different selected district of Uttar Pradesh.

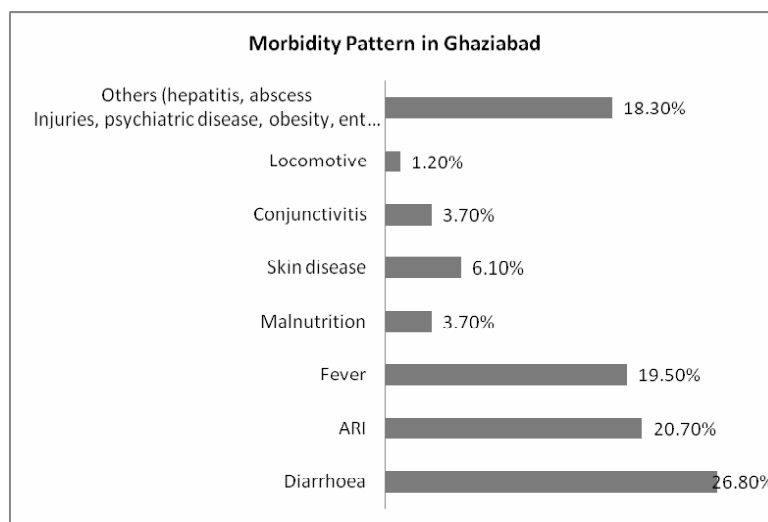
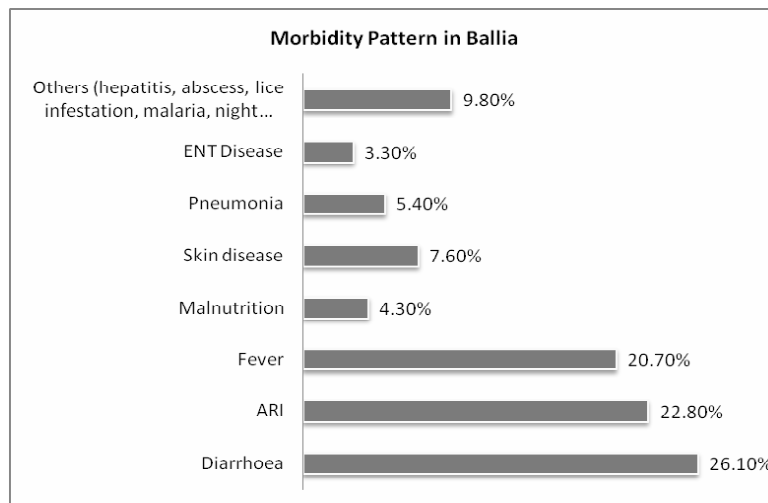
Aims & Objectives

1. To study the morbidity pattern among under-5 children in rural areas of Ballia and Ghaziabad.
2. To identify various socio-demographic and demographic correlates associated with morbidity in the two districts.

Material and Methods: The State Planning Department, Government of Uttar Pradesh in its Annual Plan has describes the Level of development of districts in the State is identified on the basis of 36 indicators which includes agriculture and allied activities, industry, economic infrastructure, social infrastructure, etc. Planning department further categorized the district of Uttar Pradesh into five categories based on Composite Index of Development (CID). Out of which two districts has been randomly selected namely Ballia and the other Ghaziabad district from each extreme categories e.g. Districts having Very Low Composite Index Of Development (CID Below 75.00) and Districts Having Very High Composite Index Of Development (CID 125 .00 And Above). The present study was conducted in eight villages of two Primary Health Centre area of Ballia and eight villages of two Primary Health Centre area of Ghaziabad (total 16 villages). Based on review literature common disease were listed and questionnaire were designed based on sign and symptoms of the selective diseases to come out on conclusion about the specific diseases. For this purpose semi-structured and pre-tested interview schedule was used for the Mothers in age group of 15-45 years with minimum one or two living children. Interview of 20 mothers in age group of 15-45 years with minimum one or two living children from each selected village was conducted. Hence total 320 mothers in age group of 15-45 years with minimum one or two living children were interviewed.

Results and Discussion: Socio-economic and demographic variables are believed to have a decisive influence on morbidity of the people belonging to different settings. Socio-economic status showed an inverse relationship with morbidity. The findings of the study by Rahul Prakash, et al (2004) seems to suggest that, although both medical and non-medical factors contributed to the change in morbidity

pattern, the role of the factors of socio-economic nature also were found to be significant. The implication has been, without socio-economic epidemiology, biomedical epidemiology could make a limited contribution to the reduction of morbidity. There exists an inverse relationship between the infant mortality and socio-economic development (Mazen Abuqamar et al 2011, Sohler et al. 2003; Mansfield et al. 1999; Szwarcwald et al. 2002; Villanueva & Garcia 2000; Bennett 1999; Stainstreet et al. 1999). The morbidity pattern in Ballia and Ghaziabad of Uttar Pradesh is shown below in chart:



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Table 1: Percentage distribution of age of respondents, age at first conceptions, surviving children and family size in relation to infant/ child morbidity for Ballia and Ghaziabad districts of Uttar Pradesh:

Mothers age (in years)	Ballia		Ghaziabad		Total	
	MP	Total	MP	Total	MP	Total
Less than 20	62.5(20)	100(32)	61.29(19)	100(31)	61.90(39)	100(63)
21-24	53.84(28)	100(52)	48.39(30)	100(62)	50.88(58)	100(114)
25-29	55.36(31)	100(56)	48.94(23)	100(47)	52.43(54)	100(103)
30 +	65.00(13)	100(20)	50.00(10)	100(20)	57.5(23)	100(40)
Age at first conception (in years)						
Less than 17	57.47(50)	100(87)	45.36(44)	100(97)	51.09(94)	100(184)
18-21	59.62(31)	100(52)	68.75(33)	100(48)	64.00(64)	100(100)
22-24	52.94(9)	100(17)	40.00(4)	100(10)	48.15(13)	100(27)
25 +	50.00(2)	100(4)	20.00(1)	100(5)	33.33(3)	100(9)
Surviving Children						
1	55.17(32)	100(58)	46.67(21)	100(45)	51.46(53)	100(103)
2	57.41(31)	100(54)	49.23(32)	100(65)	52.94(63)	100(119)
3 +	60.42(29)	100(48)	58.00(29)	100(50)	59.18(58)	100(98)
Family Size						
Less than 3	51.61(16)	100(31)	46.43(13)	100(28)	49.15(29)	100(59)
4-5	56.10(46)	100(82)	52.87(46)	100(87)	54.44(92)	100(169)
6 +	63.83(30)	100(47)	51.11(23)	100(45)	57.61(53)	100(92)
Total	57.50(92)	100(160)	51.25(82)	100(160)	54.37(174)	100(320)

Note: 1. MP = Morbidity Present. 2. Figures in the parenthesis denotes no. of respondent

Correlation co-efficient Mother's age: Ballia = 0.038; Ghaziabad = -0.013

Correlation Co-efficient of Surviving Children:

Ballia: 0.048; Ghaziabad: 0.08; Mother's age below 25 years: 0.121; Mother's age above 25 years: 0.064

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Ballia: 0.048; Ghaziabad: 0.08; Mother's age below 25 years: 0.121; Mother's age above 25 years: 0.064

Correlation Co-efficient family size:

Ballia: 0.064; Ghaziabad: 0.090; Mother's age below 25 years: 0.074; Mother's age above 25 years: 0.121

The Demographic and socio-economic variables examined in this paper are: Mother's age, age at first conception, number of surviving children, family size, type of house, ventilation, caste, education of the mother, occupation of the father, type of family, type of relationship before marriage, annual income of the family, and socio-economic status index.

Mother's Age

In the sample population, most mothers belong to 21-29 years age group. Mothers below 20 years constituted one-fifth of the total mothers (21.25 percent in Ballia; 19.37 percent in Ghaziabad) in both the regions. Nearly one-third each, of mothers, belong to 21-24 years (35.31 percent) and 25-29 years (31.88 percent). While more than one-third, of mothers (34.38 percent), belong to Ballia, slightly less than one-third (29.38 percent), of mothers, belong to Ghaziabad. The mean age of mothers in Ballia is 25.01 years and in Ghaziabad 25.07 years, and for total sample 25.04 years. The correlation between mother's age and the incidence of under five child morbidity has shown high incidence of under five child morbidity among the mothers of younger age groups (less than or equal to 20 years). Morbidity is coming down at 21-24 years (50.88 percent) and again a rise in morbidity has notice with increase in age of the mothers (25-29 years : 52.43 percent; 30+ years: 57.5 percent).

In Ghaziabad, slightly lesser incidence of under five child morbidity has been noticed (61.29 percent) among the mothers of under the age of 20 years when compared with the mothers in the age group in Ballia (62.5 percent). Mothers in the same age group of 21-25 years and 26-29 years in Ghaziabad have less incidence of morbidity 48.39 percent; 48.94 percent than mothers in the same age group in Ballia, 53.84 percent; 55.36 percent). Again, the incidence of morbidity has been found to increase with the age of mothers (Ballia 65.00 percent; Ghaziabas 50.00 percent in 30 + yyears). High incidence of morbidity among younger mothers may be due to lack of experience of child

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rearing practices, illiteracy and dependence on elders. Increased morbidity among older mothers may be due to lack of time for feeding and care of children due to large families heavy household chores and so on. Sometimes older children may help younger children out of affection. But, due to unhygienic practices of elder children, younger children may contract some infections and communicable diseases.

Age at Marriage and First Conception

Mother's age at marriage and first conception definitely have some influence on the incidence of infant/child morbidity. As the mother's age at marriage and first conception increases the incidence of under five child morbidity usually decreases. Mean age at marriage and first conception in Ballia has been 17.47 years and 19.79 years. Mean age at marriage and first conception in Ghaziabad sample is 16.84 years and 19.01 years, and for total sample 17.15 years and 19.40 years respectively. Thus difference of 2 years has been noticed from age at marriage to age at first conception.

In the sample population, more than 60 percent of mothers had their first conception before 21 years of age. The remaining forty percent of the mothers had their first conception after 21 years. Mother's age at first conception is highly concentrated between 18-24 years 93.75 percent in Ballia and 91.88 percent in Ghaziabad.

When the mother's age at first birth is 18-21 years, the infant/child morbidity has been slightly high among the mothers in Ghaziabad (68.75 percent) than the mothers of Ballia (59.62 percent). However, with the mother's age at first birth around 22-24 years, the incidence of the infant/child morbidity has been higher in Ballia (52.94 percent), than that of the mothers of Ghaziabad (40.00 percent). Morbidity of children has declined among mothers of 25 years age group. This shows that age at first conception has profound effect on child morbidity. Women who conceive at later years will have better chances for learning several issues.

Surviving Children

Reduction of the incidence of under five child morbidity depends on the fertility level of the couples. As the level of fertility increases the incidence of infant/child morbidity may also increase. All children born to mothers may not survive. Because of this opinion, parents wanted to go for additional number of children. As the number of children

increases, the mother's health deteriorates due to insufficient food intakes. Mothers, with one surviving child, are more in Ballia (36.25 percent) as compared to mothers in Ghaziabad (28.13 percent). Nearly forty percent of mothers in Ghaziabad and 33 percent of mothers in Ballia had two surviving children. One-fifth of mothers in both the study areas had three surviving children. Mean live birth among Ballia mothers is 2.33, and in Ghaziabad, it is 2.46. Mean surviving children among Ballia mothers has been 2.09 and Ghaziabad 2.21, while for the total sample, it is 2.15, and mean live births is 2.39.

When the inter relationship between surviving children and the under five child morbidity is studied, less incidence of infant/child morbidity has been noticed among the mothers with one surviving child (51.46 percent), when compared to mothers with two surviving children (52.94 percent) and those mothers with more than three surviving children (59.18 percent). The reasons may be, inability to provide good health care facilities, negligence of mothers in taking care of all children and poor health condition of the mothers.

Household Size

Household size includes, children born to the respondents and other members of the household. Household size has significant affect on the morbidity status of children. Considering the total sample, households with four members are high (29.69 percent).

In Ghaziabad, large households, with more than 6 members (large family) had high incidence of infant/child morbidity (51.25 percent) followed by households with four to five members (middle) (52.87 percent), and less incidence has been found among small families with less than three members (small) whereas in Ballia, small and middle households have incidence of infant/child morbidity 51.61 percent and 56.10 percent respectively, large families have greater (63.83 percent) under five child morbidity. Thus, morbidity of children has increased with the increase in number of members in the house. However, higher morbidity has been noticed uniformly with all household size in Ballia in comparison with Ghaziabad.

Type of House

Houses are divided into huts, semi-pucca and pucca types. The type of house is negatively associated with the incidence of infant/child morbidity. Several studies have supported this statement. The presence

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of asthma is found to be associated with housing type and overcrowding (Kaplan and Tylor).

Table 2: Percentage distribution of type of house, house ventilation Caste, educational status of mothers and occupation of father in relation to infant/child morbidity for Ballia and Ghaziabad districts of Uttar Pradesh:

Type of House	Ballia		Ghaziabad		Total	
	MP	Total	MP	Total	MP	Total
Hut	55.81(48)	100(86)	55.14(59)	100(107)	55.44(107)	100(193)
Kutchha	63.16(12)	100(19)	50.00(4)	100(8)	59.26(16)	100(27)
Pucca	58.18(32)	100(55)	42.22(19)	100(45)	51.00(51)	100(100)
House Ventilation						
Poor	60.47(52)	100(86)	57.69(45)	100(78)	59.15(97)	100(164)
Moderate	56.86(29)	100(51)	46.94(23)	100(49)	52.00(52)	100(100)
Good	47.83(11)	100(23)	42.42(14)	100(33)	44.64(25)	100(56)
Caste						
SC/ST	60.87(28)	100(46)	57.75(41)	100(71)	58.97(69)	100(117)
Others	56.14(64)	100(114)	46.07(41)	100(89)	51.72(105)	100(203)
Educational status of Mothers						
Illiterate	60.87(28)	100(46)	56.60(30)	100(53)	58.59(58)	100(99)
Primary	56.90(33)	100(58)	56.36(31)	100(55)	56.64(64)	100(113)
Secondary and above	55.36(31)	100(56)	40.38(21)	100(52)	48.15(52)	100(108)
Occupations						
Agricultural or non-agricultural labourers	57.81(37)	100(64)	56.41(44)	100(78)	57.04(81)	100(142)
Farmer	59.18(29)	100(49)	48.48(16)	100(33)	53.66(44)	100(82)
Business & Traditional occupation	64.00(16)	100(25)	44.12(15)	100(34)	52.54(31)	100(59)
Employees	45.45(10)	100(22)	46.47(7)	100(15)	45.95(17)	100(37)
Total	57.5(92)	100(160)	51.25(82)	100(160)	54.38(174)	100(320)

McMichael et al 2003, adequate quality of housing, lack of environmental sanitation and possibly low levels of immunity would affect morbidity to a great extent. In general, social scientists categorized houses into three: (1) Huts (2) Semi-Pucca houses, and (3) Pucca houses. Here also, the same pattern is followed. Most people in rural areas live in huts because of their poverty. In the selected areas

of Ballia and Ghaziabad, more than half (60.62 percent) the mothers live in huts, more than a quarter (34.38 percent) live in Pucca houses and a negligible percent of mothers (5 percent) live in semi-pucca houses. The proportion of semi-pucca houses are found to very less in Ballia and Ghaziabad. In constructing pucca houses, a slight variation can be observed between Ballia and Ghaziabad. The percentage distribution of Pucca houses are been very high in Ghaziabad (40.62 percent), as compared to Ballia district (25.12 percent). Though Ballia has been agriculturally well developed, people did not show much interest in constructing pucca houses due to economic reasons. Due to small size huts in Ballia (67.5 percent), people stored their agricultural products in separate granaries. This system is not found in Ghaziabad district.

When the incidence of infant/child morbidity is correlated with type of house, very little difference in infant/child morbidity (55.44 percent) has been observed among the mothers who live in huts and the mothers who live in pucca houses (51.00 percent). A clear difference in morbidity pattern between different areas has been noticed. In Ballia, mothers who live in huts and pucca houses had equal (55.81 percent huts: 58.18 percent Pucca houses) incidence of infant/child morbidity. However, in Ghaziabad, high incidence of morbidity of infant/child among mothers (55.14 percent) who live in huts was noticed compared to the mothers who live in pucca houses (42.22 percent). In Ghaziabad, the type of house has been found to be an important determinant in influencing the incidence of under five child morbidity. Further, house ventilation in relation to morbidity has been discussed in the following section.

House Ventilation

House ventilation has been one of the most important determinants in explaining under five child morbidity. Poor ventilation has been responsible for many respiratory infections, mainly pneumonia, Bronchitis, and Broncho-pneumonia (McMichael et al 2003). Though the disease agent is a biological one, spread of the diseases will be affected by availability of ventilation in houses. Ventilation is one such social factor which promotes the disease agent, and indirectly operates in increasing the morbidity of the under five children. The present study reveals, a good association between house ventilation and the morbidity of the under five children.

In general, poor ventilation has been found in the two districts with slight variation, (Ballia: 53.75 percent; Ghaziabad: 48.12 percent).

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Moderate ventilation has also been found uniform in both the districts (Ballia: 31.88 percent; Ghaziabad: 30.63 percent). Houses in Ghaziabad (21.25 percent) have better ventilation than Ballia (14.37 percent).

An indirect association has been observed between house ventilation and the incidence of infant/child morbidity. As the house ventilation improves from poor to good, the incidence of morbidity has also declined from more than half (59.15 percent) to less than half (44.64 percent).

In Ballia, the under five child morbidity has been found to be high among mothers dwelling in poorly ventilated houses (60.47 percent) and moderate ventilation (56.86 percent) compared to less than half (47.83 percent) among the mothers who live in good ventilated houses. However, in Ghaziabad, morbidity decreases rapidly as the ventilation of the houses improved. This shows houses ventilation has been an important determinant of infant/child morbidity. A flood affected area, like Ballia, had a high incidence of under five child morbidity compared to the well developed area of Ghaziabad. This may be due to poor house ventilation in Ballia, compared to the houses in Ghaziabad, where sufficient ventilation and fresh air circulation due to the fact that houses are having space between them in the villages but in Ballia, houses have been constructed in close proximity with no space between the houses in the villages. As a result, no fresh air and light can enter their houses.

Caste

The present sample consists of SC/ST and Others caste respondents. Less than half the proportion (43.75 percent) of schedule caste population has been taken from Ghaziabad compared to Ballia, due to better socio economic conditions. The others population, considered in the sample, has many caste and religions, both forward and backward including both Hindu and Muslims. Many among the backward caste population have better standards of living; in comparison with forward cast population. Thus, nearly two-thirds (71.25 percent) of population considered in Ballia has been others caste population, against around half of others caste population (56.25 percent) in Ghaziabad. When incidence of morbidity in under five year children was considered, the SC/ST populations of both the regions, namely, Ballia and Ghaziabad, have not differed much. However, the incidence of infant/child morbidity has been to be low among others caste population of Ghaziabad compared to Ballia.

This table reveals that, though more SC/ST population in Ghaziabad is represented, morbidity conditions seem to be similar in both the

regions. In general morbidity is found to be high in SC/ST in comparison with others caste population of both the regions combined together. Thus caste seems to be a crucial indicator of infant/childhood morbidity.

Education

Educational status of mothers of both the regions shows that around one-thirds (28.75 percent in Ballia; 33.12 percent in Ghaziabad) are illiterates. The remaining proportions of mothers have education at various levels, primary, secondary and collegiate.

Incidence of infant/child morbidity was found to be high among illiterate mothers, and as the educational level increased, morbidity was found to decline. In Ballia, not much difference has been found between the morbidity conditions of the children belonging to mothers who bear primary and secondary levels of educational status. Whereas, in Ghaziabad, educational attainment of mothers has shown a definite inverse relationship with morbidity condition of the infants and children. At primary and secondary levels of education, only less than half the mothers have experienced infant/child morbidity. In the total population an inverse relationship with morbidity has been noticed with mother's educational status. Thus, education is an important determinant of infant/child morbidity.

Occupation

Md. Nazrul Islam Mondal et al have shown association between the occupation of father and infant/child morbidity. Occupations in rural areas yield very meager income to rural populations. The classification of occupation in this rural area has been mostly either agricultural or non-agricultural labourers on one hand and farmer on the other. The remaining populations are involved in business, traditional occupation like washer men, tailors, besides a few persons who are employed in local bodies. In the present sample, nearly half (50.63 percent) of husbands in Ghaziabad belong to agricultural or non-agricultural labourers category, compared to less than half (40.00 percent) of same category found in the Ballia district. People engaged in farming are more in Ballia (30.63 percent) compared to Ghaziabad (20.62 percent). People employed in business (9.38 percent) and traditional occupations (11.87 percent) are more in Ghaziabad whereas, employed people are more (13.75 percent) in Ballia.

Father's occupation has shown differential influence on infant/child morbidity. Labourers have experience more infant/child morbidity in both the regions. Further, farmers, businessmen and people engaged

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in traditional occupation in Ballia have experienced higher morbidity conditions compared to Ghaziabad district for their infants and children. The employed people however, had less infant/child morbidity in Ballia. At every stage of occupation, Ballia region experienced more infant/child morbidity except with occupation of employees. However, a decreasing trend of morbidity is noticed with every occupation in Ghaziabad district. Though, employees are fewer in number, in Ghaziabad, compared to Ballia, they have shown better health condition of the infants and children. For the total population of employees alone, very less morbidity of infants and children was noticed. This table reveals that Ghaziabad has better health status of infants and children with father's occupation, compared to Ballia district.

Type of Family

In Indian society, mainly three types of families are found. They are: (1) Nuclear families (2) Joint families and (3) Extended families. Nuclear families consists of husband, wife and their children only; Joint families consists of more than two married couples and their children; while extended families consist of one or more than one married couple with their unmarried brothers and sisters. In Nuclear families, decisions are taken by the couples, whereas in Joint or extended families, decisions will be taken by the elder members or heads of the households. Sometimes, decision making in joint/extended families is delayed to get approval from the head of the household. Because of these reasons, chances of incidence of morbidity of under five year children is less in nuclear families than in joint or extended families.

In the present study, most families in Ballia (65.63 percent) and Ghaziabad (71.88 percent) belonged to the nuclear type; Extended families are the next higher (Ballia: 26.25 percent; Ghaziabad: 21.25 percent). Joint families are more or less equal (8.12 percent and 6.87 percent), in both the study areas of Ballia and Ghaziabad.

When the relationship between type of family and the incidence of infant/child morbidity has been considered, high incidence of morbidity of under five year children is noticed among the joint and extended families in Ballia (66.67 percent; 65.12 percent) compared to nuclear families (53.33 percent). In Ghaziabad, extended families had the incidence of under five year child morbidity (55.88 percent) when compared to nuclear families (50.43 percent) and joint families (45.45 percent). Considering the total sample, extended families had the highest incidence of under five child morbidity (61.04 percent followed by joint families (56.52 percent), and nuclear families (51.82 percent).

However, in Ghaziabad, joint families have lesser morbidity which seems to be advantageous. Joint families will have more homogenous population and other sibs usually take care of the morbid children.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of type of relationship of women before marriage to their type of family, relationship before marriage, husband Income, Socio-economic index in relation to infant/child morbidity for Ballia and Ghaziabad districts of Uttar Pradesh:

Type of family	Ballia		Ghaziabad		Total	
	MP	Total	MP	Total	MP	Total
Nuclear family	53.33(56)	100(105)	50.43(58)	100(115)	51.82(114)	100(220)
Joint family	66.67(8)	100(12)	45.45(5)	100(11)	56.52 (13)	100(23)
Extended family	65.12(28)	100(43)	55.88(19)	100(34)	61.04(47)	100(77)
Relationship before marriage						
Not related	56.00(56)	100(100)	50.85(60)	100(118)	53.21(116)	100(218)
Patrelateral	61.54(16)	100(26)	57.14(12)	100(21)	59.57(28)	100(47)
Matrelateral	58.82(20)	100(34)	47.62(10)	100(21)	54.55(30)	100(55)
Income (in rupees)						
Less than 6000	63.08(41)	100(65)	64.29(18)	100(28)	63.44(59)	100(93)
6001-15000	58.82(10)	100(17)	50.94(27)	100(53)	52.86(37)	100(70)
15001-25000	53.33(16)	100(30)	52.94(18)	100(34)	53.12(34)	100(64)
25001- 35000	61.11(11)	100(18)	50.00(8)	100(16)	55.88(19)	100(34)
More than 35001	46.67(14)	100(30)	37.93(11)	100(29)	42.37(25)	100(59)
Socio-economic status Index						
Low	58.44(45)	100(77)	58.54(48)	100(82)	58.49(93)	100(159)
Medium	60.56(43)	100(71)	45.31(29)	100 (64)	53.33(72)	100(135)
High	33.33(4)	100(12)	35.71(5)	100 (14)	34.62(9)	100(26)
Total	57.50(92)	100(160)	51.25(82)	100(160)	54.38(174)	100(320)

Correlation Co-efficients of type of family:

Ballia: 0.092, Ghaziabad: 0.065; Mothers age below 25 years: 0.049; Mothers age above 25 years: 0.148

Type of Relationship before Marriage:

Marriage between cousins and marriage with people having same hereditary diseases might result into propagation of diseases to the offspring. The severity of disease occurrence increases with near cousin

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marriages. From the table it has been found that unrelated marriages are high in both the areas (62.50 percent in Ballia; 73.76 percent in Ghaziabad). In Ghaziabad, patrelateral and matrelateral marriages are equally distributed (13.12 percent) but in Ballia matrelateral marriages are slightly higher (21.25 percent) than the patrelateral marriages (16.25 percent).

Comparatively, less incidence of infant/child morbidity is observed in unrelated marriages (56.00 percent in Ballia; 50.85 percent in Ghaziabad) than the related marriages. Among the related marriages, infant/child morbidity has been high in patrelateral marriages (61.54 percent in Ballia; 57.14 percent in Ghaziabad) as compared to matrelateral marriages (58.82 percent in Ballia; 47.62 percent in Ghaziabad).

Annual Income

Annual income is an economic variable which has some influence on infant/child morbidity. In the study area, the annual income of a family varies from Rs. 6,000 to above 45,000. In Ballia, slightly less than half (40.63 percent) households have lowest income of Rs. 6000/- and below. But in the case of Ghaziabad slightly less than one-fifth (17.50 percent) of the households had less than 6000 rupees for annual income. Another one-fifth of the respondents belonged to income levels 15001/- to 25000/- (Ballia: 18.75 percent; Ghaziabad: 21.25 percent and total population 20.00 percent). The average income of a family from Ballia has been Rs. 15145 per annum compared to Rs. 18343 per annum of a family from Ghaziabad. For the total population, the average income has been Rs. 16744 per annum.

When the inter relationship between annual income and morbidity of under five children is considered, a negative association is observed, i.e. as the annual income increases, the incidence of under five child morbidity decreases. From the results of the study, a high incidence of under five child morbidity has been observed among the families of less than, 6000 rupees annual income (63.44 percent). In Ballia, the incidence of infant/child morbidity among lower income groups is 63.08 percent, and it comes down to 46.67 percent in higher income groups. In Ghaziabad, a similar pattern has been observed, with slight variation of 64.29 percent among low income families, and 37.93 percent among high income families. However, income levels in Ghaziabad, have shown marked inverse association with morbidity from Rs. 25001 and above income per annum; whereas, in Ballia, only in case of more than Rs. 35001 annual income, the inverse association with morbidity has been

noticed. This reveals that income has a better association with morbidity in Ghaziabad compared to Ballia. Occupation and income seem to be better indicators of infant/childhood morbidity in Ghaziabad.

Socio-economic Index

Incidence of infant/child morbidity is negatively correlated with socio-economic status. (Md. Nazrul Islam Mondal et al 2009, Jaysshree D Naik et al, 2013, Amit Kaushik et al). Socio-economic status indices have been calculated to know the combined effect of independent variables on dependent variable morbidity and it is a more sensitive index. Education of the mother, father’s occupation, and annual income of the family are considered for computing the socio-economic status index. Considering, the total number of mothers, in both the study areas, more than 90 percent belong to low and medium socio-economic status groups. A minor proportion belonged to a higher socio-economic group.

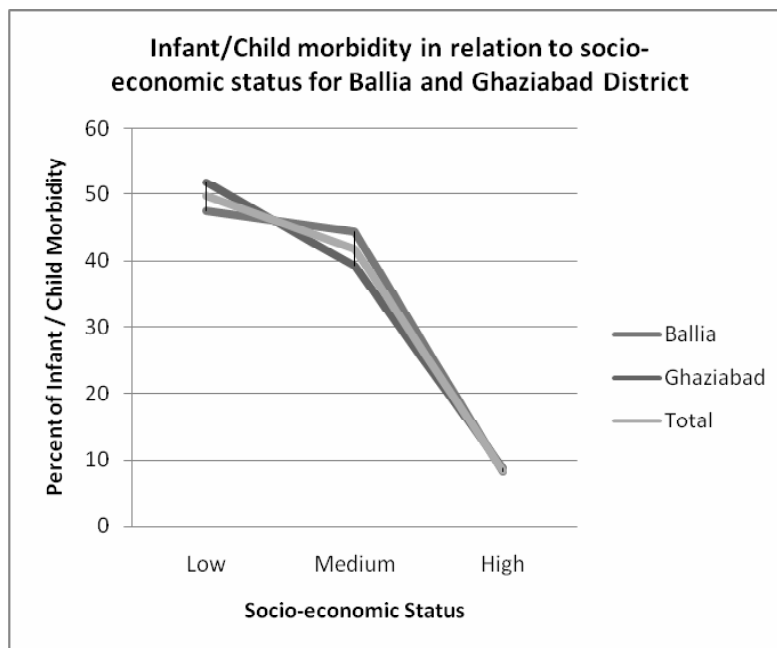


Figure 2

A clear negative association between infant/child morbidity and socio-economic status has been found. In Ghaziabad, a high incidence of infant/child morbidity has been noticed among the low socio-economic

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status mothers (58.54 percent). Later on morbidity decreased with increase in SES indices followed by medium and high socio-economic status (Medium: 45.31 percent; High: 35.71 percent respectively). However, in Ballia, higher incidence of morbidity is observed among the mothers with low (58.44 percent) and medium socio-economic status (60.56 percent). This shows in Ballia, socio-economic status does not have much influence on morbidity of under five year children. While in Ghaziabad, morbidity has decreased with increase in socio-economic status.

Conclusion

High incidence of infant/child morbidity has been found among the younger aged mothers. Infant/child morbidity is high among the mothers who conceived children before 21 years of age. Morbidity of children has been increasing with the increase in the number of surviving/live births. In Ghaziabad, type of house has been found to be an important determinant in influencing the incidence of infant/child morbidity. Illiterate mothers had high incidence of infant/child morbidity, when compared to educated mothers. Children, in joint and extended families, had higher morbidity than children belonging to nuclear families. Further, children born to mothers who had blood related marriages, seems to have more morbidity and also children belonging to SC/ST seems to have high morbidity. Mothers, who came from high socio-economic status, had less incidence of infant/child morbidity.

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Socio-Economic Disparities in Household Basic Amenities in Urban Maharashtra

Yogendra Musahar & Manoj Kumar

Abstract

Basic amenities are considered as the determinants of quality of life. This paper aims to examine the socio-economic disparities in basic amenities in urban Maharashtra using the national representative data from NSS 65th Round (2008-2009). It was found that the households belonging to SCs/STs have lesser accessibility to these basic amenities as compared to Non-SCs/STs households in urban Maharashtra. This disparity in basic amenities was also observed across urban population in Maharashtra delineated on the basis of religious affiliations. Those households having fixed income were likely to have more access to these basic requirements than the households having no fixed incomes. Moreover, the households having higher income in terms of monthly per capita expenditure reported to have more accessibility to basic amenities as compared to the households having low income. A 'Household Basic Amenity Index' has been computed by taking variables such as availability of sufficient drinking water, bathroom facility use of latrine, use of electricity and having separate kitchen. The very index shows substantial disparities in basic amenities across socio-economic groups in urban Maharashtra.

Key Words: Basic amenities, Quality of life, Socio-economic disparities, Basic amenity index

Introduction

Amenities are understood as the set of public and private goods and services which generate positive externalities for the resident and visiting population (A. F. Machado et. al., 2013). Basic amenities such as access to safe drinking water, electricity toilet facility etc. are basic

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requirements for people living both in the rural and urban areas. These are determinants of health and well being of population groups. Unfortunately, developing countries failed to provide these basic facilities to its inhabitants and India is no exception. Though, attempts have been made to extend basic amenities to people but achievements are not satisfactory and a substantial population is deprived of these basic requirements.

The deprivation of these basic facilities may be observed in regional, rural-urban, caste, religion and income differentials in India. Srinivasan and Mohanty (2004) found that there was deprivation of basic amenities at household level and such deprivation varied among states, rural-urban areas and by caste and religious affiliations of the household. Bhagat (2010) found that the access to basic amenities varies in accordance with size of categories of cities and towns. Class 1 cities showed better availability of basic services compared to small urban centres. Kundu et.al (1999) held that the disparities in level of urban basic amenities were extremely high in nineties across the states and size class wise. Pande (2005) held that basic services are either absent or inadequate in slums and lack of drinking water, clean, sanitary environment and adequate housing and garbage disposal pose series of threats to the health of slums dwellers.

The urban population of India is growing rapidly and exerting considerable pressure on urban services. It is evident that urban infrastructure has been unable to keep pace with the growing population (CPHEEO, 2005). A great challenge is being faced by urban population in India in terms of accessing basic amenities. Maharashtra has the highest number of people living in urban areas (50.8 million) with an urban population of 45.23% of the total population of the state. It is also the third most urbanized state, behind only to Tamil Nadu (48.45%) and Kerala (47.72 %) ¹. Maharashtra has 6 million plus cities just behind Uttar Pradesh and Kerala each having 7 million plus cities ². Maharashtra is no exception to the challenges being faced by urban population at national level in terms of accessing basic amenities. This paper aims to examine socio-economic disparities in basic amenities in urban areas of Maharashtra.

Data and Methods

This paper is based on data collected by the National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) in its 65th round (July 2008 - June 2009) on 'Housing Condition and Amenities in India' which encompassed the aspects of basic housing amenities available to the households, characteristics and conditions of the dwelling units, micro-environmental elements surrounding the dwelling units, certain aspects of constructions etc.

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The total number of the households surveyed in Maharashtra in 65th round of the NSS on housing conditions and amenities were 12350 of which rural and urban households comprised of 6220 and 6130 respectively. In present study, basic amenities in urban households were assessed with the help of variables like drinking water from major sources is sufficient, bathroom facility, use of electricity for domestic purpose, use of latrine and type of kitchen. These variables were crossed tabulated by social groups, religious groups, household type and standard of living in terms of MPCE Quartiles. A Basic Amenity Index was computed by taking different variables viz. drinking water sufficiency, bathroom facility, use of electricity for domestic purpose, use of latrine and kitchen type. This index has a total score of 5 ranging from 0 to 5. It comprises of responses of 1 for 'Yes' and 0 for 'No'. Higher score in absolute value indicate greater accessibility of basic amenities. Score 5 indicates that particular household has all the five facility taken into consideration.

Results

Table 1: Percentage of the households having/using household facilities by background characteristics

Variables	N	Percent Households having/using Household facilities in Urban Maharashtra				
		Sufficient Drinking water	Bathroom facility	Separate Kitchens	Use of Latrines	Use of Electricity
Social Groups						
STs	263440	83.5	69.2	55.4	82.0	97.6
SCs	1404299	83.0	63.0	34.2	88.0	97.6
OBCs	2652528	88.0	70.0	51.0	93.3	97.6
Others	5522471	90.3	70.3	57.0	97.0	99.3
Religious Groups						
Hindus	7601828	90.0	71.0	54.1	94.5	99.0
Muslims	1440533	80.4	59.0	38.0	93.2	98.0
Buddhism	426595	88.2	62.0	43.0	86.1	96.1
Others	365204	96.4	85.0	72.2	99.7	99.7
Household Type						
Casual labor	1085598	74.0	49.3	25.1	76.2	94.0
Self-employed	2952281	87.3	72.0	52.0	95.0	99.0
Fixed earnings	4895125	91.3	68.0	58.0	97.0	99.2
Others	907688	94.0	90.0	51.0	98.0	99.0
MPCE Quartiles						
0-25	1425970	83.0	57.0	30.4	76.1	95.0
25-50	2459787	78.0	65.2	39.4	93.0	98.0
50-75	3067778	93.0	61.2	51.1	98.2	100.0
75-100	2889202	96.0	86.0	74.0	100.0	100.0
Total	9842738	88.4	69.0	52.0	94.1	99.0

Source: Computed from NSS 65th Round (2008-2009)

Access to Sufficient Drinking Water

Among different social groups, it is found that the households belonging to 'others' class of social group have the highest proportion (90.3%) of access to sufficient drinking water followed by OBCs households (88.0%) whereas only 83.5 percent of STs and 83.0 percent of SC households have access to sufficient drinking water. It is evident from the above fact that there is social gradient in accessing sufficient drinking water in urban areas of Maharashtra. It shows that depressed sections (STs/SCs) have lesser access to sufficient drinking water as compared to OBCs and 'others' classes of social groups. In case of religious groups, 'others' religious households have higher proportion (96.4%) of access to sufficient drinking water and followed by Hindus households (90.0%). The Muslims households remain at bottom in accessing sufficient drinking water wherein only 80.4 percent of households have access to sufficient drinking water.

In case of households type, it is seen that 94.0% of 'others' type of households have access to sufficient drinking water followed by those households having fixed income. The households with no certain income i.e. those which are casual labour type of household have the least proportion of access to sufficient drinking water. In case of standard living (MPCE Quartiles), the households belonging to the richest quartiles have the highest proportion (96.0%) for accessing to sufficient drinking water followed by MPCE Quartiles 50-75 wherein 92.5 percent of the households have access to sufficient drinking water.

It is interesting to note that the households falling in the poorest quartiles are in better conditions than the households falling in the next quartiles i.e. 25-50 in terms of accessing sufficient drinking water. As evident from table 1, neither category of households getting sufficient drinking water, but the poor households has lesser access to sufficient drinking as compared to richer and the richest households. It indicates that richer households are able to get greater access to basic amenities such as drinking water as compared to poorer households which fail to get as much as drinking water as rich due insufficiency of income.

Access to Bathroom Facility

As evident from given data, SCs households have the least proportion of access to bathroom facility (63.0 percent) .There is no substantial difference of having bathroom facility between the OBCs and the 'Others' household. It is worthy to note that STs households have greater access to bathroom facility as compared to SCs households.

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By religious affiliations, it is observed that the Muslims households have the least access to bathroom facility and 'Others' religious households have the highest access to bathroom facility. This indicates that the Muslims households are deprived of bathroom facility. By households' type in Urban Maharashtra, the households having fixed income have higher access to bathroom facility. Casual labourers don't have certain income and it has bearing on the basic facilities available in their households. By standard of living, those households having higher standard of living in terms of MPCE quartiles have higher proportion of access to bathroom facility.

Access to Separate Kitchens

Separate kitchens in dwellings are very important for health of the persons who are living in those dwellings. Separate kitchen room from living room is an indicator of level of socio-economic development. In Indian context thousands of people fail to avail living room for them and under such circumstances talking for separate kitchen for cooking is a just hypothetical idea. Table 1 provides the percentage of households having separate kitchens for cooking by social groups, religious groups, household types and standard of living in terms of MPCE Quartiles. It was found that only 34.2% of SCs households have separate kitchen whereas 56.8% of 'others' class of households have separate kitchens. STs Households were in better conditions in terms of availability of separate kitchen than OBCs (51.0%) wherein 55.4 percent households have separate kitchen. The caste/class differential is clearly visible in terms of availing separate kitchen for cooking food in urban Maharashtra.

Muslims households remained at bottom in terms of availing separate kitchen whose 38.0 percent households had separate kitchens. Again in case of accessing separate kitchens 'others' religious group had the highest proportion (72.2%) across the all religious segments of Urban Maharashtra. it is worthy to note that there was disparity across religious groups in terms of availing separate kitchen for cooking food.

In case of household types, the households having fixed income have higher proportion of separate kitchens for cooking food which is evident from above 1 wherein 58.0 % of households belonging to fixed income categories household had separate kitchen. Casual labourers having no fixed income i.e., the households falling under daily wage labour type with uncertain income, so standard of living is low and hence there were only 25.1 percent of such households having separate kitchen for cooking food.

There was a direct relationship between access to separate cooking for food and standard of living in terms of MPCE Quartiles. The richest households had higher proportion (74.0%) of separate kitchens as compared to the poorest households whose only 30.4% households had separate kitchens for cooking food.

Access to Toilet Facilities in Urban Areas of Maharashtra

People often escape to talk of toilets. But these are very important for personal hygiene as well as for clean and congenial environment. These toilets help in reducing contamination in our day to day life. It is imperative that every individual should have access to toilet facilities for better health. Unfortunately in our country the scenario is quite different. According to Census of India (2011), 53.1 percent of households don't have latrine facilities in India and it is dreadful to note that 69.3 percent of rural households don't have any kind of latrine facilities.

Table 1 provides percentage of households that used any kind of latrines by social groups, religious groups, household types and MPCE Quartiles. It has been seen that 97.0 percents of households belonging to 'Others' class of social group used any kind of latrines. It was followed by OBCs households wherein 93.3% households used any kind of latrines. The percentage of households that used latrines among SCs and STs Households were 87.0 and 81.5 respectively. It is evident from above data; depressed classes (SCs/STs) had lesser accessibility to sanitation facility in terms of using latrines as compared to non SCs/STs classes. In case of religious groups, the households belonging to 'Others' religious group had the highest proportion (99.7%) of using latrine and it was followed by the Hindu households wherein 94.5% of households had latrine facilities. The minority households like Buddhist remained at bottom in terms of availing any kind of latrines whose only 86.1 percent households were using any kind of latrine facilities.

In case of household type it has been found that 'others' and 'regular salaried/wage labour' households had higher proportion of using latrine facilities. 'Others' type of households were not clearly defined so, it is not desirable to analyze its share in using latrines. But it is important to see varying uses of latrines across remaining types of households. It is clear that those households having fixed incomes had more access to latrine facilities as compare those having uncertain incomes as it happened n case of casual labour wherein only 25.1 percent of

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households availing latrine facilities. It indicates that consistency in income has bearing on availing latrine facilities over urban population in Maharashtra.

Access to Electricity for Domestic Uses

There are various uses of electricity in our houses viz., in table lamp, table fan, mixer, refrigerator, air cooler and air conditioner, TVs sets, computers, electric heater, battery charger and many more. Being generated from any sources, it is clean and safe source of energy which doesn't produce suffocating smokes. It helps in making our lives more comfortable. It is different matter that many households doesn't have electricity connection till date in our country and these households are still depending on traditional sources of energy such as woods, cow-dung cake and more refined kerosene oil for lighting which are unclean sources of energy for domestic purposes. The scenario of access to electricity to the households in India is not a matter of proud as only 67.2 percent of the households have access to electricity and there is big gap in rural(55.3%) and urban(92.7) households.³

As per table 1, it has been found that 99.3 % of the households belonging to 'Others' class of social group having access to electricity supply which was followed by OBCs (97.6%). Others class of households has better access to electricity as compared to OBCs, SCs/STs households wherein almost more than 2 % households didn't have access to electricity. It clearly indicates that there are social class disparities in access to electricity in urban Maharashtra.

In case of religious groups, 'Others' religious households were in more advantageous position in terms of accessing electricity as its 99.7 % of households had access to electricity supply. The Buddhist households remained at most disadvantageous position wherein only 96.1% of households had electricity supply and this might be due to their poverty. The Hindus and the Muslims households remained in between these two religious communities. The proportion of households having access to electricity is 98.7% and 98.0% for the Hindus and the Muslims households respectively. 'Others' religious group might comprise of Christian, Parsee and Jains populations which are considered developed segment of India population and higher access to electricity by these religious group might be attributed to their level of socio-economic development. Each and every richer and the richest household (50-75 and 75-100 MPCE Quartiles) reported to have electricity connection for domestic purposes.

Table 2: Computation of Composite Score for Household Basic Amenity Index (HBAI) in Urban Maharashtra

Composite Score	Households in Urban Maharashtra	%	Variables	Description	Score	Categorization of Score
0	4095	0.04	Sufficient drinking Water	Yes=1, No=0	0	0-1-2' Low '3' Medium '4-5' High
1	92133	0.9	Bathroom Facility	Yes=1, No=0	1	
2	416401	4.2	Separate Kitchens	Yes=1, No=0	2	
3	2839070	28.8	Use of Latrines	Yes=1, No=0	3	
4	2343298	23.8	Use of Electricity	Yes=1, No=0	4	
5	4147739	42.1	Total		5	
N	9842737	100				

Sources: Computed from NSS 65th Round (2008-2009)

Five variables were used to compute household basic amenity index. These variables were drinking water from measure sources is sufficient throughout the year, facility of bathroom, separate kitchen for cooking, use of latrines and the household has electricity for domestic use. All the variables taken as dichotomous were not necessarily dichotomous in its original form but they were made dichotomous purposely. For instance, kitchen type has the responses of separate kitchen with water tap-1, separate kitchen without water tap-2 and last no separate kitchen-3. To make it dichotomous two categories i.e. separate kitchen with water tap and without water tap recoded as one variable i.e. having separate kitchen and remaining one no separate kitchen.

On combining all the five variables, proportions of the households are 0 percent and 42.1 percent having none of these facilities and having all of the five facilities respectively. The score from 0 to 5 was categorized into three categories i.e. low, medium and high. The households having 0 to 2 facilities designated as household with low basic amenity. Households having either of 3 facilities were designated as household with medium basic amenity and household having 4 to 5 facilities designated as household with high basic amenity. Thus three categories of household basic amenity index came into being.

Household Basic Amenity Index (HBAI) that has been computed, comprised of (Yes =1) and (No =0) responses for five variables in urban Maharashtra. The score on index ranged from 0 to 5, and score 5 indicates that particular households have all the five facilities (sufficient water, bathroom facility, use of electricity for domestic purpose, use of latrine and having separate kitchen) whereas 0 indicates that particular households do not have the any of the five facilities.

Table 3: Household Basic Amenity Index by the background characteristics of the households in Urban Maharashtra

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Household Basic Amenity Index</i>			<i>N</i>
	<i>Low</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>High</i>	
Social Groups				
STs	15.0	17.0	69.0	263440
SCs	10.2	39.0	51.2	1404298
OBCs	5.0	30.1	65.1	2652528
Others	4.0	26.4	70.0	5522471
Religious Groups				
Hindus	5.0	27.0	68.4	7601828
Muslims	7.0	44.0	49.4	1440533
Buddhism	11.0	29.3	60.1	426595
Others	2.0	12.0	86.2	365204
Household Type				
Casual labor	21.0	47.3	32.1	1085597
Self-employed	5.0	28.0	68.0	2952279
Fixed earnings	3.0	30.0	68.0	4895125
Others	3.1	7.2	90.0	907689
MPCE Quartiles				
0-25	20.0	32.0	49.0	1425970
25-50	6.0	41.4	53.0	2459788
50-75	2.2	33.4	64.4	3067777
75-100	0.8	12.0	87.3	2889201
Total	5.2	29.0	66.0	9842737

Source: Computed from NSS 65th Round

Table 3 shows the variation of household basic amenity index by the background characteristics of the households' viz., social groups, religious groups, type of households and standard of living in terms of MPCE. As evident from table 3, STs Class of social group had higher proportion of having low household basic amenity index (maximum any two of the five facilities) followed by SCs class of the social group and the 'Others' class of social groups had least proportion of having low HBAI. It indicates that the deprived sections (STs/SCs) possess lesser household basic facilities as compared to relatively well off social group's viz. OBCs and Others. In case of medium level of household basic amenity index (having at least any three of the five facilities)

SCs had the highest proportion (39 percent) and followed by OBCs (30.1 percent). In case of high level of household basic amenity index, 'Others' class of the social group had the highest proportion (70 percent) that was followed by STs households (69 percent). SCs households had the least proportion of having all these five facilities. It is to note that SCs households in Urban Maharashtra were places at the bottom in terms of accessing households' basic facilities.

Household Basic Amenity Index varied across religious groups. In case of low level of basic facilities, the Buddhists had the highest proportion followed by Muslims. 'Others' religious groups had the least proportion low level of basic facilities. In case of medium level of household basic facility, the Muslims had the highest proportion (44.0 percent) and followed by the Buddhists. 'Others' category of religious group had the least proportion of having medium level of basic facilities. In case of high level of household basic facilities, 'Others' category of religious group had the highest proportion (86.2 percent) followed by the Hindu households (68.4 percent). The least proportion of the Muslims accessing all the five basic facilities indicates their miserable condition as compared to rest of the religious groups. The differences were sharp between religious groups accessing all the five basic facilities.

Considering household type, it is import to note that first three categories were well defined so; it is worthy to compare variation of household facilities across these three categories only. Taking low level of basic facilities, it was found that those households having uncertain income (casual labour) had the highest proportion of having low level of household basic facilities as compared to those households having fixed income. In case of medium level of household basic facilities, again household with uncertain income had the highest proportion and the self-employed households had the lowest proportion of availing any three facilities. In case of high level of household basic facilities, the self-employed and certain income type households had higher proportion (68 percent) having all the five basic facilities. It is to note that certain income is the determinant of accessing household basic facilities.

Household basic amenity index varies by standard of living of the households. In case of low level of household basic facilities, the poorest households (MPCE Quartile 0-25) had the highest proportion and the least proportion for the richest households (MPCE Quartiles 75-100)

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and hence, there was inverse relationship between accessing low level of household basic facilities and standard of living. But for medium level of household basic facilities there was no regular pattern being the highest and the lowest for the households having quartile groups 25-50 and 75-100 respectively. For the high level of household basic facilities, there was direct relationship between standard of living and accessing high level of household basic facilities in urban Maharashtra. It clearly indicates that income in terms of monthly per capita expenditure is determinant of household basic facilities availed by the households.

Table 4: Result of Binary Logistic Regression taking Household Basic Amenity Index as Dependent Variable (at least three and above amenities coded as '1' and rest as '0')

Households Background Characteristics	Urban Maharashtra		
	S.E.	Significance	Exp(β)
Social Groups			
STs(Reference Category)			
SCs	0.192	0.000	0.292
OBCs	0.160	0.001	0.578
Others	0.125	0.314	0.882
Religious Groups			
Hindus(Reference Category)			
Muslims	0.526	0.488	0.694
Buddhism	0.530	0.080	0.395
Others	0.558	0.515	0.695
Household Type			
Casual labor(Reference Category)			
Self-employed	0.187	0.001	0.545
Fixed earnings	0.189	0.032	1.501
Others	0.193	0.000	2.433
MPCE Quartiles			
0-25(Reference Category)			
25-50	0.110	0.000	2.153
50-75	0.148	0.000	4.423
75-100	0.263	0.000	12.549

P<0.05*, p<0.01**, p<0.001***

Discussion

Access to household basic amenities varies with varying household background characteristics (Social Groups, Religious Groups, Household Type and MPCE Quartiles) in urban Maharashtra. Household Basic Amenity Index (low, medium and high) so devised too varies with these independent variables. STs Households are in better position to avail some household basic facilities viz. sufficient

drinking water, bathroom facility, and separate kitchen as compared to that of SCs and OBCs households in urban Maharashtra.

The result of binary logistic regression was used to predict the net effect of independent variables (household background characteristics) on dependent variable (at least three and above facilities were coded as '1' and rest as '0' for binary logistic regression analysis). The amenity index (at least three and above facilities) varies across social groups (refer table 4 for succeeding paragraphs). SCs and OBCs households are less likely to have at least three and above facilities than STs Households which is reference category. This is statistically significant at $p < 0.001$ and $p < 0.01$ respectively. There is gross differential in basic amenity index across religious affiliations but the result is not statistically significant.

Household type in urban Maharashtra is a significant determinant to affect the household basic amenities. Self-employed households are less likely to have at least three and above facilities than casual labour households ($p < 0.01$). Households having fixed income are more likely to have at least three and above basic household facilities as compared to casual labour households ($p < 0.05$). The others category of households are more likely to have these at least three and above household facilities as compared to reference category i.e. casual labour.

Standard of living in terms of monthly per capita expenditure is also a determinant of accessing household basic facilities in urban Maharashtra. The households falling in MPCE Quartiles 25-50, 50-75 and 75-100 are more likely to have at least three and above household basic facilities as compared to the reference category of MPCE Quartiles (0-25) and these three quartiles are statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. It clearly indicates that standard of living have great role to avail household basic facilities by the households in urban Maharashtra.

Conclusions

This paper examines socio-economic disparities in household basic amenities in urban Maharashtra taking selected variables such as sufficient drinking water, bathroom facility, use of latrines, separate kitchens and use of electricity for domestic purposes. Results reveal that there is pronounced socio-economic differentials in accessing household basic facilities in urban Maharashtra. 'Others' classes of households have greater access to basic facilities as compared to rest of three classes of the households. SCs are place at bottom in terms of

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availing household basic amenities in urban Maharashtra. STs Households are in better position and competing with OBCs households in terms of availing household basic amenities. By religious affiliations, the Muslims and the Buddhists have lesser access to amenities as compared to the Hindus and the others. The households having fixed income have greater access to basic amenities as compared to the households having uncertain income i.e. casual labour households. There is a direct relationship between standard of living and access to household basic amenities.

Social groups, household type and standard of living in terms of MPCE Quartiles are deemed to be significant determinants to avail household basic amenities. The wells off households able to avail greater basic facilities but poor households have lesser access to these facilities. At this juncture, interventions are needed. Poverty eradication should be central to all interventions. Despite this, role of local civic body becomes very important. Efforts to provide household basic facilities should be strengthened.

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Philosophical Tenets of Non Co-operation Movement of Mahatma Gandhi

Yashlok Kumar

Abstract

Gandhi's secularism and openness to all kinds of theological and philosophical schools as well known. It was through an assimilation of various concepts and philosophical tenets that Gandhi arrived at his own understanding of non violence. Jainism and Buddhism were the most important influences that behind the function of Gandhi's non-violence theory. Both Jainism and Buddhism preached non-violence as the basic principle of existence. All other thoughts and actions propagated by these to religious schools were based on this basic of non-violence. Gandhi was deeply influenced by his readings of these scriptures. The Acaranga sutra of the Jains stated all life to be dear and precious and Gandhi believed in it earnestly.

The Bhagwatgita was another important influence with its stress on non attachment and self less action. Christianity along with its message of love and compassion extended even one's enemies was another important influence on Gandhi's life. Bringing together these ethological schools, Gandhi was in search for a meaningful life, a life based on truth and honesty, a life that would best of moral courage to stand for the right and for justice, even at its own cost. It was this outlook that Gandhi employed as a tool to guide India's freedom struggle which eventually succeeded to unite the length and breadth of the country like never before.

Keyword : Bhagwadgita, Swaraj, Non-Co-operation, Hindu Muslim unity.

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Introduction

Non-Co-operation comprises many illuminating philosophical tenets Mahatma Gandhi often said that he non-co-operated with the British Raj an order to co-operate with the Raj in creating an atmosphere in which different civilizations may find situation to live and let live. This remand the essence of the non-co-operation philosophy.

Accordingly he first co-operated with the British Raj in the First world war. He had the philosophy of Karma of the Bhagwadgita behind it. The co-operation in the war meant to resist the tyranny of any kind. It would also make the Indians fit and able to bear arms and to use them properly. The easiest and the straight test way to win Swaraj was to participate in the defense of the Empire.¹

Voluntary recruiting would be a key to Swaraj and would give India honours and manhood. The best way of acquiring the capacity of self-protection was joining the army.² If they were to preach. The mission of peace, they must first prove their ability in war. This was a terrible discovery but it was true the Mahatma said, A nation that was unfit to fight was not able to achieve peace and freedom India must know when to fight and how to fight. It was the personal courage that counted. And some would acquire that courage only after they have been trained to fight.³

“Let us go and die for the sake of India and the Empire”⁴ he said. He felt that, under exceptional circumstances war was a necessary evil. All killing was not himsa. It was not a fall but it was a rise.⁵ ‘Be that as it may, today our salvation lies in helping the British’ he said. To rise against the common danger was not only expediency but was duty as well. He wanted to train five lakhs of fighting men.⁶

Taking lessons from the Bhagwatgita he observed. “The plain fact is that we have lost the very capacity to fight and our valor has ebbed away. We don’t have the strength even to protect our women-folk. Running after so-called dharma, we forget the claim of karma (duty). We cannot stand up and fight even if there is a raid on our village in broad daylight. That some eight men can pillage a population of a thousand with impunity can happen-not in all the world-only in India. Those in the villages are not so weak of body that they cannot beat back a mere eight. But they stand in terrible fear of death”.⁷ The logic of co-operation in the war effort was therefore highly philosophical as well as practical.

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The Co-operation philosophy of Gandhi did not bear fruit to his wishes. Instead he got Rowlett Acts and Jallianwala Bagh massacre. The liberal face of British imperialism got belied and evil face of it made naked presence. Disappointed, he thought out and developed the philosophy or the logic of Non-co-operation. Co-operation was to be withdrawn because India must not be party to a government which did not respect the Indian aspirations. It was the inherent right of a subject to refuse to assist a government that would not listen to him.⁸

But Gandhiji did not take Non-co-operation to be an easy task. It could only succeed if the feeling was genuine and strong enough to make people suffer to the utmost. Non-co-operation would not only be an effective remedy for Swaraj but would also be an effective test of the sincerity of Hindu Muslim unity.⁹

He very carefully carved out strategies of Non-co-operation. The first stage of non-co-operation was, therefore, so arranged as to involve minimum of danger to public peace and minimum of sacrifice on the part of those who participated in the movement.¹⁰ Non-co-operation was a measure of discipline and sacrifice and it demanded patience and respect for opposite views, Unless people were able to evolve a spirit of mutual toleration for diametrically opposite views, non-co-operation would remain an impossibility.¹¹

Non-co-operation with the Government meant perfect co-operation by the people among themselves.¹² In order to non-co-operate with the Government, they must co-operate among themselves. If the Hindus and Mohammedans were united no power in the world could put them down. But to punish the Satan they should not employ Satanic means. After an experience of 30 years he was able to say the cruelty and deceit could not be destroyed only by becoming cruel and deceitful. Just as light disperses darkness they could disperse falsehood by truth and evil forces by soul-force.¹³

The success of non-co-operation depended upon the ability of non-co-operationists to control all forces of violence.¹⁴

He would start non-co-operating with government schools, for one cannot make one's children righteous in schools controlled by unrighteous men. "We cannot free our children from slavery by sending them to slave schools,"¹⁵ Non participation in the actions of the

government was next advised. But this non-co-operation was to be adopted solely by means of love and non-violence.

Emphasizing the need for humility he said that non-co-operation was not a movement of brag bluster, or bluff. It was a test of our sincerity. It required solid and silent self-sacrifice. It challenged our honesty and our capacity for national work.¹⁶ Gandhiji knew that the spirit of non-co-operation against the evil was inherent in every man. Just as darkness can be dispelled only by light. So we shall be able to vanquish the Government's armed might only by non-violent non-co-operation.¹⁷

Non-co-operation was a thing free of fear.¹⁸ Non-co-operation in the language of medicine was a kind of aseptic treatment. Aseptic treatment presupposes purity from within. Non-co-operation with the Government, therefore, simply meant that had done away with dirt and uncleanness.¹⁹ A non-co-operator ought not be discourteous.²⁰ He considered peace as the fundamental element of Non-co-operation.²¹ Self purification and sacrifice were the other essential features.²² Non-co-operation movement was a spiritual movement.²³

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FDI in the Field of Promoting Information Technology and Communication

Anshu Sinha

The information technology is one of the key driving forces fuelling India's economic growth.

The industry has not only transformed India's image on global platform but also fuelled economic growth by energising the higher education (especially in engineering and computer Science).

The information technology industry has been attracting considerable amount of FDI in recent years.

A number of major IT companies of the world have set up shops in India trying to recruit the skilled IT professionals of india.

It is the result of strong collaboration between the indian government and ICT (information and communication technology) industry that india is rapidly becoming an attractive destination for software development IT enabled services and telecommunications. The ministry of communication and information technology is a central government ministry . It contains three departments.

- Department of telecommunications
- Department of IT
- Department of posts

India holds skilled manpower and infrastructure in these segments which magnetise foreign investments. There is active and healthy competition amongst states in attracting investments in infrastructure as well as designing IT solutions in areas such as e' governance, e-learning, e-commerce, entrepreneurship and software exports. The government is also making continuous efforts to make FDI policies more attractive and investor friendly , with a view to making india an investment hub for all the major countries.

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India has emerged over the last decade as the most preferred destination for outsourcing of IT services. The vibrant IT industry is contributing immensely by providing information about latest technology and international business practices.

Department of telecommunications also known as door sanchar vibhag , concerns itself with policy , licencing, and coordination matters relating to telegraph, telephone, wireless, data, facsimile and telematic services and other similar forms of communication. It also looks into the administration of laws with respect to any of the matters specified namely:

- The Indian telegraph act , 1885 (13 of 1885)
- The Indian wireless telegraphy act ,1933 (17 of 1933)
- The telecom regulatory authority of india act , 1997 (24 of 1997)

Public sector units:

- Bharat sanchar big am limited (BSNL)
- Indian telephone industries limited.
- Mahanagar telephone nigam limited (MTNL)
- Videsh sanchar nigam limited
- Centre for development of telematics
- Wireless planning and coordination wing
- Telecom engineering centre
- Controller of communication accounts
- Telecom enforcement, resource and monitoring cells

This department is concerned with e governance, e commerce , e medicine, e infrastructure.

Department of posts: the department of posts operates one of the oldest and most extensive mail services in the world, with about 26000 full time and 130000 part time post offices.

It offers a whole range of products under posts, remittance, savings, insurance and philately.

The annual revenue is around rs 4500 crores and expenditures is Rs 5800 crores. Lack of proper investment in infrastructure and technology is the reason for such low revenue.

FDI policy in information communication sector:

1. In basic cellular, value added services and global mobile personal communication by satellite , FDI is limited to 49 % subject to

licensing and security requirements and adherence by the company.

2. No equity cap is applicable to manufacturing activities.
3. FDI upto 100 % is allowed for the following activities in telecom sector.
 - A. ISP s not providing gateways.
 - B. Infrastructure providers providing dark fiber.
 - C. Electronic mail
 - D. Voice mail.

Relevance of future:

This article holds strong relevance for future as it enlightens the growth part of indian economy to be the next superlative economy of the world.

The effect of FDI in informmation communication sector are as follows:

1. In addition to the investments made by foreign investors the inflow of technology, awareness, management practices and expertise also will enrich the service provide by IC sector.
2. Better facilities and quality parameters would be taken care of.
3. India being such a gigantic nation with dense population has the urgent need of making available the telecommunications posts and information technology facilities to its common man with optimum utilization of FDI.
4. Today's ear is considered to be hi-tech era which makes the position of a nation strong in comparison to other countries. This means that the more contended is the hi tech network of a nation , the stronger will it be it's position.
5. In order to maximise the FDI inflows into the IC sector , the government of india is not leaving any stone unturned by providing subsidies , liberalising the policies , Providing friendly and workable environment to foreign investors.
6. Prompt networks , channels and facilities of IS sector will assist in higher revenue generation which ultimately will upgrade the I do an economy as a whole.
7. As majority of the indian population resides in rural areas , it's need of information communication can be fulfilled by FDI.

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8. Tele communication facility at reasonable price with improved voice and data quality will help in enriching the standards of people.
9. Efforts made in the IS sector regarding FDI will have a multiplier effect.

So as a conclusion it can be said that no one can deny the importance of investments in ICT sector since this issue is nowadays of much prominence through out the globe. As the past trends have shown growth patterns in ICT sector, hence more initiatives should come from the side of the government to strengthen the figures of FDI inflows into india ICT sector. Other factor that have strong impact and play essential role in stimulating FDI in ICT sector are market size, competition, literacy rate, foreign trade and per capita income.

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Flow of Foreign Direct Investment in Indian Economy: A Closer Look

Pragyesh Nath Tripathi

Abstract

In the present study an attempt had been made to examine the flow of FDI in India after independence. To sum up, the government has introduced changes into the Economic Policy from time to time attracts more and more FDI. We could also see the inflow of FDI, But before 1991 India got limited FDI because of restricted government policy. And when India was adopted new economic policy the flow of foreign capital increases very rapidly. In the initial stage, secondary sector gets huge amount of FDI but at present the tertiary sector is the leading sector which gets maximum FDI in India. In this chapter also include country wise and state wise FDI inflow of India. Mauritius is highest investing country in Indian economy and Maharashtra is highest getting FDI inflow state in our country. And the condition are more or less same in the present time in case of more investing country and geographical distribution. So policy of Indian government is one of the important factors which increase the inflow of foreign capital in the economy. In 1991 not only FDI inflow is increases but also growth of the country also increases.

Key Words: FDI, Economic Growth, and Indian Economy

Introduction

There are many theoretical and the empirical evidences those confirms the significance of capital in economic development. In the recent time, FDI is one of the relevant non-debt source of capital in the host. In the context of Indian Economy FDI is one of the important source of finance since independence but it was concentrated only few sector. And it was increases very rapidly in the liberalized phase when

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the Government of India change their policy in favour of foreign investor. So the Government of India change their policy time to time for increase the inflows FDI in Indian Economy.

According to United Nation Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD 1994) "It is essential to reminder that developing nations have significantly eased limitations on FDI inflow and operations of MNEs in the early 1980s. This trend has become even more widespread during the 1990s, which brought a significant FDI Inflow into the developing countries. In fact, developing countries received nearly 40 per cent global FDI inflows in 1994-96 compared to 25 per cent in 1980-84." At the same time, India also opened up its economy, allowing MNEs in the core sectors as a part of reform process in the beginning of 1990s. According to RBI (2001), "FDI inflow among the developing countries and has become one of the lucrative investment location for the foreign investor. The net FDI inflow from Rs 174 crores in 1990-91 to Rs 10,686 crores in 2000-01, resulting in annual average growth rate as high as 6 percent (RBI2001)."¹

Foreign Investment in India: Post independence policy up to 1990

However, the history of FDI in India indicates that it was started by the British colonial government period itself. British capital was largely invested in Indian industries, trade, tea gardens, coal mines, etc. The total volume of Britain's foreign investments was estimated at about 4,000 million pound and the amount invested by Britain in India was at about one- fourth (i.e. 50 million pound) of their total world investment. The obligation of India was to pay interest to Britain at the average rate of 5 per cent annually. The Macmillan Committee in Britain reported that the net income of the country from foreign investments in 1930 was 235 million pounds. A quarter of that sum was 58¾ million pound, which was better by only 8¾ million pounds than the figure arrived at above as India's annual payment to Britain towards interest on British investments in India.²

After independence, "India initiated the policy of restriction on imports and promotion of exports. In this content, import substitution along with pegged exchange regime foreign investment was depressed by (a) imposing severe limits on equity holding by foreigners and (b) restricting it to the production of only few reserved items."³ Due to the government's policy of foreign shareholdings a maximum of 40 per cent of equity was limited under the FERA. According to the World Bank (1999), "India was one of the lowest recipients of FDI among

developing countries until 1970s. During 1970s cumulative inflow of FDI was about US\$ 454 million or 1.2% of gross domestic investment (GDI).⁴

As a whole India's policy regarding foreign investment can be broadly classified into four distinct phases:

- Cautious non-discrimination in controls during the period 1948 to mid/late 1960s.
- Selective restrictions and control from the mid/late 1960s to the end 1970s with the promulgation of the Foreign exchange regulation act (FERA), 1973 and the industrial licensing policy, 1973, as the main instrument of control.
- Gradual and partial liberalization in the 1980s with special incentives for investment in export-oriented units.
- Full-fledged liberalization regarding foreign investment along with medium term adjustment and a long term structural reform that has been hallmark since 1991.⁵

Foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA), 1947

This legislation was enacted under the British government as a short-term measure for five year. It was further extended for another five year in 1952. It was finally made a permanent Act in 1957 and it remained enforced till January 1974. "The restricted objective of the act was to regulate the inflow of foreign capital, in view of the concerns about substantial non-resident interest and employment of foreigners. The circumstances in independent India was one of preserving and consolidating freedom and not permitting once again any sort of foreign domination, political or economic. The control framework was essentially transaction-based- all transactions in foreign exchange in including those between residents and non-residents were prohibited, unless specifically permitted."⁶

The government policy regarding the FDI can also be discussed with the development of Five-Year Plans. The route of planned economic development in India started by way of the launch of first Five Year Plan on April 1, 1951. The Plan Document regarding the foreign investment in relation to development observed "how much of the resources needed to raise national output and income should come from domestic effort and how much come from external sources cannot determine, of course, be determined in advance or on any a priori basis." Further, the Planned Document of India (1951) clearly

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enunciated government policy regarding foreign capital by stating, “In securing rapid industrial development under present conditions, foreign capital has an important part to play. A free flow of foreign capital should be welcomed because it will ensure the supply of capital goods and of technical know-how. The government’s policy in this regard gives the following assurances to foreign capital:

- There will be no discrimination between foreign and Indian undertaking in the application of general industrial policy,
- Reasonable facilities will be given for the remittance of profits and repatriation of capital, consistently with the foreign exchange position of the country and,
- In the event of nationalization fair and equitable compensation would be paid.”⁷

The fourth Five Year Plan (1969-70 to 1973-74) regarding foreign capital observed that, “foreign collaboration and foreign investment has been laid down and does not call for any material modification. In the detailed application of this policy, care has to be taken to ensure that foreign collaboration is resorted to only for meeting a critical gap does not inhibit the maximum utilization domestic know-how and services. In this plan period a foreign investment board has been set up because of identify the field which foreign collaboration is required.”⁸

Foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA), 1973

According to the Foreign Exchange Regulation act, “The uncertainties in the global economy following the breakdown of the Bretton-Woods system of stable exchange rates and the emergence of the floating regimes exacerbated by the oil shock of 1973-74 presented serious challenges for exchange rate management and gave rise to balance of payment difficulties in India as in many other developing countries. The Government of India reviewed FERA, 1947 for conserving foreign exchange rather than regulating the entry of foreign capital. The FERA, 1973 was drafted with the objective of introducing the changes necessary for effecting implementation of the government policy and removing the difficulties in the working of the previous enactment.”

Through the FERA, 1973, “all foreign investors were virtually driven out from Indian industries. Technology transfer was possible only through the purchase of foreign technology. However, due to severe limits on royalty payments to foreigners to reduce foreign exchange use, this option was also ineffective. However, the government granted

liberal tax incentives to encourage indigenous generation of technology by domestic firms. In the absence of foreign technology, Indian industry suffered both in terms of cost of production and quality.”

Above mentioned policies which continued well up to early 1980s resulted to the structural balance of payment problem. By mid 1980s the country started opening its economy by inviting foreign investments and liberalizing its trade regime, apart from giving direct incentives to foreign investors, monetary and physical support was also provided to achieve given targets of FDI. One form of such support was the creation of a text structure conducive to direct and portfolio investment.

Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-81 to 1984-85) on foreign capital Plan opined that, “Industrial progress will necessarily depend upon continued technological excellence; this would call for a judicious blend of permitting import of contemporary technology, and prompting the development of indigenous know-how through domestic research and development. A re-orientation and review of the existing procedures and parameters for transfer of technology for this purpose appears necessary. Further, instead of responding to initiatives from foreign parties, suitable perspectives and strategies will have to be developed for seeking out and arranging for appropriate and advanced technologies of relevance to the specific area of our interest. This may require the strengthening of industrial arrangements.”⁹

FDI in the Industrial Policy Statement, 1991

The earliest policy for the of motivation to Foreign Direct Investment in India came in July 1991 when the new industrial policy provided an automatic approval for projects with the foreign equity contribution up to 51 percent on the priority areas. In recent years, the government has initiated the second phase reform, which enhances the measures to further smooth the progress of and broaden the base of foreign direct investment in India. The policy for FDI allows autonomy of location, adoptions of new technology, repatriation of capital and dividends. As a result of these measures, there has been a strong rush forward of international interest in the Indian economy. The speed at which foreign direct investment inflow has grown for the period of the post-liberalization is a clear shown that India is fast emerging country of the world.

In the relation to foreign investment, The Industrial Policy Statement (1991) observed, “In order to invite foreign investment is high priority industries, requiring large investments and advanced

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technology, it has been decided to provide approval for direct foreign investment up to 51% foreign equity in such industries. There shall be no bottlenecks of any kind in this process.

This group of industries has generally been known as the 'Appendix 1 industries' and is area in which FERA companies have already been allowed to invest on a discretionary basis. This change will go a long way in making Indian policy on foreign investment transparent. Such a framework will make it attractive for companies abroad to invest in India."¹⁰

The Paradigm Shift after 1990

Through the above analysis it is very clear that before 1991 India adopted a restrictive economic policy. But due to the economic crisis caused by the deficit of Balance of Payment and with the pressure of the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the Government of India changed the earlier restrictive policy and made the Indian market open. After 1990 the focus moved from protection to free trade and the process of Globalization, Privatization and Liberalization started.

In the beginning of July 1991, the Government of India had brought a many changes to the regulatory policies of the country under the general acceptance of the policy package known as the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP). The important differences from the past is in the form of the followings;

According to Rao, et al., (1999), " Revision of the industrial policy resolution, 1956 and schedules A & B, resulting in the opening up of public sector reserved area; drastic revision of Industries Development and Regulation Act (IRDA) with the objective of removing major entry point hurdle, doing away with the registration requirements under Monopoly and Restrictive Trade Practice Act (MRTPA); removal of general ceiling of 40% on foreign-held equity under foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA); lifting of the restrictions on use of foreign brand name in the local market; removal the restrictions on FDI entry low technology consumer goods; abandonment of the Phased Manufacturing Program (PMP); dilution of the dividend balancing condition and export obligation; liberalization of the terms for import of technology and royalty payment; etc."¹¹

The Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-93 to 1996-97) regarding foreign capital has liberalized the capital flow through the form of FDI. Main

measures in this direction are automatic approval of foreign technology visa-viz to increase the foreign equity up to 51% in about 31 areas, declining of technology transfer from equity investment to import flexibility and automatic approval for import of capital goods.

Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-98 to 2001-2002) on foreign capital observed, "Foreign investment provided external resources which help to finance the balance of payment deficit without adding to countries external debt. In this respect, the ability to attract foreign investment promotes the object of self-reliance by helping to avoid a buildup of external debt, which adds to our vulnerability. Apart from support the balance of payments, foreign investment also provides critical access to technology and other types of knowhow, and also potential linkages to world markets. In a world where trade is increasingly dominated by transnational corporations, it is important to encourage foreign investment as part of the process of modernizing our industry and developing linkages with the rest of the world. Foreign investment policy was re-oriented in Eight Plan Period to encourage a larger flow of foreign investment into the economy, especially into the infrastructure sectors where a rapid expansion in capacity is urgently needed. FDI increased from US\$ 0.1 billion to US\$ 3.2 billion in 1997-98. This level can be raised threefold by the end of ninth plan period. ... this caution is vindicated by the East Asian experience. External policy should continue the process of cautions liberalization in financial sector with particularly caution on the buildup of short-term dept."¹²

Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA), 1999

Realizing that FERA, 1973 was not in true with the economic reform initiated since 1991, the government replaced it with a latest legislation, known as Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA 1999) which came into effect as of June 1, 2000. The objective of new legislation as stated that, " in the foreword to the act is to capability external trade and payments and promotes the orderly development maintenance of the foreign exchange market in India-a shift in the approach from conservation of foreign exchange resources of the country and the proper utilization thereof under the FERA, 1973."¹³

Under FEMA, foreign exchange law violators are treated as civil offenders rather than as criminals as was the case under FERA, 1973. Contravention of the provision of FEMA invites monetary penalties. Moreover, FEMA provides for a number of appellate authorities who

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can be approach by the aggrieved party against whom penalty have been levied.

A qualitative adjust has been brought regarding the legal construction by FEMA. The objectives of guideline have been redefine as facilitating trade and payment as well as orderly development and continuation of foreign exchange market in India. The legal framework envisages together the developmental dimension and stability .The legislation provides control to the government to re-impose controls if public attents warrants it.

Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-03 to 2006-07) on foreign capital observed that, “In developing countries like India, FDI is seen as a means to supplement domestic investment for achieving a higher level of economic growth. FDI benefits the domestic industry as well as the consumers by providing opportunities for technology up-gradation, access to global managerial skills and practices, optimal utilization of human and natural resources, opening up export markets and access to international quality goods and services. Towards this end, the FDI policy has been constantly reviewed and necessary steps taken to make India a most favourable destination for foreign investors.”¹⁴

Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-12) period regarding the foreign capital states that, “Given the current scenario, FDI could increase significantly during the Eleventh Plan. During the Eleventh Plan steps would need to be taken to consolidate the gains from FDI by reducing the delays in state-level clearances required by investors to establish enterprises. Progress towards elimination of FDI limits in key sector also needs to continue in order to increase FDI flows and stimulate transfer of technology, which is critical for improving competitiveness.”¹⁵

It is very easy to see the importance of foreign capital in our economy of the approach paper of the twelfth five year plan. So according to twelfth five year plan, “India has followed calibrated policy of opening up the capital account, differentiating according to the nature of capital flows, FDI is regarded as the most stable capital flow which also provides technology and marketing links, and has therefore been most freely allowed. Portfolio flows as not as suitable as FDI, but they are also not as volatile as short term debt and have been allowed freely from qualified FIIs. Short-term debt from abroad is the least stable form of capital flow and is, therefore, highly controlled except for trade credit. Langer term external barrowing is allowed more liberally but

subject to caps. This policy produced good result in the 11th plan, yielding and annual average net capital inflow of 4.1% of GDP during the 11th Plan. Since the average account deficit was 2.7% of GDP, the net capital inflow exceeded what was required to finance the current account deficit and contributed to build up of foreign exchange reserves.

Looking ahead, if we assume that worst case outcomes will be avoided, then even though Europe may grow very slowly in the coming years, world financial market can be expected to establish. On this assumption, it is reasonable to assume that India can finance a current account deficit of around 2.5% of GDP relying mainly on FDI and FII flows, with some reports to long term borrowing. Since the projected current account deficit for 8% growth is somewhat higher, financing the deficit will be a stress point in the years ahead. Capital flows for Europe may, will be subdued, but there is scope for diversifying to tap other market, notably Japan and also the sovereign wealth fund in the Middle East. The key element that will make this possible is that India must be seen to be set on a high growth path, with macroeconomic balances coming under control over the medium term, and policies to words foreign investment being viewed as supportive.”¹⁶

Table 2¹⁷
FDI inflow to India by other investing countries (in Rs. Billion)

Year Country	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002*	Total (1996-2002)	% of total inflows
U.S.A	100.6	135.7	35.6	35.8	41.9	49.2	16.7	415.5	28.75433
Mauritius	23.3	104.3	31.7	38	72.3	28.9	12.4	310.9	21.51557
U.K	15.2	44.9	32	29.6	4.1	49.9	8.5	184.2	12.7474
Japan	14.9	19.1	12.8	15.9	8.3	7.4	3.2	81.6	5.647059
Korea	32.2	19.6	3.7	36.5	0.4	0.7	0.1	93.2	6.449827
Germany	15.4	21.6	8.5	11.4	5.9	4.1	0.6	67.5	4.67128
Netherlands	10.5	8.7	5	6.3	0	36.9	4	71.4	4.941176
Australia	8.3	4.3	26.4	6.5	0.6	0.8	0.3	47.2	3.266436
France	16.7	7.1	5.1	14.5	2	6.8	3.7	55.9	3.868512
Malaysia	0.4	21	18	1.2	0.2	1.1	2.8	44.7	3.093426
Singapore	3.2	8.6	7.7	8.3	3.2	3.8	1.1	35.9	2.484429
Italy	1.4	11.9	2.8	17.6	1.1	1.7	0.5	37.0	2.560554
Total	242.1	406.8	189.3	221.6	140	191.3	53.9	1445	100.00

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Table:-3¹⁸
Share of top investing country FDI Equity inflow (in Rs.)

Rank	Country	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	Cumulative inflow	%age to total inflow
1	Mauritius	28759	44483	50794	42924	204196	44
2	Singapore	2662	12339	15727	8188	42040	9
3	USA	3861	4377	8220	7577	35556	8
4	UK	8389	4690	3840	1841	34746	5
5	Netherland	2905	2780	3922	3687	19539	4
6	Cyprus	2666	3385	5983	6419	16468	4
7	Japan	382	336	1889	5197	16421	4
8	Germany	540	2075	2750	2581	12069	3
9	UAE	1174	1039	1133	2824	6830	1
10	France	528	583	2098	1158	6639	1
Total FDI inflows		70630	98664	122919	100539	493665	83%

Table:-4¹⁹
Share of top investing country FDI Equity inflow (Financial Year)

Rank	Country	2011-12 (April-March)	2012-13 (April-March)	2013-14 (April-March)	Cumulative Inflows (April 00-March 14)	%age to total Inflows (in terms of US \$)
1.	Mauritius	46,710 (9,942)	51,654 (9,497)	29,360 (4,459)	370,485 (78,525)	36%
2.	Singapore	24,712 (5,257)	12,594 (2,308)	35,625 (5,985)	125,807 (25,445)	12%
3.	U.K	36,428 (7,874)	5,797 (1,080)	20,426 (3,215)	100,885 (20,764)	10%
4.	Japan	14,089 (2,972)	12,243 (2,237)	10,550 (1,718)	80,644 (16,268)	8%
5.	U.S.A.	5,347 (1,115)	3,033 (557)	4,807 (806)	55,730 (11,927)	6%
6.	Netherlands	6,698 (1,409)	10,054 (1,856)	13,920 (2,270)	56,298 (11,236)	5%
7.	Cyprus	7,722 (1,587)	2,658 (490)	3,401 (557)	35,729 (7,446)	3%
8.	Germany	7,452 (1,622)	4,684 (860)	6,093 (1,038)	31,605 (6,519)	3%
9.	France	3,110 (663)	3,487 (646)	1,842 (305)	18,706 (3,879)	2%
10.	Switzerland	1,728 (353)	987 (180)	2,084 (341)	13,148 (2,708)	1%
Total FDI Inflows from all Countries		165,146 (35,121)	121,907 (22,423)	147,518 (24,299)	1,044,430 (217,703)	-

*Includes inflows under NRI Schemes of RBI.

In the country wise FDI in India, the share of investment approvals increased for all investing countries during 1996- 2002 (see the table2). The table 2 also reveals that in the ranking of cumulative investment during period 1996 to May 2002, USA is the largest investor in India with an investment of RS. 415.5 billion And then Mauritius, UK, Japan, Korea, Germany... follow in that order. The recent data on FDI equity flow show that the Mauritius has surpassed the USA (see the table 3).

In the above table (4) show the current scenario of the top investing country in India. The analysis of above table it is very clear that Mauritius, Singapore, and U.K. are first three top investing country in India.

The share of these countries are approximately 58% of the total investment. As the compression of table 2 and 3 the present scenario are slightly different in terms of rank and share of FDI inflows in Indian Economy.

3.8 Industry-wise shares of FDI in India

The industry-wise share of FDI has been given in the table 2. This table clearly shows that in the beginning years of the 1990s the secondary Sector attracted heavy FDI flow in India.

However, in the post-liberalization phase the sectors, considered very important elements of the modern economy, like telecommunication, power generation, consulting services, and so on also attracted greater amount of FDI.

In fact, the share of these sectors in total FDI inflow increased drastically from 5.2 percent by 1990 to about 58.7 percent during 1991-1997.

It is good to see that there is an increasing FDI inflow into sectors like infrastructure and power generation because these are some of the areas which had long been kept reserved for the public sector enterprises which are not efficient in handling these sectors, which resulted in India's trade and industrial sector becoming least competitive in the international context.²⁰

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Table-5²¹
Industry-wise shares of FDI stock (Rs. 10 million)

Industry Group	March 1990		Aug.1991Sept.1997(*)	
	Value	%	Value	%
Primary Sector	267.0	9.9	363.2	0.2
(1) Agriculture	256.0	9.5	00	00
(2) Mining	8.0	0.3	363.2	0.2
(3) petroleum	3.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Secondary Sector	2298.0	85	95282.4	41.2
(1)Food and beverages	162.0	6.0	14423.5	6.2
(2)Textile	92.0	3.4	3817.1	1.6
(3)Machinery and machine tools	354.0	13.0	17186.9	7.4
(4)Transport equipment	282.0	10.0	14654.7	6.3
(5)Metal & metal product	141.0	5.2	12098.0	5.2
(6)Electrical goods	295.0	11.0	7734.4	3.3
(7)Chemical & chemical product	769.0	28.0	17662.7	7.6
(8)Paper & paper product	Na	Na	3409.8	1.5
(9)Rubber goods	Na	Na	837.4	0.4
(10)Other manufacturing	Na	-	3457.6	1.5
Tertiary Sector	140.0	5.2	135884.5	58.7
(1)Telecommunication	-	-	47196.2	20.4
(2)Power generation	-	-	65488.1	28.3
(3)Services	140.0	5.2	23200.1	10.1
Total	2705.0	100.0	231540.1	100.0

*Average annual

(128)

October-December 2014

Table-6²²
Sectors Attracting Highest FDI Equity Inflows

Ranks	Sector	2011-12 (April- March)	2012-13 (April- March)	2013-14 (April- March)	Cumulative Inflows (April 00- March 14)	%age to total Inflows (In terms of US \$)
1.	SERVICES SECTOR **	24,656 (5,216)	26,306 (4,833)	13,294 (2,225)	185,570 (39,460)	18 %
2.	CONSTRUCTION DEVELOPMENT: TOWNSHIPS, HOUSING, BUILT-UP INFRASTRUCTURE	15,236 (3,141)	7,248 (1,332)	7,508 (1,226)	108,558 (23,306)	11 %
3.	TELECOMMUNICATIONS (radio paging, cellular mobile, basic telephone services)	9,012 (1,997)	1,654 (304)	7,987 (1,307)	66,720 (14,163)	7 %
4.	COMPUTER SOFTWARE & HARDWARE	3,804 (796)	2,656 (486)	6,896 (1,126)	59,671 (12,817)	6 %
5.	DRUGS & PHARMACEUTICALS	14,605 (3,232)	6,011 (1,123)	7,191 (1,279)	56,070 (11,598)	5 %
6.	AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY	4,347 (923)	8,384 (1,537)	9,027 (1,517)	48,197 (9,812)	5 %
7.	CHEMICALS (OTHER THAN FERTILIZERS)	18,422 (4,041)	1,596 (292)	4,738 (878)	45,234 (9,668)	4 %
8.	POWER	7,678 (1,652)	2,923 (536)	6,519 (1,066)	42,655 (8,900)	4 %
9.	METALLURGICAL INDUSTRIES	8,348 (1,786)	7,878 (1,466)	3,436 (568)	38,250 (8,075)	4 %
10.	HOTEL & TOURISM	4,754 (993)	17,777 (3,259)	2,949 (486)	36,209 (7,118)	3 %

** Services sector includes Financial, Banking, Insurance, Non-Financial/ Business, Outsourcing, R&D, Courier, Tech. Testing and Analysis

In the above table (6) shows the sectors attracting highest FDI in the recent time. In the services sector are getting 18% inflows, construction development: townships, housing, built-up infrastructure are getting 11% and telecommunications (radio paging, cellular mobile, basic telephone services) are getting 7% FDI inflows to the total inflows of FDI.

3.9 Geographical Distribution of FDI inflow (state wise FDI inflow)

Balanced geographical distribution of FDI inflows could have been instrumental in achieving sustainable growth. However, there seems to wide concentration of FDI inflow around Mumbai region (36%) followed by New Delhi region(19%), Karnataka(6%), Gujarat(6%), Tamil Nadu(5%) and Andhra Pradesh(4%). It shows that these regions receive 77% of FDI equity inflow while rest of India accounts for only 23%. Lack of proper incentive from the various state governments is

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responsible for wide disparities of foreign investment. These states are also backward in terms of skilled manpower and infrastructure. (M. Shamim Ansari, M. Ranga).

Table:- 7²³

**Statement on RBI'S Regional Offices (With State Covered)
Received FDI Equity Inflows²⁴ (form April, 2000 to March, 2014)**

S. No.	RBI's - Regional Office ¹	State covered	2011-12 (April - March)	2012-13 (April - March)	2013-14 (April, 13-March, 2014)	Cumulative Inflows (April '00 - March '14)	%age to total Inflows (in terms of US\$)
1.	MUMBAI	MAHARASHTRA, DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI, DAMAN & DIU	44,664 (9,553)	47,359 (8,716)	20,595 (3,420)	314,088 (66,757)	31
2.	NEW DELHI	DELHI, PART OF UP AND HARYANA	37,403 (7,983)	17,490 (3,222)	38,190 (6,242)	206,771 (42,535)	19
3.	CHENNAI	TAMIL NADU, PONDICHERRY	6,711 (1,422)	15,252 (2,807)	12,595 (2,116)	65,406 (13,197)	6
4.	BANGALORE	KARNATAKA	7,235 (1,533)	5,553 (1,023)	11,422 (1,892)	60,867 (12,676)	6
5.	AHMEDABAD	GUJARAT	4,730 (1,001)	2,676 (493)	5,282 (860)	44,382 (9,510)	4
6.	HYDERABAD	ANDHRA PRADESH	4,039 (848)	6,290 (1,159)	4,024 (678)	40,915 (8,646)	4
7.	KOLKATA	WEST BENGAL, SIKKIM, ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS	1,817 (394)	2,319 (424)	2,659 (436)	13,164 (2,742)	1
8.	CHANDIGARH	CHANDIGARH, PUNJAB, HARYANA, HIMACHAL PRADESH	624 (130)	255 (47)	562 (91)	6,126 (1,292)	1
9.	BHOPAL	MADHYA PRADESH, CHATTISGARH	569 (123)	1,208 (220)	708 (119)	5,495 (1,115)	0.5
10.	KOCHI	KERALA, LAKSHADWEEP	2,274 (471)	390 (72)	411 (70)	4,732 (981)	0.5
11.	PANAJI	GOA	181 (38)	47 (9)	103 (17)	3,656 (788)	0.4
12.	JAIPUR	RAJASTHAN	161 (33)	714 (132)	233 (38)	3,558 (723)	0.3
13.	BHUBANESHWAR	ORISSA	125 (28)	285 (52)	288 (48)	1,906 (388)	0.2
14.	KANPUR	UTTAR PRADESH, UTTARANCHAL	635 (140)	167 (31)	150 (25)	1,765 (372)	0.2
15.	GUWAHATI	ASSAM, ARUNACHAL PRADESH, MANIPUR, MEGHALAYA, MIZORAM, NAGALAND, TRIPURA	5 (1)	27 (5)	4 (0.6)	352 (79)	0
16.	PATNA	BIHAR, JHARKHAND	123 (24)	41 (8)	9 (1)	199 (39)	0
17.	JAMMU	JAMMU & KASHMIR	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	0

In the recent scenarios for the geographical distribution of FDI shows the above table no. (7). In this table the present time Mumbai (31%), Dew Delhi (19%), Chennai (6%), Bangalore (6%), and Ahmedabad (4%) and Hyderabad (4%) are most attracting reason in our country. In the compression to the previous para there are slightly change in the reason.

3.10 Conclusion

In the present study an attempt had been made to examine the flow of FDI in India after independence. To sum up, the government has introduced changes into the Economic Policy from time to time attracts more and more FDI. We could also see the inflow of FDI, But before 1991 India got limited FDI because of restricted government policy. And when India was adopted new economic policy the flow of foreign capital increases very rapidly. In the initial stage, secondary sector gets huge amount of FDI but at present the territory sector is the leading sector which gets maximum FDI in India. In this chapter also include country wise and state wise FDI inflow of India. Mauritius is highest investing country in Indian economy and Maharashtra is highest getting FDI inflow state in our country. And the condition are more or less same in the present time in case of more investing country and geographical distribution. So policy of Indian government is one of the important factors which increase the inflow of foreign capital in the economy. In 1991 not only FDI inflow is increases but also growth of the country also increases.

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Information and Communication Technology: As the Source of Skill Development

Dr. Reeta Kumari Bhagat

Abstract

As India marches towards an exciting new future of growth and progress, knowledge and skill development will play a pivotal role in crafting a sustainable development agenda. Information and Communication technology (ICT) become an important element in skill development of our human resource development. Growth of ICT has become very fast in the previous decades. With the development of new communication technology such as satellite television, broadcasting, mobile communications, smart phone, internet, laptop, net book tablets etc., have sparked of optimism about their potential to harness educational development in India. Today, technology implementations may reach across campuses, institutions, departments, offices and other workplaces and often require the integration of systems involving both academic and business units. Introducing new information technologies into skill development and exploring the new horizon for using the various technologies for more effective instruction and delivery of education inside and outside classrooms are burning issues. India as a developing country, there are many advantages and constraints in the application of ICT in skill development. It has become an integral part of every sphere of development process of our country. This paper highlights all those aspects related to ICT in skill development process in India.

Introduction

India's Growth performance in recent years has attracted the attention of researchers, analysts and policy makers around the globe.

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It is projected that with consistently high growth rates, India would emerge as one of the largest economies of the world. While growth projections appear encouraging, the major challenge for India would be to meet the emerging human resource requirements of an expanding economy. Despite its population of more than 100 billion India suffers from manpower deficiency, mainly due to absence of required skills among the vast majority of its workforce. Skill shortage can really hurt India's growth prospects. The so called demographic dividends can wither away very fast if 'Young India' is not represented by people with right skills. A relatively recent report (2008) by Confederation of Indian industry (CII) and Boston Consulting Group (BCG) highlights the fact that over the next five years the Indian economy will experience a severe shortfall of skilled workers in the presence of huge surplus of unskilled manpower. Thus the task before India is quite challenging. On the one hand, the country has to maintain the growth momentum by ensuring adequate availability of skilled workforce, which is currently in short supply. On the other hand, it has to create ample employment opportunity for a vast population having low or no skills. The Information and communication technology (ICT) will play an attractive role in transforming the unskilled people into skilled human resource development. Experiences with the 'Information Village Research Project' demonstrate that rural people can acquire ICT skill fast, even without having high-level of literacy. Governments are spending thousands of crores with the hope that ICTs can enable the poorest of developing nations to overcome traditional problems of development like poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, unemployment and corruption.

Definition of ICT

The term, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) refers to forms to technologies that are used to create, store, share, transmit or exchange information. This broad definition of ICT includes such technologies as: radio, television, video, DVD, telephone (both fixed line and mobile phones), satellite systems, computer and network hardware and software as well as the equipment and services associated with these technologies, such as video-conferencing and electronic mail.

The new and emerging technologies challenge the traditional process of teaching and learning and the way of education is managed. Information Technology (IT), while an important area of study in its own right, is having a major impact across all curriculum areas. Easy worldwide communication provides instant access to a vast array of

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data, challenging assimilation and assessment skills. Rapid communication plus increased access to IT in the home, at work and in educational establishments, could mean that learning becomes a truly lifelong activity-an activity in which the pace of technological change forces constant evaluation of the learning process itself.

The information society challenges the education system. In recent years the speedy, effective and global communication of knowledge has created a new foundation for co-operation and teamwork, both nationally and internationally. The increasing role played by information technology in the development of society calls for an active reaction to the challenges of the information society. New and greater demands are being made as to the core qualifications of individuals as well as to their understanding and knowledge of the consequences of the introduction of IT for the work and organization of a company. In a society which is becoming increasingly dependent on information and the processing of knowledge, great demands are, therefore, made that the individual should have a solid and broad educational foundation on which to build.

Need of Information and Communication Technology in Education and Skill Development

- Education and skill development is a lifelong process; therefore, anytime anywhere access to it is to need.
- Information explosion is an ever increasing phenomenon; therefore, there is need to get access to this information.
- Skill development should meet the needs of a variety of learners and, therefore, ICT is important in meeting this need.
- It is a requirement of the society that the individuals should process technological literacy.
- We need to increase access and bring down the cost of education to meet the challenges of illiteracy and poverty – ICT are the answer.

ICT Educational Policy Must Ensure

- Up-to-date qualifications in the information society.
- Up-to-date qualifications gained against the background of a high general level of education in the population will be decisive. IT skills and IT understanding are thus central prerequisites for the individual, both now and especially in the future.

The advantage of using IT is that time-consuming work routines can increasingly be performed by means of this technology and time can thus be devoted instead to communicating and informing, to the processing of information and the production of knowledge.

ICT Can Help In

- Building high quality learning and teaching environment.
- Building high quality advanced research environment, and
- Better assessment and evaluation, particularly group assessment and continuous assessment.

Significance of ICT in Skill Development

1. Access to a Variety of Learning Resources

ICT aids plenty of resources to enhance the teaching skills and learning ability. With the help of ICT now it is easy to provide audio-visual education. The learning resources are being widened. Now with this vivid and vast technique as part of the ICT curriculum, learners are encouraged to regard computers as tools to be used in all aspects of their studies. In particular, they need to make use of the new multimedia technologies to communicate ideas, described projects and other information in their work.

2. Immediacy to Information

ICT has provided immediacy to education. Now in the year of computers and web networks, the pace of imparting knowledge is very fast and one can be educated anywhere at any time.

3. Anytime, Anywhere Learning

Now in the year of computers and web networks, the pace of imparting knowledge is very fast and one can be educated. One can study whenever he will irrespective of time and place.

4. Collaborative Learning

Now ICT has made it easy to study as well as teach in groups or in clusters. With online we can be united together to do the desired task. Efficient postal systems, the telephone (fixed and mobile) and various recording and playback systems based on computer technology, all have a part of play in educational broadcasting. The internet and its websites are now familiar to many children in the developed countries and among educationalists.

5. Multimedia and Audio-visual Approach to Skill Development

Audio-visual education, planning, preparation, use of devices and materials that involve sight, sound, or both, are using for skill development purposes. Among the devices used are still and motion pictures, filmstrips, television, transparencies, audiotapes, records, teaching machines, computers and videodiscs. The growth of audio-visual education system has reflected developments in both technology and learning theory.

Studies in the psychology of learning suggest that the use of audio-visuals in education has several advantages. All learning is based on perception, the process by which the senses gain information from the environment. The higher processes of memory and concept formation cannot occur without prior perception. People can attend to only a limited amount of information at a time; their selection and perception of information is influenced by past experiences. Researchers have found that, other conditions being equal, more information is taken in if it is received simultaneously in two modalities (vision and hearing, for example) rather than in a single modality. Furthermore, learning is enhanced when the material is organized and that organization is evident to the student. These findings suggest the value of audio-visuals in the educational process. They can facilitate perception of the most important features, can be carefully organized and can require the student to use more than one modality.

6. Authentic and up-to-date Information

The information and date which are available on the net is purely correct and up-to-date. Internet, a collection of computer networks that operate to common standards and enable the computers and the programs they run to communicate directly provides true and correct information.

7. Online Library

Internet supports thousands of different kinds of operational and experimental services, one of which is online library. We can get plenty of data on this online library. As part of the Information technology curriculum, learners are encouraged to regard computers as tools to be used in all aspects of their studies. In particular, they need to make use of the new multimedia technologies to communicate ideas, describe projects and order information in their work. This requires them to select the medium best suited to conveying their message, to structure

information in a hierarchical manner and to link together information to produce a multi-dimensional document.

Distance Learning and Skill Development

Distance learning is a method of learning at a distance rather than in a classroom. Late 20th-century, communications technologies, in their most recent phases multimedia and interactive, open up new possibilities, both individual and institutional, for an unprecedented expansion of home-based learning, much of it part-time. The convergence of increased demand for access to educational facilities and innovative communications technology has been increasingly exploited in face of criticisms that distance learning is an inadequate substitute for learning alongside others in formal institutions. A powerful incentive has been reduced costs per student. At the same time, students studying at home themselves save on travel time and other costs.

Distance learning widens access for students unable for whatever reason (course availability, geographical remoteness, and family circumstances, individual disability) to study alongside others. At the same time, it appeals to students who prefer learning at home. In addition, it appeals to organizers of professional and business education providing an incentive to rethink the most effective way of communicating vital information and skill development.

Better Access to Children with Disabilities

Information Technology has brought drastic changes in the life of disabled children. It provides various software and techniques to educate these poor people. Unless provided early with special training, people profoundly deaf from birth are incapable of learning to speak. Deafness from birth causes severe sensory deprivation, which can seriously affect a person's intellectual capacity or ability to learn. A child who sustains a hearing loss early in life may lack the language stimulation experienced by children who can hear. The critical period for neurological plasticity is up to age seven. Failure of acoustic sensory input during this period results in failure of formation of synaptic connections and, possibly, an irremediable situation for the child. A delay in learning language may cause a deaf child's academic progress to be slower than that of hearing children. The academic lag tends to be cumulative, so that a deaf adolescent may be four or more academic years behind his or her hearing peers. Deaf children who receive early

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language stimulation through sign language, however, generally achieve academically alongside their hearing peers.

The integration of information technology in teaching is a central matter in ensuring quality in skill development. There are two equally important reasons for integrating IT in teaching. a). Pupils must become familiar with the use of IT, since all jobs in the society of the future will be dependent on it and b). Information technology must be used in teaching in order to improve its quality and make it more effective.

Application and Models of ICT Use

There are many projects across the country that address the digital divide and gender issue. The various projects and initiatives tend to cluster into two categories in so far as their use of ICT is concerned: broadcast technologies and digital technologies.

- 1) *Broadcast Technologies:* Except in a very few instances, broadcast technologies are owned and operated either by the government directly or by publicly funded institutions established for the purpose.
- 2) *Digital Technologies:* Some of the initiatives using digital technologies are spread across the country and not restricted to any one region:

The Government of India's efforts in providing multipurpose community information centre in all parts of the country in cooperation with the Indian Institute of Technology. Madhya Pradesh is the state which provides computers along with multimedia learning kits for students and teachers in rural community schools that are set up under the Education Guarantee Scheme. The Government of Goa is also involved in an initiative to provide Goa schools with computers for use by students. Project Vidya, a partnership between the Government of India and Intel, seeks to improve the quality of educational input in selected government schools through out the country by providing both ICT access and training to students and teachers for skill development.

Public Private Partnerships, ICT and Skill Development

India is currently exploring how to equip all of its secondary schools with computer labs and discussions of the appropriate use of PPPs in this process are an explicit part of this exploration, in the view of India's Second National Consultative meet on public-private partnerships in education occurred in November, 2009. On the basis of such public private partnership initiative in India with a high international profile, it is directed to all State Government to take initiative of targeting

girls, rural children, urban underprivileged children and children with special needs through various ICT and non-ICT interventions, as the Rajasthan government implemented it science in 2005 with close partnership and number of partnership. Now, the Bihar Government has also taken serious initiative in this field. India moves forward with its plans to increase the use of ICT in skill development through a variety of PPPs, it would do well by studying the Rajasthan experience, for public-private partnerships of this sort are complex undertakings.

ICT Interventions in Education and Skill Development

Over the past few decades, technology has completely transformed our lives in all possible ways. India, a successful ICT powered nation, has always laid a lot of accent on the use of ICT, not only for good governance but also in diverse sectors of the economy such as health, agriculture and education, etc.

Education undoubtedly is one of the most important investments in building human capital in a country and a medium that not only sculpts good literate citizens but also makes a nation technologically innovative, thus paving a path to economic growth. In India, many programmes and schemes such as free and compulsory primary education “Education for All” movement (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan), National Literacy Mission, etc., have been launched by the government to improve the education system and skill development.

In the recent years, there has been a groundswell of interest in how ICT has been deployed in the education sector. One of the most vital contributions of ICT in the field of education is easy access to learning resources. With the help of ICT, students can now browse through e-books, sample examination papers, previous year papers etc., and can also have an easy access to resource persons, mentors, experts, researchers, professionals, and peers-all over the world.

Anytime-anywhere, one of the most distinctive feature of ICT is its ability to transcend time and space. Keeping this module in mind, ICT has made asynchronous learning (digital learning) possible. One can now use online course study material, at any hour of the day. ICT-based educational delivery (broadcast of educational programmes over radio and television) also dispenses with the need for all learners and the instructor to be in one physical location.

ICT has acted as a perfect motivating tool as well since using it as a media to teach includes usage of videos, television and multimedia computer software that combine text, sound and colour. This allows the students to get more engaged in the learning process.

Initiatives and Challenges

As per the 2001 census, India has a BPL population of roughly 260 million and 300 million school dropouts in the age bracket of 6 to 16. In this country with the youngest population, nearly 13 million people enter the labour market every year. While the world is likely to have a shortage of about 47 million working people by 2020, India will have 65% of its population in the working age bracket and a 56 million strong surplus labour force. The challenge before the country is to impart adequate and right kind of skills to this surplus labour force to enable them to earn better wages for themselves and for the country. Our present capacity for skill development programme is for 3 million. The target is to raise it to 15 million during the end of 11th five year plan and to 500 million by 2022, with emphasis on inclusion in terms of gender, rural/urban, organized/unorganized, minorities, SC/ST, regions with balanced development.

Indian society is now effectively competing with the global economy. Unfortunately, Indian educational institutions cannot cope with the global demand for new skills, due to limited institutional provisions. The educational institutions in India should facilitate lifelong learning for competing in the global economy. In modern age, functional literates are those who can learn, un-learn and re-learn in a given situation. Nowadays technologies are also available for provisioning to learn, un-learn and re-learn. In this situation, there should be flexibility in the curricula, not a fixed syllabus. Indian technical institutions should attract foreign students for capital development. Ministry of Human Resource Development is investing Rs.600 crore for the establishment of National Knowledge Network, networking higher educational and technical institutions of the country with 15 GB bandwidth connectivity. This network will be instrumental for transforming Indian institutions to cope up with the challenges in the global economy.

India actively promotes the use of ICTs in skill development. Today, the country's decision-makers, at both the central and State levels, have chosen to explore the use of newer computer and internet-based ICTs for education, along with broadcast ICTs and have been promoting the use of open and distance learning for both the formal and non-formal education sectors. The launch of a dedicated broadcast education satellite, EDUSAT with capacity for specialized educational channels and up to 5,00 FM community broadcasting stations for use by educational institutions. This infrastructure will be available to all sectors of education, but primarily to publicly founded and

implementing agencies that will be responsible for transmission and programming for their defined audiences. For instance, a State Government will be able to use the channel capacity for governance, an open school for transmission of its own programmes, agricultural agencies for agricultural extension etc.

There has been dramatic shift from the 2000s to the present day in terms of access to technology by the population in general. Technologies like Wireless in Local Loop (WLL) and Very Small Aperture Terminal (VSATs) are being used for internet and intranet purposes. The current annual rate of growth in the telephone sector is at 48 per cent for mobile telephone. Radio has a penetration of 100 per cent in the country while satellite and terrestrial television cover nearly 80 per cent of the country.

Fortunately, the ICT as a tool in skill development is available to us at this juncture and we wish to fully utilize it to enhance the current enrollment rate in education from 10% at present to 15% by the end of the 11th plan period. A budget allocation of Rs. 502 crores has been made in 2008-09 for the 'National Mission on Education' through ICT. Under this mission, a proper balance between content generation, research in critical areas relating to imparting of education and connectivity for integrating our knowledge with the advancements in other countries is to be attempted. This mission seeks to support such initiatives and build upon the synergies between various efforts by adopting a holistic approach. It is obvious that emphasis on ICT is a crying need as it acts as a multiplier for capacity building efforts of educational institutions without compromising the quality. The mission is also necessary to sustain a high growth rate of our economy through the capacity building and knowledge empowerment of the people and for promoting new, upcoming multi-disciplinary fields of knowledge.

However, access to ICT is still limited because of physical infrastructure constraints such as lack of electricity, poor maintenance of telephone lines and distance from the kiosk or cyber café, economic constraints such as extreme poverty; educational limitations such as illiteracy and the lack of relevant content in the local language; and social constraints of gender, class, community and caste. Data are not readily available to indicate the extent to which social constraints limit access to technology.

A fundamental challenge is facing the development of Multimedia Teaching and Learning (MTL) material, namely how to ensure that a suitable level of quality is being maintained. Computer-based and web-

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based multimedia content ware is itself dynamic, built of bits and bytes, using software development tools that combine, in some cases, the power to create with the simplicity of use.

While developing educational multimedia resources, it is important to take into account objectives at the level of the individual learner, the school and the State. Each has different characteristics, expectations and needs and the means to fulfill them are all interrelated. For this reason, development of learning resources is linked, strategically with processes of educational reform and the transformation of teaching and learning.

What are the methods of skilling and re-skilling educators to adopt changing faces of technology? How can educators be guided on effective use of these new tools that focus on learning activities, rather than content delivery or general learner management? How to build buy-in and ownership among educators and motivate them to spearhead the ICT-based education process? How to build e-Learning professionalism among educators, these key factors explain the best strategies for facilitating the educator seamless progress from the traditional role of an instructor to the new role of a facilitator of learning.

Challenges are manifold, starting from inadequate basic amenities in schools (such as classroom, teacher and blackboard), then basic ICT infrastructure in schools (such as ICT equipments, hardware, software, digital literacy among teachers) and lastly ICT-enabled environment (such as quality content, ICT-enabled curricula, interactive learning environment). Amongst the three phases of e-Education, digital literacy is positioned in the first phase, which is still not in the country at large. This phase establishes a baseline for startup. Content creation and content sharing to communicate one to many are placed in the second phase. Interactive and collaborative content creation can be placed in phase three is the high end of e-Education that helps an ordinary student to become a creative, smart and intelligent kid.

The government plans to use ICT in delivering educational services to schools and institutions of higher learning in a big way. A national mission on education through ICT will be launched through the collaborative efforts of the Ministry of HRD, Department of Information Technology and Department of Telecom, to increase ICT coverage in all the 378 universities and 18064 colleges in the country. The mission will focus on digitization and networking of all educational institutions, developing low cost, low power consuming devices, and making available

bandwidth for educational purposes. Advanced computational facilities will be provided in select institutions.

In order to cop with the challenges of this age of networked intelligence, a National Knowledge Network and Connected Digital Campuses will be established to facilitate collaborative research and sharing of knowledge. The National Knowledge Network will enable institutions of higher learning to have digital campuses, video-conference classrooms, and wireless hot-spots campus wide. The aim is to create a world-class ambience by establishing a dynamically configurable national, multi-gigabit network that also integrates seamlessly with global science, connecting all educational institutions, R&D institutions, hospitals, libraries, or agricultural institutions. In the first phase 1000 institutions would be brought under this network, as recommended by the National Knowledge Commission. A suitable structured Empowered Committee, consisting of stakeholder, assisted by a Technical Advisory Committee, will coordinate the activities of creation and implementation of the content, applications and establishment of the network.

It is also proposed to establish ICT infrastructure at the 1.08 lakh government and government-aided secondary and senior secondary schools during the Eleventh Plan period. The infrastructure will consist of a networked computer lab with at least ten computers, a server, a printer connected on Local Area Network and broadband internet connectivity of 2 Mbps. Every school will also have a technology classroom, with audio visual equipment for enhancing the learning. A dedicated programme for content creation as per the curricula will be undertaken as an integral part of this initiative. In addition, educational content on CDs for embellishing classroom teaching will also be made available. Training of teachers in the use of computers and teaching through computers will be another important component of this initiative. An amount of Rs 5000 crore is being provided during the Eleventh Plan for providing this infrastructure. The scheme will be implemented in partnership with the State and private providers, and will be a submission of the National Mission on ICT of Ministry of HRD.

Conclusion

Experts from all fields, including education, business and government agree that we have moved into the information age. The ICT is, no longer to provide educational opportunities through early adulthood, but to provide the scaffolding necessary to support individuals and families from all walks of life, throughout their entire

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lives. As an agent of immense change, technology has heralded our present knowledge economy and given rise to a generation of students who have never known life without a computer.

These changes will have a significant ripple effect on skill development. Over the next decade, advanced technologies will put skill within the reach of many more individuals and will allow greater specialization in curriculum and teaching methodologies than ever before. With these benefits comes the challenge of ensuring that institutional infrastructure and operations are in place to support the adoption of technology on campus. As ever, administrators will need to weigh carefully how budget funds are spent, decide what emerging technologies, show the most promise and determine, how best to support these technological advances while avoiding the ever-present risk of obsolescence. We should adopt that technology which is feasible, practical, cost-effective and meets the need of students. A decision on new technology should be taken very carefully.

Much of the future will be decided by our own response to the new ICTs. If we did not appreciate and accept it, it will unquestionably ruin the value and growth of profession. If we embrace the technology and extensively use its capability, it can only broaden and fulfill our professional aspirations. Technology has to be used as a tool to render assistance to achieve our goal of the profession to serve the end user as providers of information, pin-pointedly, expeditiously and exhaustively. It is time to embrace these challenges, to grasp the future and pull us forward. We look forward to a period when, because of the great universal availability of this technology, we would be able to improve the quality of lives even for poor people by both thinking positively and living a meaningful and informed life. ICT create new types of economic activity, employment opportunities and improvements in delivery of healthcare and other services.

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Managing Change: An Organizational Perspective

Ashish Vats

Today's business environment produces change in the workplace more suddenly and frequently than ever before. Mergers, acquisitions, new technology, restructuring and downsizing are all factors that contribute to a growing climate of uncertainty. Jobs, health, even marriages can be placed at risk, jeopardizing productivity and profitability. People have deep attachments to their organisation, work group, and way of working. The ability to adapt to changing work conditions is key for individual and organizational survival. Change will be ever present and learning to manage and lead change includes not only understanding human factors but also skill to manage and lead change effectively.

Change is concerned with making things different. Change intervention is a planned action to make things different. The person or persons who act as a catalyst and assume the responsibility for managing the change process is the change agent. From birth to death change is our constant companion. Mankind noticed the ever presence of change centuries ago. From the changes we ourselves initiate to those we don't have anything to do with, to changes that occur without a moments notice, change is perceptual, natural and frequently a sign of life. Change can also leave us feeling lost, out of control and uptight.

Organizational Change

"Change or die" is the rallying cry among today's organisations world wide. Organisational Change can be defined as concerted, planned effort to increase organizational effectiveness and health through changes in the organisation's dynamics using behavioral science knowledge.

The Three Shades of Change

"What type of Change are you trying to implement?" To most people that's a nonsensical question. A typical response is, "Type? What do you

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mean “Type of change”? We’re implementing a Change! Change is Change!” Or, they might have some sense that they can distinguish different types of Change. Some changes are “easy”, others are “difficult”... this is an “organisational change”, while that one is a “Technological change”.

There are fundamental problems with distinctions of easy vs. difficult, and technological vs. organisational. They either fail to cover the entire spectrum of possible changes or the lines separating the categories are too fuzzy. At what point along the spectrum does a Change project shift from “easy” to “difficult”? Where do we place the Change “Learning to play the bagpipes”? Organisational? Technological? Or do we need another category? Painful?

Another failing is that the distinction between one category and another doesn’t provide us any benefit. How is “Organisational” Change fundamentally different from “Technological” Change? Unless the scheme we use adds value to the process, it only adds confusion. What is required is a division which makes “sense”. Usually, after such a scheme is proposed, the reader responds with, “Of course! Why didn’t I think of that? It’s obvious!”

Perhaps worse than choosing inappropriate categories, is using no categories. This strategy leads to confusing assertions such as “People resist Change”, spoken by people who have willingly embraced huge personal changes; gotten married, had children, moved house, learned a second language etc. etc. By continuing to think of Change as “one thing” they ignore the consequent contradictions.

There is a way to split Change up into three distinct and useful categories. Consider the following division based on the “source” of the Change relative to us as individuals:

Type I – That which is done to us.

Type II – That which we do to ourselves.

Type III – That which we do to others.

As a rule nobody likes Type I Change.

We hate being told what to do. Why? Because it interferes with our definition of “self”, it violates our sense of independence, freedom and control of our own destiny. This is the type of Change we’re most likely to resist within the context of organisational Change.

Type II Change is different, very different.

We’re in control. We’re deciding for ourselves that doing something different is necessary. Because it’s our decision, we don’t “resist” our

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decision to Change. This does not mean Type II Change is easy. Learning to play those bagpipes or to speak Chinese, losing weight, moving to a new city, starting a new job or position, are all difficult tasks, but we don't resist them in the same way we resist when someone else tells us we have to do these things.

Type III Change is Type I Change from the other side of the fence.

If we're inflicting Type III Change, then they perceive it as Type I Change.

Relocating the Factory: Let's assume Management has decided, for a variety of reasons, to relocate the factory. This Change falls into all three categories depending on who's looking at the relocation.

For Management, the relocation is obviously a Type II Change. It's their idea, they're in control. While relocating is difficult, it's something they've embraced by deciding it is necessary. Coping with this self-inflicted Change is relatively easy.

For Management, it's also a Type III Change. It is one they are going to inflict on their employees. Inflicting Change is different than coping with it.

And for the Employees, this is a Type I Change. Change is forced on them by someone else.

Where we typically make our mistake as management, and where Change becomes difficult, is we assume that because this is a Type II Change for us, it's a Type II Change for everyone else. Unless we take into account how we react to Type I Change and accept that our employees see this as a Type I Change, then the relocation will be unnecessarily difficult.

Specific Types of Organisational Change

There are different overall types of organizational change, including planned versus unplanned, organization-wide versus change primarily to one part of the organization, incremental (slow, gradual change) versus transformational (radical, fundamental), etc. Knowing which types of change you are doing helps all participants to retain scope and perspective during the many complexities and frequent frustrations during change.

Major Types of Organisational Change

Typically, the phrase "organisational change" is about a significant change in the organisation, such as reorganisation or adding a major new product or service. This is in contrast to smaller changes, such as adopting a new computer procedure. Organisational change can seem

like such a vague phenomena that it is helpful if you can think of change in terms of various dimensions as described below.

Organization-wide Versus Subsystem Change

Examples of organisation-wide change might be a major restructuring, collaboration or “rightsizing.” Usually, organizations must undertake organisation-wide change to evolve to a different level in their life cycle, for example, going from a highly reactive, Entrepreneurial organisation to one that has a more stable and planned development. Experts assert that successful organisational change requires a change in culture – cultural change is another example of organisation-wide change.

Examples of a change in a subsystem might include addition or removal of a product or service, reorganisation of a certain department, or implementation of a new process to deliver products or services.

Transformational Versus Incremental Change

An example of transformational (or radical, fundamental) change might be changing an organisation’s structure and culture from the traditional top-down, hierarchical structure to a large amount of self-directing teams. Another example might be Business Process Re-engineering, which tries to take apart (at least on paper, at first) the major parts and processes of the organization and then put them back together in a more optimal fashion. Transformational change is sometimes referred to as quantum change. Examples of incremental change might include continuous improvement as a quality management process or implementation of new computer system to increase efficiencies. Many times, organisations experience incremental change and its leaders do not recognize the change as such.

Remedial Versus Developmental Change

Change can be intended to remedy current situations, for example, to improve the poor performance of a product or the entire organisation, reduce burnout in the workplace, and help the organisation to become much more proactive and less reactive, or address large budget deficits. Remedial projects often seem more focused and urgent because they are addressing a current, major problem. It is often easier to determine the success of these projects because the problem is solved or not.

Change can also be developmental – to make a successful situation even more successful, for example, expand the amount of customers served, or duplicate successful products or services. Developmental projects can seem more general and vague than remedial, depending on how specific goals are and how important it is for members of the

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organization to achieve those goals. Some people might have different perceptions of what is a remedial change versus a developmental change. They might see that if developmental changes are not made soon, there will be need for remedial changes.

Unplanned Versus Planned Change

Unplanned change usually occurs because of a major, sudden surprise to the organisation, which causes its members to respond in a highly reactive and disorganised fashion. Unplanned change might occur when the Chief Executive Officer suddenly leaves the organization, significant public relations problems occur, poor product performance quickly results in loss of customers, or other disruptive situations arise. Planned change occurs when leaders in the organization recognize the need for a major change and proactively organize a plan to accomplish the change. Planned change occurs with successful implementation of a Strategic Plan, plan for reorganisation, or other implementation of a change of this magnitude.

Note that planned change, even though based on a proactive and well-done plan, often does not occur in a highly organised fashion. Instead, planned change tends to occur in more of a chaotic and disruptive fashion than expected by participants.

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Water Governance in India and Food Security: Challenges and Policy Option

Satyendra Tripathi^{1*}

Abstract

Most of Asian countries share the same set of water challenges – water scarcity and water pollution–brought about by rapid urbanisation, industrialisation, and uneven resource endowments. India's per capita availability of water is merely 1056 cubic meters per the 2011 census, and most of the Indian cities are facing water scarcity. However, despite similarities in water challenges across Asia, there are considerable differences in water governance in various countries in terms of water laws, policies and administration. As an example in China, the central government plays a major role in water resources development while in India the states are given more responsibility.

Water issues have been often placed at the top of the political and policy agenda in China, but it is rarer in the case of India. In China, cost recovery has been applied more extensively in water pricing while water uses are still heavily subsidised in India. In India, available water use for Irrigation purpose is 83% too high in comparison on rest of world. Optimal use efficiency in Irrigation projects in India still missing.

The paper aims to bring together cutting-edge research on water management and governance in India in order to draw policy lessons in dealing with water challenges in the region and beyond.

Keywords: Water Governance, Food Security, Irrigation Policy, water economics

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Introduction

India and most of Asian countries share the same set of water challenges – water scarcity and water pollution–brought about by rapid urbanisation, industrialisation, and uneven resource endowments. India’s per capita availability of water is merely 1056 cubic meters per the 2011 census (Planning Commission, 2011), and most of the Indian cities are facing water scarcity. Excessive use of ground water post Green revolution brought most of states like Panjab, Haryana, and Uttar Pradesh under red zone (Matthew *et al.*, 2009, CGWB. 2006). In India, half of the country’s population lacks access to safe drinking water. Such water stress is only intensifying as the population increases. India is also key riparian country in Asian sub-continent’s most important rivers, such as the Brahmaputra, Ganges, and Indus, and their approaches to water conflicts in these rivers have a significant impact not only on water security but also on regional stability.

However, despite similarities in water challenges across Asia, there are considerable differences in water governance in various countries in terms of water laws, policies and administration. As an example in China, the central government plays a major role in water resources development while in India the states are given more responsibility.

Water issues have been often placed at the top of the political and policy agenda in China, but it is rarer in the case of India. In China, cost recovery has been applied more extensively in water pricing while water uses are still heavily subsidised in India. In India, available water use for Irrigation purpose is 83% too high in comparison on rest of world. Optimal use efficiency in Irrigation projects in India still missing.

Thepaper aims to bring together cutting-edge research on water management and governance in India in order to draw policy lessons in dealing with water challenges in the region and beyond. We are looking in this paper that will systematically compare various aspects of water governance in India including but not limited to Irrigation Water Management, Water pricing, Water laws/water rights, Public Private Partnerships in water sector, Approaches to transboundary water resources.

Optimal Management of Water Allocation and Use

Present societal structure will be facing water shortage as most challenging under the climate threat; about 70% of total water resources (FAO, 2006) have been used mainly for irrigation purpose in

agricultural use. In arid and semi-arid regions and in developing nation, this amount is already insufficient to meet with irrigation demand and is decreasing with intensifying competition with adding more valued uses. In addition, under climate change impacts and uncertainty over monsoon especially in Indian conditions is stressed more on proper management of resource. The intimation over irrigated agriculture will take place under progressive water scarcity alarms to urgent need to address make more efficient and sustainable water resource planning. This can be achieved only by both increasing water productivity and the economic efficiency of water used for irrigation need generally lower than that obtained by its competing uses (Reca et al., 2001; Fereres and Soriano, 2006). Moreover, to rationalize water use, economically viable cropping patterns for a given area and available resources should be selected (Carvallo et al., 1998).

However, Irrigation institutions has to manage the allocation of water between different parts of the system and different users in a particular parts of the system. This involves, (a) laying down criteria for deciding the timing, frequency and duration of water supplies to different sections; (b) evolving mechanisms and procedures to regulate actual distribution in accordance with these criteria and to resolve conflicts that may arise in the process.

Therefore, a better understanding of water requirements of crops and better management of irrigation water will result in large benefits. When irrigation water is insufficient and land resources are also limited, an appropriate scheduling can increase crop yields. Increase in economic efficiency and optimal cropping pattern can be achieved through optimizing the land and water allocation. It consist of both maximizing the return from the crop on the farms or at irrigation level, with proper allocation of available resources (Caliandro et al.,2007). Two distinct decisions to be made are how much water and land should be allocated to each crop at a seasonal level and to each season at an interseasonal level. This process needs the strategy of allocation of land and area at each level to maximize net income from the project (Hsiao et al.,2007).

Over the past two decades extensive research has been carried out to define optimal water and land allocation and optimal cropping patterns, focusing on water distribution optimization, economic optimization or both objectives simultaneously. Use of Nature-inspired algorithms to optimize the irrigation planning and reservoir operations,

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also made easier understanding the non-linear phenomena and reduce the human error to enhance the efficiency.

Community Based Participatory Management

Increased farmer community participation in irrigation is part of a world-wide trend of devolution in natural resource management. Experience shows that farmers all over the world are potential managers who, when properly organized, are able to manage their own affairs even under difficult circumstances. Participatory irrigation management is increasingly viewed as a means to improve the performance of irrigation investments. Beginning in the 1980s, there have been large-scale programmes to turn over irrigation management from government agencies to organized water user groups in a number of countries, such as the Philippines, Indonesia, Senegal, Madagascar, Colombia and Mexico.

The idea that farmers should participate in irrigation management has grown in India since the mid-1980s. It has been driven by the need for a higher return from the massive funds invested in irrigation, which plays a major role in increasing agricultural production. The concepts of farmer participation and farmer organization are not well understood and are not used in the same way by all. They must be discussed, tested in the field and standardized.

Farmer participation in the prevailing system of irrigation management in Rajasthan takes place at two distinct water distribution levels. One is above the outlets, i.e. the canal distribution network, which is managed by the irrigation department or the command area development in co-ordination with the district level committee consisting of district collectors, executive engineers for irrigation, public representatives and representatives of water users, etc.

Main objective of Community based Irrigation Policies are:

- To promote and secure equitable distribution of water among its users, adequate maintenance of irrigation system, efficient and economical utilization of water to optimize agricultural production.
- To protect the environment and to ensure ecological balance inculcating sense of ownership of the irrigation system in accordance with the water budget and the operational plan.

- To Bridge the gap between potential created and potential utilized.
- For Prompt attention to problems and resolutions of disputes.
- For Collective involvement in better application & management of agricultural extension services.

Participatory irrigation management is not a new concept. There are instances of locally managed irrigation systems which are centuries-old in Northern India, in the Atlas mountain range of North Africa and in the semiarid regions of Pakistan. The *subak* system of Indonesia also comes to mind. However, in the present context, these systems exist in isolation. Once government willingness is there, such systems do have the capability to encompass a wide area and catch the fancy of the participants.

In the irrigation sector, the trend is clearly toward reducing the role of government in operation and maintenance. Portions of the systems are being turned over to associations of farmers to manage, in some countries on a pilot basis, in others, on a large scale. In India, the appropriate division of management responsibility between the users and the agency varies. The transfer can be at the level of a distributary (15 000-25 000 ha) or of a minor (up to 500 ha), or it can be done in stages. There are no predetermined norms for the association of farmers, which are to be governed by their own by-laws.

Irrigation and Food Security

Water for consumption is most crucial in present scenario, it is equally important to ensure water for irrigation to increase the food production under limited land availability and livestock husbandry, to ensure food security for the increasing population. Growing population, as everyone is aware, is a serious concern as it will create further burden on the per capita water availability in the future. As can be seen in Table 1, the per capita water availability in 1951 was 5177 m³ per year when the total population was only 361 million. In 2001, as the population increased to 1027 million, the per capita water availability reduced drastically to 1820 m³ per year. By 2025, the per capita water availability will further drop down to 1341 m³ and to 1140 m³ in 2050 as per water availability projection. Based on the average requirement of water for various purposes, the situation is considered as water stress

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condition when the per capita water availability ranges from 1000 to 1700 m³ per year and it is considered water scarcity when the availability reduces to 1000 m³ per year. As the water available within the country varies widely as a result of rainfall, ground water reserve and proximity to river basins, most of the Indian States will have reached the water stress condition by 2020 and water scarcity condition by 2025. This would further hamper the food security, as the scarcity of water will directly suppress agricultural production.

Table 1: Per capita water availability in India

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population (Million)</i>	<i>Per capita water availability (m³/year)</i>
1951	361	5177
1955	395	4732
1991	846	2209
2001	1027	1820
2025	1394	1341
2050	1640	1140

Source: Government of India, 2009.

Presently, inspite of good rainfall distribution, the country is unable to make good use of rain water, because of lack of awareness and poor infrastructure to construct dams and reservoirs. As a result, only about 35-40% of the cropping area receives irrigation to take 1-2 crops in a year. Out of the total cultivable area of 182 m ha, only 140 m ha are under net cultivation and of this, 62 m ha are under irrigation. There is further potential to increase the area under irrigation to 140 m ha, 76 m ha through surface water and 64 m ha by using ground water. So far, the irrigation potentials have already been created to cover 107 m ha, although they are not utilised effectively. It is estimated that effective area under irrigation by 2025 will be 76 million ha, although the Government of India is estimating to cover 104 million ha. Ground water is the major source of irrigation and this trend will continue. By 2025, 60 million ha will be irrigated by using ground water and by 2050, the area underground water will increase to 70 million ha. In 2000, the area under canal irrigation was 17 million ha, which will increase to 27 million ha by 2050. There is further scope to increase the potential by 35 million ha, by inter-linking the rivers and harnessing

36 billion m³ through artificial recharging of ground water (Government of India, 2009).

Under climate vulnerability, it is important to ensure water availability to increase crop production to meet with demand. It seems almost impossible to increase the irrigable land as rapid urbanisation take place to meet with demand of population. Therefore, optimal land water allocation can become the viable solution to conserve water and enhance the productivity as well. There is need to enhance of water use efficiency and awareness module to Water User Association (WUA), so that irrigation management can be ensured.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Technological Innovative irrigation practices can enhance water use efficiency, gaining an economic advantage for farmers while also reducing environmental stress. Advance Water-efficient methods and better irrigation scheduling could also integrate water and nutrient management, thus minimising agrochemical runoff and leaching problems.

To help fulfil this potential, experts have developed various models of water efficiency and environmental benefits. Yet these models are little used for irrigation scheduling; at most, they help retrospectively to evaluate seasonal approaches (FAO, 2012).

Development in soft computing application in water resources management and optimisation techniques, should also be introduce to understand the challenges and reduce the human error. Irrigation Planning using nature-inspired algorithms simplify the process to allocate water in particular cropping pattern and its combinations.

An adequate knowledge-exchange system would depend on greater institutional responsibility for water-related policies and strategies, for example, through an extension service or a functional equivalent through a WUA. This in turn would provide an enabling condition and incentive for all relevant stakeholders (especially WUOs) to share greater responsibility for agricultural water management across the entire water-supply chain, including farm-level practices as well as drainage and leach-out management. On this basis, more water-efficient practices could combine wider environmental benefits with economic advantage for farmers.

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Reforms in Indian Capital Markets

Kumar Sudhanshu

Abstract

Present study mainly aims to gain insight into the Reforms in Indian capital markets and the roles and responsibilities of a capital market regulator. This study also focuses on identifying the loopholes in the Indian financial system.. It was formed officially by the Government of India Being the study descriptive in nature, findings have been made through theoretical analysis in order to know the impact of SEBI on Indian capital market and to provide in-depth analysis of the Indian stock market. It has been found that SEBI has done a lot of work for the development of the Indian capital market.

Introduction

The capital market Indian economy was liberalized in the early '90s India has seen a tremendous growth of its capital markets with close to 5,000 Initial Public Offerings (IPOs), second only to the United States. Although the amount of capital raised during the period may have been lower as compared to that of the developed world and other BRIC nations, Indian companies have still managed to attract capital from the world over.

In the financial year of 2008, India saw the greatest year in Indian capital markets when the total capital raised went northwards of US\$9 billion. However, the following years have not been very promising. Notwithstanding the impact of the global financial crisis, Indian capital markets have not been able to match the growth story witnessed ever since the liberalization of the economy till 2008. In the preceding financial year 2010, while India ranked 4th with respect to the amount of capital raised, contributing to 3.7% of global IPO share, China (which also includes Hong Kong) contributed to almost 47% of the global capital

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raised in IPOs. (Source: Global IPO Trends 2011, published by Ernst and Young) The above statistics provide an interesting insight into the growth trajectory of the Indian capital markets and its future role in the financial world. From 2008 to 2010, the amount raised by IPOs in China increased by 250%, but in India, there was no substantial increase. (Source: Global IPO Trends 2011, published by Ernst and Young). The writing on the wall seems to indicate that the Indian capital markets is losing its growth momentum in the post-crisis financial world and that China is increasingly becoming popular with respect to attracting foreign capital.

The capital market is a market where borrowing and lending of long term funds takes place. Capital market deals in both, debt and equity. In these markets productive capital is raised and made available to the corporate. The governments both central and state raise money in the capital market through the issue of government securities. Capital market refers to all the institutes and mechanisms of raising medium and long-term funds, through various instruments available like shares, debentures, bonds etc. With the pace of economic reforms followed in India, the importance of capital markets has grown in the last ten years. Corporate both in the private sector as well as in the public sector raise thousands of cores of rupees in these markets. The governments, through Reserve Bank of India, as well as financial institutes also raise a lot of money from these markets. The capital market serves a very useful purpose by pooling the savings. The capital markets encourage capital formation in the country. The capital markets mobilize savings of the households and of the industrial concerns. Such savings are then invested for productive purposes. Capital markets also facilitate the growth of the industrial sector, as well as the other sectors of the economy. The capital markets provide funds for the projects in backward areas. Thus, Capital markets generate employment in the country.

Possible Reasons for Loss in Momentum Pricing

Many capital market experts have blamed the aggressive pricing of IPOs as a major reason for the loss in momentum in the primary market space. The Indian primary market has not yielded favorable returns for investors over the last few years compared to the listing premium they enjoyed before. Out of the close to 50 public issues that came out between January 2010 and March 31, 2011, securities of almost 3/4th

of such companies are currently trading below their issue price. Some critics blame the moral hazard problem of investment bank's fees being linked to the issue price as a reason for such high pricing while others attribute it to the performance and fluctuations of the secondary market. While there would never be a consensus on reasons for bad performance of the recently listed companies, the issue of pricing still looms large over the Indian capital market, which needs to be addressed sooner than later.

Provides an important alternative source of long-term finance for long-term productive investments. This helps in diffusing stresses on the banking system by matching long-term investments with long-term capital. Provides equity capital and infrastructure development capital that has strong socio-economic benefits - roads, water and sewer systems, housing, energy, telecommunications, public transport, etc. - ideal for financing through capital markets via long dated bonds and asset backed securities. Provides avenues for investment opportunities that encourage a thrift culture critical in increasing domestic savings and investment ratios that are essential for rapid industrialization.

Pricing of securities should follow the basic model of demand and supply, but there are various factors which may distort the efficient functioning of the model. Firstly, there is the issue of routers and private equity players exiting via public offers demanding higher price for the securities offered. Secondly, there is the issue of investments bankers' fee being linked to the pricing of securities which may cause some distortions to the effective pricing of securities. An aggressive pricing model may be helpful for short-term gains but is not advisable for the sustenance of investment appetite for a long run in the primary market. There is need for change not only in the mindset of promoters and private equity players towards a more market efficient pricing model but also in the regulatory framework providing more flex ability to issuers in pricing their securities.

The existing book-building system is only a relative price discovery model since the floor and cap price of securities is determined by the issuers and underwriters and the issue price determined is within a set price band and time period, which may not lead to a true price discovery. This may be the reason why we have seen high amount of fluctuations on the day of listing of securities, when the market participants are not restricted by a set price band. The Indian regulators

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may think of introducing the Dutch auction method wherein the issuer is allowed to freely price its securities and is allowed to lower the fixed price till all the securities offered by it are subscribed. The issue price would be the price at which the last subscriber purchases the securities. This method may be a more effective pricing model as there would be a much longer time period for determination of price and as it would be more aligned to the demand supply system of pricing.

Opening up of Indian Capital Markets, a Case for Development

Both academics and skeptics would agree that the health of an economy is reflected in the performance of its capital market. Currently, India's economic growth is second only to China but unfortunately the phenomenal growth rate has not reflected in the performance of its capital market. Performance of a nation's capital market is not merely reflected by the performance of its secondary market and indices of stock exchanges, but also by the positioning of the market in the global financial circle in terms of reputation and presence of foreign companies. If we take the example of developed nations, all of them have a robust capital market with the presence of

International companies and a high reputation. The major financial hubs over the past two decades have been cities from developed nations - New York, London and Tokyo - and in the recent past, Hong Kong and Shanghai are fast emerging as the next financial centers. To take the argument further, while the Indian economy has been growing at a rate higher than most of the other economies, India still has a long way to go before attaining the status of an attractive financial hub in the world. This poses one of the major hurdles for India to progress from a developing economy to a developed economy.

China has developed its markets to make them more accessible to foreign capital. This is well illustrated by the fact that well known international companies like Glencore, Samsonite, Prada, to name a few, have approached the Hong Kong exchange for listing. As per current news reports, global conglomerates like Coca Cola, HSBC, Unilever and Standard Chartered are eyeing the Shanghai Stock Exchange. On the other hand, Indian exchanges are way behind to join this bandwagon. The question that begs asking is whether we would like these companies to come to India for listing? And if the answer is yes, are we providing a platform for international listings in India?

Regulatory Hurdles

The regulations governing public offers have recently witnessed an overhaul by the introduction of Securities and Exchange Board of India (Issue of Capital and Disclosure Requirements) regulations, 2009. However there still remain a plethora of disclosure requirements and restrictions on issuers, which at times make it difficult for them in their decision to go public. Some of the regulations which demands immediate attention are (a) extensive disclosure of information on promoter group of issuers, which are onerous and time consuming (b) lock-up of bonus shares or equity shares arising out of conversion of convertible instruments issued to existing shareholders one year prior to the filing of the draft prospectus (c) rather broad definition of 'promoter', which does not explicitly exclude private equity players.

Corruption and Scams

There would be a universal consensus amongst all players in the capital market that the outlook of India has taken a severe blow due to outbreak of corruption cases against Indian public officials and more so because of is a growing lack of confidence of global investors in the Indian securities market due to the fear of potential liability under their local anti-corruption legislations. The involvement of corporate leaders in such corruption scandals. With the recent scams of Satyam and 2G, there is a growing lack of confidence of global investors in the Indian securities market due to the fear of potential liability under their local anti-corruption legislations.

Closing Remarks

Reforms of the Indian capital markets have long been overdue; liberalization of onerous disclosure requirements, better price discovery mechanism and entry of foreign companies in Indian markets would provide the necessary fillip for overall growth of the economy. An active market for foreign companies in India is likely to attract investment from wider avenues, both domestic and foreign and consequently be beneficial to domestic companies already listed or waiting to be listed on Indian bourses. Greater participation from global institutional investors also assures greater liquidity and enhanced reputation of the market, leading to better valuations for companies listed on Indian exchanges. In addition, such reforms would also have ancillary benefits like job creation in financial cities of India and exposure to global best practices in corporate-securities law.

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Promotion of Hand Washing Practices Among Primary School Children through Health Education

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Abstract

Handwashing is one of the most important factors in controlling the spread of micro-organisms and in preventing the infections. The present study was conducted on a sample of 400 primary school children aged 5-13 years in the MCD Primary schools of South Delhi. The study revealed that majority of the respondents in the study group had low scores on Handwashing practices. Thus, a health education programme was developed and the respondents were divided into interventional and control groups and the programme was administered in the interventional group. The results of the intervention of Health Education Programme showed positive statistically significant improvements in the hygiene practices among students especially related to Handwashing before and after eating and defecation. Study suggested that regular health education programmes are successful in health promotion with respect to Handwashing practices and should be organized for primary school children.

Keywords: Handwashing practices, Health Education Programme, Primary schools, Primary school children

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Introduction

Children are nature's gift and fountain of life. "Nation marches on the tiny feet of young children" The health of children is considered as index of nation's development. They have to be protected and looked after, if a country is to thrive and prosper in all sphere of human activity.

In India, school going population comprises a large portion of the total population. This population is generally more vulnerable to major communicable diseases and other health problems. Healthy practices are learnt by them from their teachers and peers and habits not only persist in them but are earned on to the next generation thereby giving the best of them.

In the present study, an attempt has been made to find out the impact of school health education program on personal hygiene practices of primary school children with the following objectives:

Objectives

The study was undertaken to assess the knowledge and practices of primary school children with regard to Handwashing practices, to identify the gaps in the Handwashing practices of the children and to design, implement and assess the effectiveness of interventions regarding health education

Materials and Methods

A Quasi- experimental study was conducted with a Pre & Post Intervention with Control design in the 8 MCD primary schools of South Delhi. A multistage random sampling was followed in selecting the sample population. Out of eight schools selected, four schools were taken as intervention group and other four in control group. Hundred children from 1 to 5 classes of each school were selected. A total of 800 school children were selected for the study. Out of 800 school children selected, fifty percent parents/ guardians (400) were selected from each school who accompanied their children regularly by systematic random sampling. These parents/ guardians were interviewed for assessing the Handwashing practices of their children using semi structured interview schedules. A total of 400 parents were interviewed during the baseline and end line surveys to find out the impact of health interventions on Handwashing habits, implemented in four intervention schools. The sample size in the baseline was 400 which were divided into intervention (180) and control group (182). The deduction in the number was due to dropouts by the students during the intervention period.

Health Interventions

On the basis of the findings of the baseline survey, gaps were identified in the Handwashing practices of school children. Based on these gaps, the health interventions on Handwashing were planned and implemented in the study group with the help of audio-visual aids such as chart papers, black board, power point presentation, practical demonstration through teachers and parents. With the help of practical demonstration, children were made to rub their hands together vigorously with soap and water before and after meals for about 15-20 seconds, making sure that both sides of their hands were washed thoroughly, around the thumbs, between each finger and around and under the nails. After washing their hands, they were asked to dry their hands with clean towel because in wet hands, germs spread more easily. These interventions were assessed after a gap of 3 months of interventions.

Results & Discussions:

The impact of health interventions on Handwashing habits of school children was found to be encouraging in the present study. Children in the intervention group showed great improvement in Handwashing practices as compared with those in the control group.

Hand Washing Habits after Eating Food at Home

Table 1 showed that in the interventional group, hand-washing habits of school children after eating food at home increased from 30 % to 47.22 % after implementation of Handwashing interventions in this group. Statistically, this increase was found significant (0.00) while the increase was 32 % to 36.26 % in the control group which was found statistically insignificant (0.44) The results have also been found to be concordance with the studies of Vivas et al. (2010), Dongre et al (2008). A similar study by Begum (2007) also showed same results that children Handwashing habits increased significantly after health intervention.

Hand Washing Habits after Eating Food at School

In Table 2, it was found that prior to Handwashing interventions in the interventional group, only 10 % children used to wash their hands after eating food at school. This percentage increased to 20 % when hygiene interventions were implemented in the same group. This increase was found statistically significant (0.00) while in the control group, the children washing their hands habits after eating food at school increased from 12 % to 12.6 % and this difference was not

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statistically significant (0.97). The results can be corroborated by the critical evaluation of the other studies by Lopez et al (2009), Guinan et al (2002) who emphasized in their studies that a hand hygiene program could improve Handwashing habits of school children after eating food at school and use of a hand sanitizer in the classroom could lower absenteeism among the primary school children.

Washing of Hands with Soap and Water after Defecation at Home

Table 3 showed that in the interventional group, hand-washing habits of the children after defecation at home increased from 65 % to 86.67 % when children were given hygiene interventions regarding Handwashing. This increase was found statistically significant (0.00). In the control group, the children's washing their hands after defecation at home increased from 68 % to 76.92 % but this difference was not statistically significant (0.06). Begum (2007) reported that Handwashing habits of school children after defecation at home improved significantly after implementation of hygiene intervention.

Washing of Hands with Soap and Water after Defecation at Home at School

Table 4 showed that hand-washing habits of the school children after defecation at school in the intervention group did not increase even after health interventions because of non availability of water and soap in the schools. This increase was from 16 % to 18.9 % which was found statistically insignificant (0.54) as in the control group, in which increase was from 18 % to 21.43 % (0.47). The reason for this might be non availability of water and soap in schools or absence of norms or culture at school, which could educate the school children on Handwashing practices. Another reason could be that the children in the study group did not communicate the change in their behaviour to the parents. The results of other studies support the findings like Sidibe MA (2007) in his rural Senegal study found that out of 3,797 primary pupils observed, only 7% washed their hands with soap after using the toilet and Vivas et al (2010) in their cross-sectional study among 669 students, grade 1–6, in rural Ethiopia showed that only 15% reported Handwashing after defecation at school. Studies by Shaheena (2007), Dongre A.R. et al (2008), Mathew K et.al (2008) highlighted some reverse results that children's Handwashing habits after defecation at school improved significantly after imparting health education in intervention schools as compared to non- intervention schools.

Table 1: Distribution of Children according to their Hands Washing Habits after eating food at home in the Intervention and Control Groups

<i>Washing of hands after eating food at home</i>	<i>Intervention Group</i>		<i>Control Group</i>	
	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-180)</i>	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-182)</i>
	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)
Yes	60 (30.00%)	85 (47.22%)	64 (32.00%)	66 (36.26%)
No	110 (55.00%)	80 (44.44%)	121 (60.50%)	92 (50.55%)
Sometimes	30 (15.00%)	15 (8.33%)	25 (8.00%)	14 (7.69%)

Table -2: Distribution of Children according to their Hands Washing Habits

<i>Washing of hands after eating food at school</i>	<i>Intervention Group</i>		<i>Control Group</i>	
	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-180)</i>	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-182)</i>
	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)
Yes	20 (10.00%)	36 (20.00%)	24 (12.00%)	23 (12.6%)
No	175 (87.50%)	141 (78.33%)	170 (85.00%)	155 (85.2%)
Sometimes	5 (2.50%)	3 (1.67%)	6 (3.00%)	4 (2.2%)

Table 3: Distribution of Children according to their Hands Washing Habits after defecation at home with soap in the Intervention and Control Groups

<i>Washing of hands after defecation at home with soap</i>	<i>Intervention Group</i>		<i>Control Group</i>	
	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-180)</i>	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-182)</i>
	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)
Yes	130 (65.00%)	156 (86.67%)	136 (68.00%)	140 (76.92%)
No	50 (25.00%)	17 (9.44%)	54 (27.00%)	33 (25.30%)
Sometimes	20 (10.00%)	7 (3.89%)	10 (5.00%)	9 (1.65%)

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Table 4: Distribution of Children according to their Hand Washing Habit after defecation at School with soap in the Intervention and Control Groups

<i>Washing of hands after defecation at school with soap</i>	<i>Intervention Group</i>		<i>Control Group</i>	
	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-180)</i>	<i>Pre Intervention (N-200)</i>	<i>Post Intervention (N-182)</i>
	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)	Number (%)
Yes	32 (16.00%)	34 (18.9%)	36 (18.00%)	39 (21.43%)
No	150 (75.00%)	125 (69.44%)	154 (77.00%)	137 (75.27%)
Sometimes	18 (9.00%)	21 (11.7%)	10 (5.00%)	6 (3.30%)

Conclusion

Even though there was a proper set up of school health services in South Zone MCD Primary schools, yet a few lacunae existed with respect to hygiene practices. Regular interventions in schools significantly improves the children' Handwashing practices. School health education programme with active involvement of school teachers, parents and health care providers can lead to improvement in personal hygiene of school children and reduction in relevant morbidities.

Recommendations

- The importance of good health and hygiene importance should be discussed in Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings.
- Parents' participation during health education should be encouraged so that health messages are reinforced at their homes.
- Creation of a forum for effective interaction between parents, school personnel and health team's alongwith the participation of children should be evolved to make the health check up more comprehensive.

Policy Implications

Availability of water must be ensured during school hours and Soap should be provided especially as children eat midday meals or else students can be encouraged to bring from home.

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To Curb Sexual Harassment at Workplace: What Still Needs to be Done?

Eti Sinha & Md. Aadil Ali Nomani

Abstract

Sexual harassment is the creation of an overtly sexualized work or school dynamic that adversely affects the experience of one or more workers or students. The person being harassed is targeted because of his/her gender. The sexual harassment in India was first time legally recognized in 1997 by the Supreme Court in Vishaka and others Vs. State of Rajasthan and Others. The courts issued guidelines and for the first time employers and institutions were required to take steps for prevention and redressal of sexual harassment at workplace. The court said that sexual harassment at workplace is violation of fundamental right of the victim under article 14, 15, 21 & Article 19(1)(g). The paper examines how Indian law is approaching to address the social problem of sexual harassment at workplace. It is argued that male sexual power over women is a major impediment to women's success at work. The Indian law to address the issue is The Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013. It addresses unwelcome male sexual conduct involving women at workplace. It characterizes sexual harassment to include both quid pro quo harassment and hostile environment harassment. The paper examines the act and its implementation aiming to appraise how far the act can address the issue of sexual harassment at workplace.

Introduction

Sexual harassment is the creation of an overtly sexualized work or school dynamic that adversely affects the experience of one or more workers or students. Sexual harassment must be understood as continuum of sexual violence against women. It is a personal attack on women's minds and bodies, instilling fear and violating a women's right to bodily integrity, education and freedom of movement.¹ There are

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two types of sexual harassment. First is eve teasing and molestation which is described as unwelcome advances and physical contact in public places. The second is sexual harassment at workplace and educational institutions. Sexual harassment disrupts women's earning capacity by forcing them out of the workplace or school. Sexual harassment at workplace can be further divided into two categories—first, *quid pro quo* harassment, in which decisions on hiring, termination, promotion or pay are made based on the employee's response to sexual advances. In this kind of harassment power dynamics is involved as the employer can control the continuance of the employee victim in an institution. Second is *hostile work environment*, the creation of which is perpetrated by the accused. It includes: discussing sexual activities; touching someone unnecessarily; using inappropriate or demeaning terms; using unseemly gestures; granting job favours to those who participate in consensual sexual activity, etc.²

Clarie Safran describes sexual harassment as '*sex that is one sided, unwelcome or come with strings attached*'.³ In the words of Catherine A Mackinnon, '*sexual harassment is coercion, unwanted sex under threat or sex that is economically enforced*'.⁴ According to Lin Farley, sexual harassment is best described as '*unsolicited, non-reciprocal male behavior that asserts a women's sex roles over her function as a worker*'.⁵

Susan Ehrlich Martin explains that common characteristics of all definitions of sexual harassment are that it is: (1) physical or verbal behavior that is sexual in nature (i.e., it makes the victim's sex salient over her occupational or other statutes); (2) is unwanted; and (3) implicitly or explicitly is experienced as a threat to the woman's job or ability to perform her work or educational activities.

Widespread Existence of Sexual Harassment in India

Sexual harassment reflects the patriarchal mindset and the gender bias in the society. Women are more likely to be victims of sexual harassment because of their vulnerability. Sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination projected through unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favours and other verbal or physical conduct with sexual overtones, whether directly or by implication, particularly when submission to or rejection of such conduct by the female employee and unreasonably interfering with her work performance and had the effect of creating an intimidating or hostile working environment for her. Sexual harassment of women at workplace is one of the most severe problem women are bound to confront and tolerate today. This problem has created a havoc and terror in working women. Further, it has

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become a common phenomenon in today's world of work. Some instances are as:

1. A woman teacher who until recently worked at a prominent south Delhi school has filed a complaint of sexual harassment against three senior members of the management committee, including the principal⁶.
2. The chargesheet against Jammu & Kashmir health minister and Congress leader Shabir Ahmad Khan was filed under Sections 509 (word, gesture or act intended to insult the modesty of a woman) and 354 (assault or criminal force to woman with intent to outrage her modesty) of RPC in the court of Chief Judicial Magistrate Srinagar V S Bhou.
3. Tehelka founder and former editor Tarun Tejpal was today charged by Goa police with rape, sexual harassment and outraging modesty of a woman journalist in a lift of a five-star hotel here in November last year⁷.
4. A young woman accused a retired Supreme Court judge Justice Swatenter Kumar of sexually harassing her while he was still in office.

Impact of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment of women in the work place has historically been a well-kept secret practiced by men, endured by women, condoned by management and spoken by no one⁸. Victim of sexual harassment suffer through emotional trauma. The victim may contract certain physical ailments such as losing weight, loss of sleep, stomach aches, headaches, nausea, involuntary muscular spasms, hypertension and other medical ailments.⁹ The psychological effects include the inability to trust men, attitude changes, loss of ambition and self-confidence and a negative view of work. Sexual Harassment has very harmful effects on female students as it disrupts the process of intellectual development, causes confusion, uncertainty, self-doubt and distrust of male faculty in general.

Sexual harassment at workplace result in lowered productivity, lowered efficiency and a decline in workplace morale.¹⁰ As the employees realize that they are facing discrimination and that they are being evaluated unfairly, staff morale and motivation is lowered and the organization develops a poor reputation and cannot attract appropriate skilled staff.

Sexual Harassment results in increased staff turnover as harassed individuals request transfer or resign, so the organizations have to suffer the training costs for new employees.

Law against Sexual Harassment in India

Sexual Harassment at the Workplace (SHW) has remained one of the central concerns of the women's movement in India since the early-'80s (Patel, 2002). In India, till 1997, sexually harassment was not recognized by the legal system- neither in the form of legislative enactments nor through the judicial interpretations by the courts. In the year 1997, to respect the fundamental rights of gender equality, right to life and liberty, and the right to carry on the profession of one's own choice enshrined in Constitution of India and to fulfill the country's obligation under international instruments¹¹, the Supreme Court of India pronounced a landmark decision- Vishaka v State of Rajasthan¹². In the absence of an enacted law to provide for effective enforcement of the basic human right of gender equality and guarantee against sexual harassment at workplace, the Supreme Court has laid down the guidelines and norms in the Vishaka judgment for compliance at all workplaces and institutions. Under art 141 of the Constitution of India, these guidelines have become the law of the land.

In India, from 9 December 2013 Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention, Prohibition and Redressal) Act is enforced. This legislation is enacted with the object to with the objective of providing women protection against sexual harassment at the workplace and for the prevention and redressal of complaints of sexual harassment.

The definition of sexual harassment in the Sexual Harassment Act includes any unwelcome sexually determined behavior (whether directly or by implication) such as physical contact and advances, demand or request for sexual favors, sexually colored remarks, showing pornography, or any other unwelcome physical verbal or non-verbal conduct of sexual nature. The Sexual Harassment Act stipulates that a woman shall not be subjected to sexual harassment at any workplace. As per the statute, presence or occurrence of circumstances of implied or explicit promise of preferential treatment in employment; threat of detrimental treatment in employment; threat about present or future employment; interference with work or creating an intimidating or offensive or hostile work environment; or humiliating treatment likely to affect the lady employee's health or safety may amount to sexual harassment.

The Sexual Harassment Act

- *Scope:* The ambit of the Sexual Harassment Act is very wide and is applicable to the organized sector as well as the

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unorganized sector. In view of the wide definition of 'workplace', the statute, inter alia, applies to government bodies, private and public sector organizations, non-governmental organizations, organizations carrying on commercial, vocational, educational, entertainment, industrial, financial activities, hospitals and nursing homes, educational institutes, sports institutions and stadiums used for training individuals. As per the Sexual Harassment Act, a workplace also covers within its scope places visited by employees during the course of employment or for reasons arising out of employment - including transportation provided by the employer for the purpose of commuting to and from the place of employment. The definition of 'employee' under the Sexual Harassment Act is fairly wide and covers regular, temporary, ad hoc employees, individuals engaged on daily wage basis, either directly or through an agent, contract labour, co-workers, probationers, trainees, and apprentices, with or without the knowledge of the principal employer, whether for remuneration or not, working on a voluntary basis or otherwise, whether the terms of employment are express or implied.

- *Internal Complaints Committee and Local Complaints Committee:* The Sexual Harassment Act requires an employer to set up an 'Internal Complaints Committee' ("ICC") at each office or branch, of an organization employing at least 10 employees. The government is in turn required to set up a 'Local Complaints Committees' ("LCC") at the district level to investigate complaints regarding sexual harassment from establishments where the ICC has not been constituted on account of the establishment having less than 10 employees or if the complaint is against the employer. The Sexual Harassment Act also sets out the constitution of the committees, process to be followed for making a complaint and inquiring into the complaint in a time bound manner.
- *Interim Reliefs:* The Sexual Harassment Act empowers the ICC and the LCC to recommend to the employer, at the request of the aggrieved employee, interim measures such as (i) transfer of the aggrieved woman or the respondent to any other workplace; or (ii) granting leave to the aggrieved woman up to a period of 3 months in addition to her regular statutory/contractual leave entitlement.
- *Process for Complaint and Inquiry:* Please refer to the following flowchart which provides, in brief, the process to be followed by

the aggrieved employee to make the complaint and by the employer to inquire into the complaint. The law allows female employees to request for conciliation in order to settle the matter although a monetary settlement should not be made as a basis of conciliation.

- *Action against Frivolous Complaints:* So as to ensure that the protections contemplated under the Sexual Harassment Act do not get misused, provisions for action against “false or malicious” complainants have been made¹³.

Employer’s Obligations

In addition to ensuring compliance with the other provisions stipulated, the Sexual Harassment Act casts certain obligations upon the employer to, inter alia,

- provide a safe working environment
- display conspicuously at the workplace, the penal consequences of indulging in acts that may constitute sexual harassment and the composition of the Internal Complaints Committee
- organize workshops and awareness programmes at regular intervals for sensitizing employees on the issues and implications of workplace sexual harassment and organizing orientation programmes for members of the Internal Complaints Committee
- Treat sexual harassment as misconduct under the service rules and initiate action for misconduct.

The employer is also required to monitor the timely submission of reports by the ICC. If an employer fails to constitute an Internal Complaints Committee or does not comply with any provisions contained therein; the Sexual Harassment Act prescribes a monetary penalty of up to INR 50,000 (approx. US\$1,000). A repetition of the same offence could result in the punishment being doubled and / or de-registration of the entity or revocation of any statutory business licenses.

Analysis

The redress forum under the Act is an Internal Complaints Committee appointed by the employer to be comprised of a woman senior employee, two other employees, and a social worker; it is mandated that at least half the committee must be constituted of women. Where such a committee is not set up by the employer, or where the complaint is against the employer himself, a provision is

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made for the setting up, by the District Magistrate, of a panel drawn from social workers and NGOs.

Based upon the complaint of the victim, the Committee is to conduct an inquiry and submit its recommendations to the employer (or District Magistrate), who is required to take action on the same. Where an offence is made out, the punishment for misconduct is as per the service rules of the employer; where no such rules exist, then as per the Rules under the Act. Under the Act, redress ranges from apology and censure to withholding promotion and increments, and stretches to termination. The Act, however, is silent on the situation where the employer's service rules contain less stringent provisions.

Conciliation Process

Section 10 provides the possibility for conciliation between the parties to be undertaken by the Committee prior to inquiry; this can be done only at the request of the victim. Conciliation is the process where a neutral engages with the parties to try and arrive at a settlement of their differences and disputes. The process has been in vogue in our industrial dispute enactments and in matrimonial litigation proceedings.¹⁴

Under the synonymous term of mediation, it is increasingly a feature of the country's courts, many of which have set up their own mediation centres, offering the service free of charge in thousands of cases where lawyers trained in the process mediate a range of commercial, property, and divorce disputes. The advantages are several — it enables better communication and understanding, is conducted in a confidential setting, and seeks a solution acceptable to both sides. At first sight, therefore, it seems quite reasonable to contemplate conciliation being used in sexual harassment cases.

However, this is an area where we have to tread warily, and certainly not rush in. Sexual harassment cases usually have a marked power imbalance between the victim and the accused; this is implicit in the nature of the offence. This may well affect the negotiation scenario, with the victim being unable to hold her own, and end with a result advantageous to the other side.

Some acts labelled as harassment are grave violations of a woman's body and dignity; these ought not to be the subject matter of a compromise. There is need to draw clear markers between negotiation and punitive action and to realize that some offences have the starkness of black and white, without intervening shades of grey. In these cases, there is also the need for co-workers to know the identity and culpability

of the transgressor so as to safeguard themselves; such information will remain cloaked in the confidentiality of conciliation agreements. In a wider context, public naming can be a societal need.

All this is not to take away the choice of the victim, who is the central figure of our concern, but to emphasize that there are factors balancing the attractiveness of a quick settlement. The Act gets some basics wrong.

Firstly, it is a central tenet of the conciliation process that the neutral, being privy to confidential information usually obtained in private discussions with each party, cannot, if the conciliation fails, become the adjudicator to determine wrongdoing. The enactment gives both roles to the Committee.

Secondly, good conciliators come from training and experience, and must possess the sensitivity to deal with emotionally distraught parties, apart from deftly maintaining negotiating balance. It is not likely that the panel members taken from the organization's employees will possess such skills, besides the fact that they may well think twice before indicting a superior.

Third, compensation is a key punitive and deterrent measure, as cases abroad show. This Act enables the Committee to recommend compensation and preserves the right of the court to do so as well but forbids the award of monetary compensation in conciliation proceedings. The logic is unfathomable, unless the lawmakers thought that there would be a flood of women blackmailing hapless men with deep pockets.

Fourth, there is little justification for the Act to mandate secrecy when the Committee reaches a determination of guilt and recommends punishment.

The person who has poisoned the workplace may well do so again if not identified.

A Mindset of Empathy

Given that many victims will shy away from the publicity, the procedures, the delay and the harshness in the criminal justice system, the alternative structure and process is welcome, but needs much alteration.

Helping victims to make informed choices about the different resolution avenues, providing trained conciliators, a monetary compensation settlement option, an inquisitorial approach by the Committee when indicated, naming and shaming in grave cases, and in-camera trials are some areas of improvement. We need something

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else which legislation cannot provide — the mindset to understand the fears, compulsions, and pressures on women victims.

Conclusion

The sexual harassment at workplace needs to be prevented as it undermines the enterprise which in turn undermines the productivity. The precursors of sexual harassment are deeply embedded in the values propagated and nurtured by the community. In India sexuality is tightly controlled by policing and communal mores, and women's empowerment and economic independence are rarely recognized. Those women who seek to strengthen their economic empowerment outside the domestic sphere or the immediate community are often seen as often as being sexually available to men and therefore, sexually promiscuous. That is how, sexual harassment of women workers is a common occurrence. The reality of sexual harassment has been obscured by popular myths that camouflage the real problem and contradict the experiences of women¹⁵. It is generally believed that sexual harassment can be handled very easily by women because it is women who are responsible for it. Men cannot control their urges and it is for the women to control their unwanted behavior. Society needs to take collective initiatives for the successful implementation of the act. There is a need to remove these myths among society and awareness about the act in order to *curb sexual harassment at workplace*.

Women empowerment is needed to fight against the issue of sexual harassment at workplace. The woman needs to strongly oppose any act of sexual harassment. The problem is also that large number of cases go unreported. The reason for the vast underreporting of the sexual harassment cases is the stigma attached with being a victim of sexual harassment. The victims feel afraid, despairing, alone and complicit¹⁶. Due to the shame and guilt which the victims feel, they remain quite unwilling to disclose that they have suffered sexual harassment. Women are unsure of any institutional support. The act in true sense can succeed only when so much confidence is inculcated in women that they stop fearing from complaining. For this the ICC and LCC constituted under the act should be not be influenced by anyone and should not be biased in exercising their functions.

Footnotes

- 1 UN Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, Its Causes and Consequences, MsRadhikaCoomaraswamy on 'Violence in Community', 1997, p 11.

- 2 Vandana, *Sexual Violence Against Women: Penal Law and Human Rights Perspectives*, 51 (George Theimi ed., Butterworth Wadhwa, Nagpur 2009)
- 3 Id. at 230-231.
- 4 Vandana, *supra* note 2, at 230.
- 5 Vandana, *supra* note 2, at 230.
- 6 <http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/delhi/Teacher-complains-of-sexual-harassment/articleshow/33045936.cms>
- 7 <http://www.thehindubusinessline.com/news/tehelka-case-tarun-tejpal-charged-with-rape-sexual-harassment/article5698614.ece>
- 8 Pradeep Kumar Pandey, *Women Rights Human Rights*, 302 (RathinBandyopadhyay et al. eds., 1st ed., R. Cambray & Co. Private Ltd., Kolkata 2010)
- 10 Vandana, *supra* note 2, at 236.
- 11 The UN Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women was signed by India in 1979 and consequently ratified in 1993; India has signed the UN Declaration on Elimination of Violence Against Women 1993, Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948, International Covenant of Civil and Political Rights 1966 and International covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1966.
- 12 AIR 1997 SC 3011
- 13 Veena Gopalakrishnan, Ajay Singh Solanki and Vikram Shroff, *India's New Labour Law- Prevention Of Sexual Harassment at The Workplace*, LEXOLOGY, (April 10, 2014, 1:11 AM), <http://www.lexology.com/library/detail.aspx?g=cb74f2ac-f7c5-44f8-b607-aea2f735cef4> [last visited on 14th April, 2014].
- 14 SriramPanchu, *Protecting Women at Workplaces*, THE HINDU DEC. 21, 2013 available at <http://www.thehindu.com/opinion/op-ed/protecting-women-at-workplaces/article5483861.ece> (last visited on April 10, 2014).
- 15 Vandana, *supra* note 2, at 254.
- 16 Vandana, *supra* note 2, at 237.

Police System and the Citizen

Pramod Kumar

The police still have unbridled scope for a abuse of powers by a large number of its personnel, abuse that affect the rights and liberties of individual citizens in everyday life. Powers of arrest, search, seizure, institution of a criminal case, preparation of reports, specially under Sections 107 and 109 Cr PC (Code of Criminal Procedure, 1973) on the alleged anti-social conduct of any specified individual, etc., remain areas of police action which afford vast scope for misconduct.¹ In general, every police person has the power to affect the liberties of the citizens. However, the harm and harassment to the citizens by the actions of personnel at the operational level, the police station in particular, is alarming to say the least.

Apart from the direct acts of misconduct, police officers cause extreme annoyance to public by not performing their mandatory duties in a variety of situations. A large number of persons are affected by the malady of non-registration of complaints when crimes are reported to the police stations. Even when cases are registered, slackness and indifference in follow-up action is another cause for public complaints. Police ineffectiveness, owing to the operation of extraneous influences of otherwise, in dealing with anti-social elements and other persons believed to be responsible for crime, remains a serious cause for public criticism against the police. Unfortunately, a considerable number of the people who are aggrieved on account of police inactivity or indifference belong to the weaker sections of society. By their status, economic and social, they do not have sufficient resources to pursue their complaint in higher quarters and therefore suffer considerably. Their first suffering comes at the hands of their offenders and the second occurs when the police attempt to extort money for registering their complaints.

Police administrators allude that the alleged partisans conduct of the subordinate police is the result of external influences and political pressures that operate on the system and non-registration of cases is a consequence of government's sensitivity to crime rate fluctuation.² Although, in measuring police officers' performances, crime figures rank

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much below political utility and connections, yet statistics are frequently played up in public for a. These do lead to malpractice of non-registration of crime and adoption of improper methods of investigation in a bid to solve cases somehow or the other. Undoubtedly, these police actions and omissions remain a great source of annoyance and harassment to the public, which is unable to find any proper institutional arrangement that could pay attention to their complaints.

Indifference to Public Complaints

The NPC remains the first and till today the only national attempt to study the extent of this problem in India. In its examination of public complaints against police officers in various parts of the country, the NPC found a widespread organizational apathy to them and an abject failure of the police managers to take action against their personnel despite genuine complaints made by the people. In its first report, published in 1979, it lamented;

In 1977, out of a total of 68,275 complaints inquired into by the departmental officers, allegations were substantiated either wholly or partly in 4,797 complaints only, which amount to mere 7 percent.³

In particular, the problem of indifference to public complaints is extremely acute in some states, like Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Punjab, and Jammu & Kashmir. The police departments in these states have earned considerable notoriety about misconduct in the discharge of their duties, especially through their brutal behavior in dealing with alleged criminals, terrorists, naxalites and suspected dacoits. The deliberate blinding of suspects in police stations in Bhagalpur in 1980, the 'encounters' in Punjab, UP and AP have all naturally led to vociferous public outcry and demand for police accountability. Yet, despite all the public pressure and media attention, at best a few police officers have been convicted for their involvement or omission of duty. Torture and deaths in police custody and high-handed acts, especially against the weaker sections, still remain common complaints and there is a fair possibility that their numbers are in fact rising. Yet, no proper procedures have been formulated within the police departments which could check these and other such malpractice.

Inadequacy of Existing System of Police Accountability in India

The need for an effective institutional machinery to deal with public complaints against the police is, in fact, a long standing requirement

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which has been expressed by citizen for a, academicians and concerned policy makers all over the world. For the problem is not confined to a particular police department, but is endemic to police forces in every country. The recent Rodney King affair, involving Los Angeles police officers, and a similar episode in Vancouver, Where a Chinese suspect was shot in his own house, bear testimony to the fact that “the issue of police accountability is alive”⁴ and far from being solved despite development of professionalism or advocacy of community policing or judicial activism.

The Ontario Race Relations and policing Task Force has commented as follows. “It is patently obvious that a publicly credible, accountable and independent civilian mechanism for public complaints is basic to responding to allegations of racial misconduct by all police”.⁵ In the Report on London’s Brixton disorders in 1981, Lord Scarman criticized the police for ineffectively dealing with complaints against Metropolitan police officers and called for “a system of independent investigation available for all complaints”.⁶ In a similar tone, Commissioner Fitzgerald in 1989 harshly commented upon police corruption and misconduct in the Australian state of Queensland and stated, “the interrogation of police officers by the Internal Investigations Section has been pleasant; ineffectual and feeble”.⁷ Clearly, in a large number of countries, such complaints and demand for public accountability is creating the pleasure towards new forms of handling complaints by citizens against the police. These forms are generally of external means, a system where the mechanism of making police accountable is operated from outside the police department. The traditional internal methods by which the police have dealt with complaints against their own officer is universally being found to be inadequate and unacceptable.

Modes of External Inquiry in India

Judicial Review

In India, commonly there are two external means of examining complaints against the police officers. One is a judicial review that occurs when a judge entertained a public complaint and inquires into specific allegations. The second is when the government appoints some commission of inquiry on a matter of serious police misconduct. Both these cases are of ad hoc nature and the review is of some specific matter. There is as yet no institutional arrangement that automatically inquires into public complaints as and when these occur. Both the cases occur infrequently and generally upon public pressure or when the

matter itself is extremely grave and the police department appears to have failed to control its officers.

The judiciary is trusted more, but the procedure of instituting inquiries by members of the bench are cumbersome, slow and up till now generally initiated by government directives. Generally, in serious cases of police misconduct, there is always a demand for judicial commissions, which is looked upon more favorably. In several instances, the very demand for judicial commission, when not conceded by the government, have become the main issue around which further tension and pressure build up and escalate the law and order situation regardless of the nature of original incidents.⁸ In rare cases, where ultimately the government conceded setting up such commissions, it either weekend them by not providing logistical support or did not accept their findings. The Justice Shah Commission, which looked into police excesses during the 'emergency' period of 1975-77 and the Justice Chawla Commission, which inquired into Delhi riots of 1984 in which Sikhs were killed, both failed to punish the policemen who connived or were guilty of inaction and most of the victims are still running around to get justice.

Public Interest Litigation

Lately, several innovative judges have given rise to what has come to be known as the "Public Interest Litigation". Herein, complaints to the court by public-spirited citizens have been entertained by individual judges and inquiries have been initiated. Judicial activism has, thus, emerged as an important mechanism to address the question of bureaucratic and political accountability. Undoubtedly, in many cases such activism has led to dramatic results and a determined judiciary has forced several skeletons to come out, toppled powerful politicians and forced the governments to show accountability to the Rule of Law. Nevertheless, it has not gone to the extent of demanding organizational changes and institutional arrangements that could address all the problems rather than only the specific ones.⁹

Internal System of Departmental Inquiry

The only institutional arrangement is the internal police departmental inquiry system that occurs when the controlling officer, upon receipt of a complaints, initiates departmental proceedings to inflict major punishment on the delinquent officer. Accordingly, the need to review departmental procedure, the internal means to deal with complaints against police officers needs to be re-examined in the Indian context for these are the only well-established means to make police officers accountable to the public.

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Most police managers perhaps well understand the futility of existing mechanism and department procedures for dealing with the problems of public complaints. The procedure of departmental enquiry in complaints against police officials are generally inherently defective in India. In the present system of Bihar Police, for example, any public complaint against a police personnel in the district is placed before the Superintendent of Police (SP) for further action. If the SP is convinced of its genuineness, an explanation is called from the concerned police person. In case, this 'preliminary' defense is found unsatisfactory, the SP either inflicts a 'minor' punishment or else, if the charge is serious, draws up a departmental proceeding for inflicting a major punishment.

Such a departmental inquiry is held by an officer not below the rank of Inspector and its progress is supposed to be reviewed periodically. A monthly or quarterly statement of pending departmental inquiries is usually to be submitted to the police headquarters for information of the Director General of Police, but few police chiefs take cognizance of it. If the charges are substantial, the SP, in most cases, is empowered to inflict 'major' punishment, but in case of dismissal or reduction in rank, the orders need to be confirmed by the next higher rank officer. The 'guilty' officer obviously has the right to appeal for expunction of the punishment or for its reduction.

Weaknesses of the Internal Mechanism

1. Behavioral

Generally speaking, this system of departmental inquiries has a number of weaknesses that make it ineffective as an institutional measure to check officer's conduct for following reasons:

1. Most inquiry officer are sympathetic to their subordinates and feel that public exposure of police misconduct will stigmatize the department. Therefore, the inquiry officers themselves are inclined to minimize or overlook the offence.
2. Inspectors and most DSPs, who conduct the bulk of proceedings/inquiries fear unpopularity amongst the rank and file and, thus, attempt to avoid situations in which they have to judge the conduct of their subordinates.
3. Sometimes a police officer is known for his 'professional competence', and his ability to manage the problem. Therefore, Inquiry Officer prefers to soft pedal the proceeding to avoid harm to such an officer, who is otherwise seen as generally doing a good job.

4. Inquiry Officers, who are themselves corrupt and dishonest, and their numbers are growing too, naturally are not enthusiastic about exposing subordinates for similar misconducts.
5. In most cases, Inquiry Officer treat public witnesses causally and indifferently. Moreover, few officers take the initiative to find the truth or the veracity of the complaint. They prefer to act as a judge, insisting that the complainant himself produce all the evidence and bring all the witness for supporting their complaints against the concerned police persons.
6. Inquiry Officers also tend to suppress the alleged complaints, especially in cases where the alleged act is said to have occurred in the course of duty. Thus, allegations of torture, when the suspect is interrogated during investigations, excessive use of force during arrests or in controlling unruly mobs, etc., are cases in which the misconduct is seen as necessary and, therefore, justifiable.
7. Many cases turn on straightforward conflicts of evidence between the complainant and the subject officer(s). In such cases, the burden of proof almost certainly results in the complaint not being sustained.

There is also a widespread feeling within the police ranks that only a police officer could fairly assess the stress and provocations a subject officer experiences. The behavior that is condemnable by outsiders is apparently one that may not be completely pardonable but certainly understandable by the fellow officer. Thus, in such cases too, the Inquiry Officer would look to get the delinquent police person off the hook.

2. Procedural

In addition, the problem gets compounded by the formality of procedures, delaying tactics employed by offending officers, frequent transfers of conducting or supervision officers and excessive workloads of normal policing. In an extensive review of departmental proceedings in Madhya Pradesh, Karnataka in Maharashtra by a syndicate of senior police officer,¹⁰ five reasons for delay in finalization of departmental inquiries were pointed out:

1. Delay is caused due to procedural reasons. These included failure to provide the defence with proper with proper opportunities, like copies of witness statements, inadequate time for defence, not framing specific and self contained charges, mis-joinder of charges, including the penalty itself in the charge, and awarding punishment on the circumstances not covered by the charge.

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2. More common is the delay caused by the delinquent. Here, various dilatory tractics are used, like plea for more time, falling ill, going on extended leave or absenting when the witnesses are present. Furthermore, if the proceeding is going against the delinquent officer, attempts are made to lodge complaints against the conducting officer himself or even to intimidate the witnesses.
3. There is considerable delay at the level of the disciplinary officer too. Most fail to frame the charges properly or make the charges without proper evidence and do not distribute the work keeping in mind the workload and efficiency of the conducting officer. The syndicate also found that final orders were passed without proper thought and there was general lack of management to keep track of pending proceedings.
4. The Inquiry Officer stage too was seen to be responsible for delay in departmental proceedings. In general, common reasons were preoccupation with other duties and not taking sufficient interest in its early disposal. These officers, generally of the ranks of Inspectors and DSPs, were also found to lack knowledge about rules for such inquiries and could not keep control over cross-examinations and proper documentation of the evidence.
5. Delinquents also field writ petitions and manage to invoke stay orders from the courts. The police departments usually fail to get these orders vacated in time and let the matter hang for considerable amount of time.

The result is that departmental inquiries take considerable amount of time and effort to be completed. By then, the complainant has been so harassed or intimidated that its efficacy is lost. Even if departmental inquiries are conducted expeditiously and with due precautions by interventions of SP, the aggrieved person remains dissatisfied about its impartiality and objectivity.

Other Channels of Control

Other channels of control have also been built into the police system in order to provide some form of external review. In the Police Act of 1861, Section 4 stipulates that police will function under “the general control and supervision of District Magistrate”, who is the highest ranking civilian bureaucrat with some judicial powers. This clause was ostensibly inserted to make police beholden to a “civilian” authority in order to have an external check on its actions. Police department too has been placed under the civilian bureaucratic control of the Home Department in order to introduce an alternate avenue of control, apart

from the police hierarchy under the Chief of Police. The independent judiciary is, of course, a separate institution to which police is beholden for all its actions.

In practice, these external controls hardly operate and if at all, very ineffectively. As the National Police Commission (NPC) found in its study (1978):

..... of the total complaints received in 1977, 45,953 were received directly from the complaints and the remaining from higher officer is strikingly large in certain provinces which may be taken as a measure of confidence with which aggrieved persons seek redress at the level of SP, in three provinces.¹¹

Thus, not only effective control lies with the senior police officers, even the public trust is placed more in them than in the offices of District Magistrate or other civilian bureaucrats. The constant friction emanating from exercise of power between 'professionals' and bureaucrats further weakens any effort of bureaucrats to hold police accountable. In fact, most complaints received by the District Magistrate or in the Home Office are routinely passed on to the corresponding police officers for inquiry and little effort is ever made by them to seek reports of action taken. In rare cases, when elected representatives make an issue of some citizen's complaints, both the police managers and bureaucrats close rank to safeguard 'executive responsibilities'.

As mentioned before, the National Police Commission has been the only body to make an attempt to propose a policy framework for police accountability in India. However, it did not present any sweeping changes except stipulating that certain serious misconducts of police should mandatorily be inquired into by senior judges. It asked for setting up of a District Inquiry Authority, headed by a senior judge of the district court, who would conduct such inquiries on receiving information from the SP. It also proposed that such inquiry reports, including the action taken by the state government or the police department, should be made public. The NPC did not consider necessary of some form of citizen forum as an external control over police accountability. The independent institution of judiciary was thought fit to keep check on police actions. Unfortunately, due to change in government in 1980, the entire Commission came under a cloud and none of its recommendations were accepted. Considering that the question of police accountability is still a major problem and no changes have been introduced in the mechanism to effectively deal with public

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complaints against police officers, it is worthwhile to examine such procedures in other countries and attempt to learn from their models.

Lessons from These Models of Police Accountability

There are several lessons that need to be drawn from the description of above mentioned accountability models. Primarily, the police alone cannot be trusted to govern the abuses of its personnel. Another bureaucratic agency, like the IAS in India, too cannot be left with the mandate of acting as the watchdog over the police department. The civilian bureaucracy itself needs an institutional arrangement to process effectively the complaints against its own personnel and has neither time nor the expertise to do it for a major organization like the police. Involvement of the judiciary is needed but that alone is inadequate since it too is unable to process the complaints field in its own courts. Moreover, the nature of the judiciary is such that it has to consider the due procedures of the law and, therefore, cannot expedite to provide early relief. The most important lesson is that in the matter of public complaints against some government employee, involvement of the citizens is absolutely necessary. In any democracy, the nature and conduct of the government has to be decided by its citizens and therefore, they must be part of the process that overlooks the institutional arrangements to redress their grievances. As already mentioned, the system wherein the Home Minister acts as watchdog for the citizens is too distant an arrangement and the experience suggests that in India it is not working. Therefore, a process needs to be given shape wherein some responsible citizen groups overlook the manner and outcome of the departmental proceedings that police managers make to discipline their personnel.

Furthermore, in any inquiry against the police person, the investigations cannot be solely left in the hands of another police officer. Some lawyer nominated by the citizens or some citizens who understands the departmental rules also needs to be involved to ensure that the complaints is not ignored or minimized by fellow police officers. The departmental procedures that deal with public complaint need to be made known and the process of inquiry itself has to be transparent to ensure its validity and effectiveness. Police accountability to the citizens is too serious a matter to be left only in the hands of the bureaucrats and politicians, howsoever public spirited they may be. What could be the form of such a civilian institution for the Indian police is difficult to say. Any proposal has to take into account the form and content of the criminal and civil system of administration, the role of the political institutions and the nature of citizens' participation in

the governance of the country. This requires a wider debate, an inquiry into the shortcomings of the present system, the problems faced by the people and the question of reform of the police itself. However, the need to establish one such institution is paramount and if this is understood then the purpose of this article is well served.

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Tourism and Socio-Economic Development of India

Dr. Madhu Kumari

Tourism is a major social phenomenon of modern India. It has grown in leaps and bounds over the years. As per the Travel and tourism competitiveness Report 2009 by the world economic forum, India is ranked 11th in the Asia Pacific region and 62nd overall, moving up three places on the list of the world, attractive destinations. It is ranked the 14th best tourist destinations for its natural resources and 24th for its cultural resources, with many world heritage sites, both natural and cultural.

Today tourism is not just about sightseeing and entertainment but also an agent of economic development of the country. It plays a very significant role in accelerating the pace of economic development by generating employment opportunities, enhancing social progress and strengthening communities. Tourism can play a very significant role for leveraging scarce foreign exchange earnings for not only the developed world but developing countries like India too. It offers a variety of jobs to millions of both semi-skilled and skilled workforce of the Indian workforce. The benefits that accrue to India because of tourism are immense in the sense that it leads to a rise in the per capital income. Tourism Industry has emerged an important instrument of poverty alleviation and sustainable development. Tourism contributes 6.23% to the National GDP and 8.78% of the total employment in India. Almost 20 million people are now work is in the Indian tourism industry.

Tourism helps preserve several places which are of historical importance by declaring them as heritage sites for instance, the Taj Mahal, the Qutub Minar, Ajanta and Ellora temples etc. would have been decayed and destroyed had it not been for the efforts taken by Tourism department to preserve them. Tourism tends to promote social

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harmony in the country like India by providing job opportunities, diversifying the economic and formatting cross-cultural awareness.

Right strategies for promoting Tourism industry in India

1. ***Pro-active of the media*** — The media can be utilized extensively for publicity through newspapers, magazines, internet, advertisements, press-meet, write ups etc. in various national and international journals and electronic media to attract the prospective tourists. Well-planned and attractive websites updated from time to time can also be of great help.
2. ***Improving infrastructure*** — The basic civil amenities and infrastructure such as road networks, pure drinking water, food stuff, restaurants and knowledgeable and skilled guides must be made adequately available at tourism sites and spots. The tourist guides should be acquainted with more than one foreign language to provide adequate knowledge and information to the tourists. Adequate measures should also be taken by the government to provide tight security to the visiting tourists against terrorism and local thugs. Measures should also be undertaken by the concerned authority to provide sufficient medical facilities along with trained para-medical staff so that tourist could be taken to the nearest hospital with minimum complications.
3. ***Propagating adventure tourism*** — Eco-tourism industry also calls for adventure tourism. The adventure spirit of the tourism can be uplifted by providing facilities like boating, elephant riding, rock climbing, wild life viewing, jungle exploration etc. which will not only help the tourists discover the natural heritage of the region but will also convert the region into hub of eco-tourism.
4. ***Tourism Package*** — Tourism package scheme should be encouraged to attract tourist from across the globe.
5. ***People's Participation*** — If tourism is to play an important role in poverty alleviation and employment creation, people's participation in planning and benefit should be evolved. It is essential to develop the concept of 'responsible tourism' whereby all stockholders have the responsibility to reduce the ugly side and enhance the good side.

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6. ***Organising Cultural Programmes*** — Tourist entertainment is another important factor to attract tourists from across the world. There should be provision for musical entertainment and ethnic dances at tourist sites to attract tourists.

Conclusion

Tourism is a major driver of economic growth globally. India's tourism industry is experiencing a strong period of growth, driven by the burgeoning middle class, growth in high spending foreign tourist and coordinated government to campaigns to promote 'incredible India'. For a developing country like India which is on the path of modern economic growth structural transformation of economy, tourism is the right vehicle.

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Whistleblow Protection Law of India

Rekha Rani

Whistleblower protection refers to laws and policies meant to protect anyone who exposes alleged wrongdoing. The wrongdoing might take the form of fraud corruption or mismanagement. Ideas about whistleblowing vary widely. Whistleblowers are sometimes seen as selfless martyrs for public interest and organizational accountability other view them as 'traitors' or 'defectors' solely pursuing personal glory and fame⁽¹⁾.

The law that a government enact to protect such person who expose corruption is called a whistleblower protection law. Several countries have already put in place laws to protect whistleblowers or are in the process of doing so. However, the level of protection and the way in which the law operates differs from country to country. For instance the US was one of the earliest to have the Whistleblower Protection Act, 1989, while UK has Public Interest Disclosure Act of 1998 and Norway has a similar law in place since January, 2007⁽²⁾. At present India does not have any law to protect whistleblowers. But the Public Interest Disclosure and Protection to Person making the Disclosure Bill, 2010 was approved by the Cabinet of India as part of a drive to eliminate corruption in the country's bureaucracy and passed by Laksabha.

Defination

The term whistle-blower comes from the whistle a referee uses to indicate an illegal or foul play^(4,5). US Civic activist Ralph Nader coined the phrase in the early 1970's to avoid the negative connotations found in the other words such as "informers" and "snitches"⁽⁶⁾.

Internal Whistleblower

Most whistleblowers are internal whistleblowers, who report misconduct on a fellow employee or superior within their company. One of the most interesting question with respect to internal

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whistleblower is why and under what circumstances people will either act on the spot to stop illegal and otherwise unacceptable behaviour or report it. There are some reason to believe that people are more likely to take action with respect to unacceptable behaviour with in an organization, if there are complaint system that offer not just options dictated by the planning and control organization, but a choice of options for absolute confidentiality⁽⁷⁾.

External Whistleblower

External whistleblower, however report misconduct to outside persons or entities. In there cases, depending on the information's severity and nature, whistleblows may report the misconduct to the media, lawyers, law enforcement or watch dog agencies, or other local, State or federal agencies. In some cases, eternal whistleblowing is encouraged by offering monetary reward.

Defination of Whistleblower

A whistleblower is defined as someone who exposes wrongdoing, fraud, corruption or mismanagement. In many case, this could be a person who works for the government who would report misconduct within the government or it could be an employee of a private company who reports corrupt practice with the company⁽⁸⁾. Generally the misconduct is a violation of law, rule, regulation and or a direct threat to public in trust, such as fraud, health and safety violations, and corruption⁽⁹⁾.

The law that a government enacts to protect such persons who help expose corruption is called a whistleblower protection law.

Whistleblowers Protection in India

The Government of India as been considering adopting a whistleblower protection law for several years. In 2003, the Law Commission of India recommended that in order to eliminate corruption, a law to protect whistleblowers was essential and the adoption of the Public Interest⁽¹⁰⁾. Disclosure (Protection of Informers) Act, 2002.

An engineer, Satyendra Dubey was murdered in November 2003. Dubey had blown the whistle in a corruption case in the National Highways Authority of India's Quadrilateral project⁽¹¹⁾. He was killed after he wrote a letter to the office of then P.M. A.B.Vajpayee detailing corruption of highways.

In the letter, he had asked specifically that the identity be kept secret. Instead the letter was forwarded to various concerned departments without making Dubey's identity. Dubey's murder led to public outcry at the failure to protect him. As a result, in April 2004, the Supreme Court of India pressed the government into Public Interest Disclosures and Protection of Informer Resolution, 2004 designating CVC as the nodal agency to handle complaints on corruption.⁽¹²⁾

Right to Information Act was notified in October, 2005. In 2006, the Public Service Bill, 2006 (Draft) stated that the government must put into place mechanisms to provide protection to whistleblowers. In August, 2010 the Public Interest Disclosure and Protection of Person Making the Disclosures Bill, 2010 was introduced into the Lok Sabha, lower house of the Parliament of India. The Bill was approved by the Cabinet in June, 2011. This Bill was renamed as the Whistleblowers Protection Bill, 2011 by the standing committee on Personnel, Public Grievances, law and justice⁽¹³⁾. The Bill is however currently pending in the upper house of Parliament, Rajya Sabha for discussion and further passage.

The Bill was introduced in Rajya Sabha on 29 march, 2012 by V. Narayanasamy, Minister of State for Parliament Affairs⁽¹⁴⁾.

Need of Legislation

There have been multiple instances of threatening, harassment and even murder of various whistleblowers.

An Engineer Satyendra Dubey was murdered in November, 2003. He had blown the whistle in a corruption case in the NHAI.

Two years later, an Indian Oil Corporation Officer, Shammughan Manjunath was murdered for sealing a petrol pump that was selling adult rated fuel⁽¹⁵⁾.

A Karnataka official S.P. Mahantesh said to be a whistleblower in controversial land allotment by societies was murdered in May, 2012. Mahesh was working a Deputy Director of the audit wing in the States Cooperative department and had reported irregularities in different societies involving some officials and political figures.

A senior police officer alleged that Mayawati's government was corrupt and had embezzled large amount of money. Shortly thereafter, he was sent to a psychiatric hospital⁽¹⁶⁾.

A social activist invaluable in exposing alleged irregularities in implanting MANREGA schemes was beaten to death a Jeruwa village in Latehas's Manika police station.

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A whistleblower who has been working to uncover the alleged fraud in BEML's Tatra truck deals and defence and engineering related contracts over the past 10 years and the illegal site allotment by BEML Employees Co-operative Society to bigwigs of PSU, has come under attack from unidentified persons thrice-once in 2005 and twice in 2009. The former BEML employee first raised the tatra issue in 2005 and was immediately transferred to Kapurthala in Punjab.

In October, 2012 a decision which may be a big moral booster for upright All India Services (IAS, IPS and Indian Forest Service) officers across the country, the center has quashed the Haryana Government's departmental chargesheet against the whistleblower Sanjiv Chaturvedi, who had to face the wrath of B.S. Hooda government for blowing the lid of many forest scams in the state. The state government had charged

Chaturvedi-2002 batch India Forest Service officer of Haryana cadre and wanted his termination from service on the basis of fabricated charges against him.

Whistleblower Haryana teacher Anand Kumar, who was claimed to have paid Rs. 5 Lacs to chief parliamentary secretary Ram Kishan Fauji for securing a junior basic teacher's (JBT) job, has now alleged that he was tortured by police for raising the issue.

The government may have snubbed Edward Snowden's asylum appeal, but public support for the U.S. whistleblower is gaining ground in India. On July 6, 2013 demonstrators plan to gather at India Gate around 4 P.M. to express solidarity with Snowden and voice their demand to provide him political asylum in India. Snowden has leaked exposes data theft and unethical activities on the part of the U.S. government. It impacts India as well. And yet, our government has denied him political asylum and has also not opposed the U.S. on the surveillance issue "says Ravi Nitesh, founder member of Mission Bhartiya the group that is organizing the protest⁽¹⁷⁾.

Activists are seeking a quick passage of the whistleblower Protection Bill in Parliament. The demands are that law should be framed to protect whistleblowers, facilitate the disclosure of information and uncover corruption in governmental organizations⁽¹⁸⁾.

Over 16 activists killed and thousands under attack or threatened, RTI activists have demanded a stronger whistleblower law, including provisions for accountability and compensation for the victim.

Some Features of Whistleblowers Protection Bill

The Public Interest Disclosure Bill, 2009 prepared by the department of personnel and training. As per the draft law, any person can make

a complaint of corruption or disclosure against any central government employee or central government backed institution to the CVC. The CVC which would be designated as the competent authority for complaints, would have the powers of civil court, including powers to summon anybody, order police investigation and provide security to the whistleblower.

The whistleblowers Protection Bill has been passed by the Union Cabinet on August 9, 2010. The bill is officially known as the Public Interest Disclosure Bill, 2010. The proposed law to protect whistleblowers will help in detecting corruption and ensure better flow of information flow but reality is that people in India fear to fight corruption because of fear of harassment and intimidation by criminals with powerful connections.

The CVC would not reveal the identity of the complainant but would have the authority to ignore complaints of vexatious or frivolous nature. It would also not be able to investigate complaints pertaining to matter which are subjudice, prejudice to national security, international relations, proceeding of the Union Cabinet or those beyond the limitation period of five years⁽¹⁹⁾.

The bill has 30 sections divided in to 7 chapters. It will protect the whistleblowers from any discrimination or victimization in their work place. It provides for concealing the identity of a citizen who discloses information about misuse of power and money. Those who reveal the identity of the whistleblowers will be liable and penalized by the Central Vigilance Commission (CVC).

The offender will be liable for imprisonment upto 3 years and fine upto Rs. 50,000/-.

There will be penalization for official who tried to mislead the CVC.

The bill provides for addressing complaints against public sector employees of the central and the State Government.

The bill also ensure the honest government officials are not in any way but those individual who file false complaints and charges will be liable for imprisonment upto Rs. 30,000/-⁽²⁰⁾.

Major Shortcoming of the Bill

According to Indian law reports, the bill has faced considerable criticism because its jurisdiction is restricted to the government sector and encompasses only those who are working for the Government of India or any of its agencies. It does not cover the employees of the State Government. The draft Bill aimed at protecting whistleblowers

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is a welcomed more given the fact that this bill, if it becomes law is a very important legislation, the lack of public debate and consultation on the bill seem to indicate the danger of it becoming another paper tiger. Typically, ministries proposing draft legislation in value a process of public consultation to give the public on opportunity to carefully critique its provisions⁽²¹⁾.

The proposed law has neither provisions to encourage whistleblowing (financial incentive) not deals with corporate whistleblowers, it does not extend its jurisdiction to the private sector. The Directorate of Income Tax Intelligence and Criminal Investigation is one of the only agencies empowered for whistleblower protection.

The bill aims to balance the need to protect honest officials from harassment with protecting persons making a public interest disclosure. It outlines sanctions for false complaints. However, it does not provide a penalty for attacking a complainant.

The Central Vigilance Commission (CVC) was designated in 2004 to receive public – interest disclosures through government resolution there have been a few hundred complaints every year. The provisions of the bill are similar to that of the resolution. Therefore, it is unlikely that the number of complaints will differ significantly. The power of the CVC is limited to making recommendation⁽²²⁾.

The bill has a limited definition of disclosure, and does not define victimisation. Other countries (such as United State, United Kingdom and Canada) define disclosure more widely and define victimization.

It differs in many issues with the proposed bill of the Law Commission and the Second Administrative Reform Commission's report. These include no-admission of anonymous complaints and lack of penalties for officials who victimize whistleblowers.

If enacted, the law to protect whistleblowers will assist in detection corruption, ensuring better information flow and paving the way for successful prosecution for corruption individuals through clear and protected process⁽²³⁾. However, the public in India have poor level of confidence in fighting corruption because they fear retaliation and intimidation against those who dare to make complaints. Another worry pertains to the delay in disposing off these cases.

Conclusion

In India there have been multiple instances of threatening, harassment and even murder of various whistleblowers. Many RTI activists have been attacking whistleblowers become a marked man

and if his target is a powerful entity, he put his life, limb and liberty on the stake when he chooses to speak up.

There have been many cases where punishment for whistleblowing has occurred, such as termination, suspension, demotion, wage garnishment and/ or harsh mistreatment by other employees. Whistleblowers frequently face reprisal, sometimes at the hand of the organization or group which they have accused, sometimes from related organizations, and sometimes under law.

Activists are seeking a quick passage of the Whistleblowers Protection Bill in Parliament. The demands are that a law should be framed to protect whistleblowers, facilitate the disclosure of information and uncover corruption in government organization. The proposed whistleblower protection bill will assist to detect corruption, ensure better information flow and pave the way for successful prosecution of corrupt individuals through clear and protected processes. But without public debate on the provision of this proposed law, it is clear that there is no way for people to measure its effectiveness when the draft bill comes into force and law. The Parliament of India could be the first step to enact the law and prevent the abuse of whistleblowers.

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Difficulties in Learning and Understanding in English Language by School Learners

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The modern world is a global village and the communities of the world are getting closer to each other. Through language different people and communities share their ideas and concepts.

English is a language which has great reach and influence; it is taught all over the world under many circumstances. In English-speaking countries, English language teaching has essentially evolved in two broad directions: instruction for people who intend to live there and for those who do not. These divisions have grown firmer as the instructors of these two “industries” have used different terminology, followed distinct training qualifications, formed separate professional associations, and so on. Crucially, these two arms have very different funding structures, public in the former and private in the latter, and to some extent this influences the way schools are established and classes are held. Matters are further complicated by the fact that the United States and the United Kingdom, both major engines of the language, describe these categories in different terms

Language teaching practice often assumes that most of the difficulties that learners face in the study of English are a consequence of the degree to which their native language differs from English (a contrastive analysis approach). A native speaker of Chinese, for example, may face many more difficulties than a native speaker of German, because German is more closely related to English than Chinese is. This may be true for anyone of any mother tongue (also called first language, normally abbreviated L1) setting out to learn any other language (called a target language, second language or L2). See also second language acquisition (SLA) for mixed evidence from linguistic research.

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Language learners often produce errors of syntax, vocabulary, and pronunciation thought to result from the influence of their L1, such as mapping its grammatical patterns inappropriately onto the L2, pronouncing certain sounds incorrectly or with difficulty, and confusing items of vocabulary known as false friends. This is known as L1 transfer or “language interference”. However, these transfer effects are typically stronger for beginners’ language production, and SLA research has highlighted many errors which cannot be attributed to the L1, as they are attested in learners of many language backgrounds.

Some students may have very different cultural perceptions in the classroom as far as learning a second language is concerned. Cultural differences in communication styles and preferences are also significant. For example, a study looked at Chinese ESL students and British teachers and found that the Chinese learners did not see classroom discussion and interaction as important but placed a heavy emphasis on teacher-directed lectures. Many children who are ELLs are put into English-speaking classrooms where they understand nothing of what they are hearing. In this “sink or swim” situation, many flounder. Imagine travelling to Beijing and taking a social studies course taught only in Mandarin. Learning would be most difficult; yet we expect our ELLs to automatically decode English and succeed academically in an analogous situation.

This idea of “the more English the better” is fallacious and can actually slow down children’s learning considerably. ELL students must outgain the native speaker by making 1.5 year’s progress in English for six successive school years. Thus, in order to have skills that are commensurate with those of native English speakers, ELLs must make nine years progress in six years. It is no wonder that many ELLs flounder—not because they have language-learning disabilities, but because they are put into such difficult learning situations in our schools.

Under ideal conditions, ELLs would be taught in their first language 90% of the time and in English 10% of the time in kindergarten and first grade. Gradually, as they learned more English, they would be taught in the primary language 50% of the time and in English 50% of the time by sixth grade. Studies have shown that children who are taught in this manner outperform ELLs who are taught mostly in English from very early in their schooling. Children in this ideal bilingual learning situation do so well because they understand what they are hearing and are thus able to build their underlying conceptual-linguistic foundation.

There are different timelines for learning social and academic language. Under ideal conditions, it takes the average second-language learner two years to acquire *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)*. BICS involves the context-embedded, everyday language that occurs between conversational partners. On the other hand, *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)*, or the context-reduced language of academics, takes five to seven years under ideal conditions to develop to a level commensurate with that of native speakers.

Many ELL students are thus in a catch-22 situation. They may develop conversational English that appears fluent and adequate for everyday communication. However, they still struggle with CALP and have difficulty in areas such as reading, writing, spelling, science, social studies, and other subject areas where there is little context to support the language being heard or read. This “*BICS-CALP gap*” leads professionals to falsely assume that the children have language-learning disabilities. School language proficiency tests are often used to assess children’s level of proficiency in English. After children have been tested, they are given a label such as “Limited English Speaker” or “Fully Proficient English Speaker.”

Considerations for Teaching Non-Native Speakers

While it is difficult to generalize about English Language Learners because they come from such diverse backgrounds, success with English language acquisition often depends on:

- Age – Typically, the older the student the more difficult it is for them to assume the second language naturally. If the school offers courses in the student’s native language, it is often helpful to enroll the child in the beginning levels so he/she hears a combination of English and his native language.
- Native Language – A student fluent in the nuances and grammatical structure of his or her first language is at an advantage when learning English. Proximity of speech sounds for oral communication and whether or not the first language uses Roman letters for written communication are also important factors in English proficiency.
- Literacy of Parents – The level of literacy of a student’s parents may also affect the acquisition of written language. Typically, the more fluent the parent the more fluent the child; fluency in the native language promotes acquisition of English.
- Reason for Immigrating – Gaining knowledge of why a student’s family immigrated can help teachers understand the

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psychological implications of the move. Refugee status immigrants may be escaping violence, war, or political or religious persecution. These issues may surface in the classroom.

Academic Language Skills Take Time

ELLs pose unique educational challenges to mainstream classroom teachers. It is worthwhile to be aware of several specific difficulties that second language learners face. An important distinction exists between interpersonal and academic communication for all students, including those being schooled in their native languages. Often, a student who seemed to be successful in communicating on an interpersonal level is unable to apply those skills to an academic situation.

This distinction is more prominent with non-native speakers, however. Second language researcher Dr. Jim Cummins of the University of Toronto found that this difference had important implications for the non-native speaker in academic environments. Researchers believe that, on average, ELLs may take two years to master interpersonal communication, yet up to five to master academic language. Thus, many students are released prematurely from English as a second language courses only to be mainstreamed into classes for which they are not yet prepared to succeed.

Respect Cultural Differences

Cultural differences can be a source of misunderstanding for teachers and their ELL students. Each culture expresses itself in both verbal and non-verbal forms of communication. Cultural cues in one culture may represent something entirely different in another.

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Problems Faced by English Teachers in Hindi Medium Secondary Schools in Haryana State

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The Indian Constitution provides for mother-tongue education at the primary stage. This provision is honoured more in the breach than in observance. The Constitution is not a neutral document; it has a social purpose, one that is neglected in regard to mother-tongue primary education, illiteracy, ignorance, poverty, dropout and stagnation in education.

The three-language formula at the secondary- stage has emerged as the national consensus. But this formula is not being seriously implemented in the Hindi and Tamil regions. The Central Schools and the Navodaya Vidyalayas offer both Hindi and English as media of instruction, but there are no plans to follow this up at college level with provision for bilingual media which could ensure the emergence cadre of educated persons proficient both in Hindi and English.

Language teaching standards are divergent in different regions of the country. One thing common to all is the consistently low standard of achievement in languages as well as subjects. Instead of learning subjects through languages, subjects are used to learn languages. Therefore, students are poor both in subjects as well as language. Minimum competence in languages must be a precondition to the study of subjects which in turn enlarge the scale of language learning.

Many commissions have examined language in education; none has included a linguist in its panels. Thus language has never received the treatment it deserves.

Indian languages generally have neither been discussed in the Constituent Assembly nor in the Indian Parliament. What was 'discussed is whether English or Hindi should be the national official language.

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India is a country of minorities, Hindi being only the first among the minority languages. All states and union territories are within themselves as diverse as the union. A policy towards minorities is therefore a necessary condition of planning for language use. It is not the recognition of Many languages that leads to fissiparous tendencies, but the non-recognition of languages rather which stirs identity assertion and leads to national disintegration.

English is one of the Indian languages, but the role it plays on the national educational scene is disastrous. There is a craze for English-medium education in the country. The demand is to open pre- primary English classes. Early English education destroys the balance with environment, neutralizes the three-dimensionality of Indian kinship terms, curbs creativity and innovativeness and distorts identity. It must be remembered that English, as a supplement to mother-tongue education is a strength; as substitute it is debilitation.

Haryana has seen a tremendous change in last few decades. Government has done a lot so that more and more children can have access to the education. When compared with its neighbouring states and India as a whole, Haryana has shown a mixed picture. In some areas, it has outperformed India and other states while it has also lagged behind them in certain areas which will be clearer from the following comparative tables, based on different indicators of education system.

English has been introduced by the Government of Haryana as a subject right from class-I. Earlier it was taught from Class-VI since from academic session (2000-01). So many programmes and policies were adopted by the state Government to raise the level of teaching English. The present scenario of teaching and learning English in elementary schools of Haryana shows a picture of uneven development in term of educational growth. So, it was realized that there is standing need to analyze the situation where teachers are facing problems while teaching English Language at elementary classes.

It has been observed that in Haryana state the educational background of the teachers teaching English in primary classes is not satisfactory. Teachers appointed at primary level are holding the qualifications like Matriculation and J.B.T. or Senior Secondary/ 10+2/ Higher Secondary and J.B.T or Graduation and J.B.T.

Except those who hold the qualifications of B.A and J.B.T, most of the teachers do not have adequate knowledge of Teaching English. It is due to the reason that they did not studied English as a teaching subject during their pre-service and in-service training before the session 2000-2001. So, there has been a standing need to analyze the

situation where teachers are facing problems while teaching English. Moreover, suitable measures are to be taken to meet their particular needs.

Challenges before the English Language teachers in India are enormous and apparent. The typical Indian English classrooms at Elementary level are characterized by a poor attendance of learners, disinterestedness and constraint of time as well as the burden of an extensive course that fails to address the crucial and current need for attainment of English communicative skills. In order to bring a change in the whole scenario of English learning and teaching it is essential that we are aware of the pits that plague it presently so that we can avoid them in future. The curriculum requires re-assessing and altering, with a view to deal with the need for imparting of communicative skills to the students. The curriculum should be made from the students' need for development of communicative competence.

Problems of Teaching English at School

Lack of Clear-cut Aims: There is a general lack of clarity about the aims and objectives of teaching of English in India. The policy framers have tried but failed to specify clear-cut aims and objectives of teaching English in schools. The teachers know that they have to teach the subject since it is included in the syllabus. The students understand that they must study this subject as they will be examined in it. In English medium schools, English is taught from the very beginning. Whatever the situation, students learn English as a knowledge subject not as a skill subject. It is this reason why teaching and learning of English in Indian schools is in a muddle.

Over-crowded classes: With the expansion of education, there is unprecedented growth of numbers at the elementary stage. This phenomenon is carried forward to the school stage and from there to secondary and the university stage. Sixty to seventy students is regarded as the normal class-size and in certain cases the class size is 100 to 120 students. Teachers of English experience a lot of problems in handling such a big class.

It is difficult to pay due attention to individual students and this is very much desirable in English classroom.

Unhygienic Physical Conditions: English is being learnt in Indian schools under cramped, unhygienic and unfavourable physical conditions. In most of the schools the children are obliged to sit on the old-fashioned type of benches and desks which restrict the movement. The classrooms are neither well ventilated nor enough light is allowed to spread inside.

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Lack of Competent Teachers: Incompetent teachers are the main source of trouble as far as the teaching of English in our schools is concerned. They are either trained in old methods and have never cared to look for something better in new techniques or there are those who receive new insight but never apply their knowledge to actual teaching work and remain satisfied with routine methods. Sometimes, English is taught by those who did not offer this subject while under training

Faulty Methods of Teaching: The teaching of English in India suffers from the faulty methods of teaching. In most of the schools, the Translation Method is the sole favourite with the teachers. The teacher picks up the reader, translates the paragraph, writes the meanings of difficult words on the blackboard and assigns some homework and that is all. No attention is ever paid to pronunciation practice, listening comprehension and structure practice. So, when they pass out, they are as ignorant as they were when they first entered the English class.

Non-Availability of Good Text-books: The text books of English used in our schools are sub-standard. The books are edited or written by those who are not actual practicing teachers. No effort is made to select beforehand graded vocabulary for use in the text books.

Apathy to New Techniques and Procedures: Most of the teachers working in middle and high schools are both ignorant and apathetic to the new techniques and procedures of teaching of English. The new generation of teachers is being given training in new methods but these teachers fail miserably when they are actually put on the job.

Inadequate Provision of Teaching Aids: A general survey of teaching in schools would reveal that most of the teaching is being done without the help of any aid. The teacher of English hardly takes any initiative to prepare even simple charts or flashcards which can greatly help them in teaching their subject well.

Insufficient Provision for the subject in the Timetable: In the absence of uniform all – India policy, there is insufficient provision for the subject in the time- table. In most of the states, English is introduced in the V or VI class and it is taught for about six hours a week on the average.

Neglect of Correction Work: Correction of exercise books which is most essential is not paid proper attention by our teachers. The students are not in the habit of having a remedial practice of the mistakes pointed out by the teacher remain only on the pages of the exercise books of the students which is absolutely useless. In fact, the right method is to correct in the presence of the students which is not possible in the overcrowded classrooms.

Dominance of a conservative Headmaster: Sometimes, the domination of a conservative Headmaster or principal creates a difficult situation for a progressive teacher. The conservative head is concerned more about good examination results than about students grasp of the language. So, he would like the teacher to follow the same old, stereotyped and examination-ridden methods of teaching the subject. He would not allow any variation on the part of the teacher.

Parental Interference: Certain parents interfere with the work of good teachers. They measure the progress of their children in the subject by the number of pages of the reader covered, translation exercises done and grammar lesson given in the given the English periods. When the coverage is not their satisfaction, they would come and comment upon the teacher's work or his methods. They would offer suggestions as if they were the master of the subject.

Exam oriented : The English language learning syllabus is created wholly from the exam point of view; As a result the content does not focus on raising the level of communicative competence of the students and is confined in the narrow confines of the exam paper.

Impractical: Today's world is a world based on effective communication and exchange of information on a global scale. Keeping this in mind it is necessary that the language teaching course as implemented should prepare the students for this world. However it is really tragic that it fails miserably in this context for the curriculum does not address this particular aspect of language learning, which is the need of this practical world. The course does not include any kind of practical impairment of knowledge especially in language learning. "In Indian classrooms, lecturers speak, the class listens passively.....Indian classroom (up to graduation level) often do not allow projects, seminars, conferences etc".

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Historic Aspects of Craft and Trade in India

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Although the courtly culture of the Mughal rulers of the Indian sub-continent is the most well known, a cosmopolitan outlook was not new to India; several sources point to a thriving system of international trade that linked the ports of Southern India with those of Ancient Rome. The chronicles of the Greek Periplus reveal that Indian exports included a variety of spices, aromatics, quality textiles (muslins and cottons), ivory, high quality iron and gems.

Considered items of luxury in those days, these were in high demand. While a good portion of Indo-Roman trade was reciprocal, (Rome supplying exotic items such as cut-gems, coral, wine, perfumes, papyrus, copper, tin and lead ingots), the trade balance was considerably weighted in India's favour. The balance of payments had to be met in precious metals, either gold or silver coinage, or other valuables like red coral (*i.e.* the hard currency of the ancient world). India was particularly renowned for its ivory work and its fine muslins (known in Roman literature as 'woven air').

However, these items must have been quite expensive since the Roman writer Pliny (AD 23-79) complained of the cost of these and other luxury commodities that were imported from India. "Not a year passed in which India did not take fifty million sesterces away from Rome", wrote Pliny. This trade surplus gave rise to prosperous urban centres that were linked to an extensive network of internal trade. Literary records from that period paint a picture of abundance and splendour. The *Silappathikaarum* (The Ankle Bracelet), a Tamil romance (roughly dated to the late second century AD), provides a glimpse of the maritime wealth of the cosmopolitan cities of South India. Set in the prosperous port city of Puhar (Kaveripattanam), the story refers to ship owners described as having riches 'the envy of foreign kings'. Puhar is portrayed as a city populated by entrepreneurial merchants and traders, where trade was well regulated: "The city of Puhar possessed a spacious forum for storing bales of merchandise,

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with markings showing the quantity, weight, and name of the owner." The Silappathikaarum suggests that the markets offered a great variety of precious commodities prized in the ancient world.

Special streets were earmarked for merchants that traded in items such as coral, sandalwood, jewellery, faultless pearls, pure gold, and precious gems. Skilled craftspeople brought their finished goods such as fine silks, woven fabrics, and luxurious ivory carvings. Archeological finds of spectacular burial jewellery in southern India appear to corroborate such accounts. Northern India also had its flourishing urban centres. This can be inferred from descriptions of an archeological site in ancient Taxila.

Vladimir Zwalf (in Jewellery, 7000 years-Hugh Tait, Editor) notes: "The site has yielded magnificent and well-preserved gold jewellery, notably necklaces, ear-pendants and finger-rings, characterised by a mastery of granulation and inlay." While most ornaments from that period have not survived, sculpture from several sites shows heavy adornment. Patliputra (now Patna) during the Mauryan period was described by travellers as one of the grandest cities of that period.

Textiles

The antiquity of Indian textile exports can be established from the records of the Greek geographer Strabo (63 BC-AD 20) and from the first century Greek source Periplus, which mentions the Gujarati port of Barygaza, (Broach) as exporting a variety of textiles. Archaeological evidence from Mohenjodaro, establishes that the complex technology of mordant dyeing had been known in the sub-continent from at least the second millennium BC.

The use of printing blocks in India may go as far back as 3000 BC, and some historians are of the view that India may have been the original home of textile printing. "The export of printed fabrics to China can be dated to the fourth century BC, where they were much used and admired, and later, imitated." (Stuart Robinson: 'A History of Printed Textiles').

The thirteenth-century Chinese traveller Chau Ju-kua refers to Gujarat as a source of cotton fabrics of every colour and mentions that every year these were shipped to the Arab countries for sale. "The discovery at Broach of a hoard of gold and silver coins, mostly fourteenth-century and belonging to the Mamluk kingdom of Egypt and Syria, suggests the maintenance of the advantageous trading system recorded since Roman times whereby Indian textiles and other renewable resources were traded for precious metals".-(John Guy, 'Arts of India, 1550-1900').

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Also in the thirteenth century, Marco Polo recorded the exports of Indian textiles to China and South East Asia from the Masulipattinam (Andhra) and Coromandel (Tamil) coasts in the "largest ships" then known. It is conjectured that the initial development of this trade accompanied the spread of Indian cultural influence in South-East Asia. John Guy in the "Arts of India, 1550-1900", points out that "textile patterns on sculptures of Indian deities in central Java and elsewhere in the region very probably reflect the prestige cloths in circulation in the late first millennium".

Chou Ta-kuan, the Chinese observer of life at the Khmer capital of Angkor at the end of the thirteenth century, wrote that "preference was given to the Indian weaving for its skill and delicacy."

Robyn Maxwell (in *Textiles of Southeast Asia*) observes that elaborately decorated Indian textiles were the most highly valued and notes: "Many spectacular Indian trade cloths, most now two or three centuries old, have been treasured as heirlooms throughout Southeast Asia into the twentieth century, making only rare appearances at important ceremonies or at times of crisis".

Prestige trade textiles such as Patola (double ikat silk in natural dyes) from Patan and Ahmedabad, and decorative cottons in brilliant colour-fast dyes from Gujarat and the Coromandel coast were sought after by the Malaysian royalty and wealthy traders of the Phillipines.

The port city of Surat (in Gujarat) emerged as the major distribution point for patola destined for South-East Asia, and was frequented by the ships of the Dutch East India Company. "The right to wear patola was widely claimed as a prerogative of the Indonesian nobility, a practice encouraged by the Dutch East India Company who distributed patola to local rulers as part of the incentives offered to win local trading concessions and co-operation." (-John Guy, 'Arts of India') Textiles also comprised a significant portion of the Portuguese trade with India.

These included embroidered bedspreads and wall hangings possibly produced at Satgaon, the old mercantile capital of Bengal, (near modern Calcutta). Quilts of embroidered wild silk (tassar, munga or eri) on a cotton or jute ground, combining European and Indian motifs were commissioned by the Portuguese who had been attracted to Bengal, (as traders had been since the early centuries AD), by the quality of the region's textiles. J.H. van Linschoten, who was based in Goa as secretary to the archbishop in the 1580s, observed that Cambay also produced silk embroidered quilts. Textiles from Golconda and further south also found favour in Europe and South East Asia.

In the early 1600s, Dutch and English trading settlements were established in Golconda territory. Produced in the Golconda hinterland, kalamkaris, *i.e.* finely painted cotton fabrics were bought or commissioned from the port city of Masulipattinam.

Buying at source enabled the Dutch and English merchants to procure these textiles at rates thirty per cent lower. 'Palampores'-painted fabrics based on the "tree of life" motif that had become popular in the Mughal and Deccan courts were also highly regarded.

The attractiveness of fast dyed, multi-colored Indian prints on cotton (*i.e.* chintz) in Europe led to the formation of the London East India Company in 1600, followed by Dutch and French counterparts.

By the late 1600s, there was such overwhelming demand for Indian chintz (whether from Chittagong in Bengal, or Patna or Surat, that ultimately French and English wool and silk merchants prevailed on their governments to ban the importation of these imported cottons from India.

The French ban came in 1686, while the English followed in 1701. (Not all textile producing centres were associated with ports. Several textile producing centres that catered to the internal market, and to the overland international trade were located in Northern and Central India, in the kingdoms of the Rajputs and the Mughals, each with their own unique specialization.

While Kashmir was well known for its woollen weaves and embroidery, cities like Benaras, Ujjain, Indore and Paithan (near Aurangabad) were known for their fine silks and brocades. Rajasthan specialized in all manner of patterned prints and dyed cloths. Fine collections of Indian Textiles can be seen in the Calico Museum in Ahmedabad and in the Crafts Museum in Delhi.

Carpets

According to texts dating from the Buddhist era, woollen carpets were known in India as early as 500 B.C. References to woven mats and floor coverings are not infrequent in ancient and medieval Indian literature.

By the 16th century, carpet-weaving centres were established in all the major courts of the sub-continent.

However, it is the output of the Mughal period that is now attracting international attention. Dismissed by earlier scholars as mechanical derivatives of Persian carpets, Indian carpets of the Mughal period

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are slowly gaining recognition as the most technically accomplished classical carpets of all times.

Daniel Walker, curator at the Metropolitan Museum of Art (New York) has described pile-woven carpets of the Mughal era as "among the most beautiful works of art ever created".

He suggests that the large-scale production from the imperial workshops of Akbar "set the tone for subsequent carpet weaving in India and resulted in carpets whose jewel-like beauty is still breathtaking". (Ref. *Flowers Underfoot, Indian Carpets of the Mughal Era*)

Decorative Crafts

Under the patronage of the various royal clans that ruled India, particularly the Mughals, the Rajputs and the Deccani nawabs, the decorative arts and crafts reached unprecedented heights. (These traditions were continued, and even augmented by later regional nawabs in Bengal, Mysore, Central India, Punjab, Awadh and Kashmir).

European traders did not fail to notice the relatively high quality of Indian craftsmanship and proceeded to set up their own "karkhanas" i.e factories, that rivalled the Mughal and Deccani establishments.

Hardwood furniture was a major product of Portuguese patronage, usually richly decorated with inlaid woods and ivory. Catering to the European markets, the items preserved the general forms of European furniture, but were embellished with expensive inlays and carvings that took their inspiration from Indian styles, particularly the Mughal.

Several production centres, principally in Sind, Gujarat and the Deccan serviced this trade based in Goa. Mother-of-pearl was one of the materials often used in the decoration of such items, particularly small storage chests.

These were produced principally in Ahmedabad and Cambay, and later in Surat. Gujarati furniture with mother-of-pearl inlay is recorded in the Baburnama (early 16th century). The technique of setting mother-of-pearl in a black lac ground, had been employed on wooden tomb-covers of the early seventeenth century in Ahmedabad and Cambay, where a good proportion of such work catered to the Turkish market, as evinced by examples preserved in the Topkapi Saraye Museum of Istanbul.

The craft of papier mache, extensively promoted by the Mughals and later the Rajputs, also found favour with 17th century European traders who commissioned Kashmiri artists to produce for the European market.

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Educational Technology Intergration and Challenges

Dr. Ram Pravesh Singh

Implementation Principles

Two Dimensions

These principles are organized into two dimensions: classroom and school-wide. The classroom principles expand upon the premise that effective technology integration requires the time and attention of teachers in the role of instructional designers. Educational technology does not possess inherent instructional value: a teacher designs into the instruction any value that technology adds to the teaching and learning processes. Thus, the three classroom e-TIPS prompt a teacher-designer to consider what they are teaching, what added value the technology might bring to the learning environment, and how technology can help to assess student learning.

Together these three principles guide a teacher-designer through the important phases of e-signing instruction and also in considering technology as a part of that learning environment. The three school-wide principles focus on technology support features that are present in high quality technology support programmes, the presence of which are correlated to teachers' increased uses of educational technology. These principles describe the implementation environment necessary to support teachers. Together they will help teachers to evaluate the level of access and support available to them in their integration work, which may help to determine whether or not, given their amount of planning time, a particular integration goal is realistic.

Classroom Level Principles

Learning Outcomes Drive the Selection of Technology: In order for learning outcomes to drive the selection of technology, teachers must first be clear about their lesson or unit's student learning

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outcomes. This is an important first step in determining whether or not the educational technology available can be a support to teaching and learning.

It will allow teachers to be more efficient as they search for available, appropriate technologies because they will quickly eliminate those that do not support their learning outcomes.

The learning outcomes teachers might plan for their students might focus on acquisition of facts or higher level thinking in a specific curricular area, more general procedural skills, specific technical skills, or some combination of these.

While educational technology can support any of these types of outcomes, some educational technologies may be more appropriate for certain outcomes than for others.

For the technology under consideration for use, teachers must also consider the cognitive demands it places on the user. Does it require them to recall facts, like in drill and practice software? Does it require the user to provide content information and represent their understanding, as tool software (such as a database) does?

Or does it require the user to represent their knowledge in a symbolic form, as with a programmable calculator?

Any one of these technologies requires the user to respond in different ways, thereby supporting very different learner outcomes but perhaps also adding to a learner's outcomes.

When learning outcomes drive the selection of technology in a classroom, the educational technology will be a better fit for teaching and learning, supporting the achievement of the designated outcomes.

The conditions for effective technology integration are enhanced further when teachers across a school all work together to enact this principle: Technology use is linked to larger goals and outcomes at the grade level, department, school, district, or state level.

Processes for selecting and purchasing technology are linked to these curricular goals.

A variety of educational technology, *i.e.*, software titles, web sites, and peripherals, are present, correlated to grade levels, and characterized by the type of outcomes they support.

Technology use Provides Added Value to Teaching and Learning

The phrase “added value” is used to designate that the particular packaging, delivery method or combination of services in a product brings extra benefits than one would otherwise receive.

Here, I use the phrase to communicate that the use of technology brings added value to the teaching or learning processes when it makes possible something that otherwise would be impossible or less viable to do. For teaching, adding value might mean individualizing instruction or making it more responsive to student’s questions and interests, or providing additional resources of information so instruction is more real world, authentic, and current.

Educational technology can also aid teachers in providing “scaffolds” that support learners as they move from what they already know and can do to what they are learning for example, by aiding the visualization of or quick reference to information.

Educational technology can also help teachers to create social arrangements that support collaborative as well as independent learning by facilitating communication and interaction patterns. This might aid students in carrying out reflection or deliberation themselves, or with others.

Teachers can also use educational technology to support additional opportunities for learners to practice, get feedback, or allow for revision or reflection. Thus, it supports knowledge acquisition and practice, so learners become more fluent in their knowledge. Added value for learning might mean educational technology that supports the accessing of data, processing of information, or communicating of knowledge by making these processes more feasible Educational technology can aid students’ accessing information or representing it in new ways. It can increase access to people, perspectives, or resources and to more current information. Many times, software’s interface design allows learner interaction or presents information in a multi-sensory format. Hyperlinks can allow learners to easily connect to related information. Built-in indexes and key word searching support learners by easing their search through a large amount of information to find what is relevant. These features all add value by increasing

access to data or the users' control during that access. In terms of processing information, added value might mean that the educational technology supports students learning-by-doing or aids them in constructing mental models, or making meaning, by scaffolding their thinking. For example, a database can allow students to compare, contrast, and categorize information through query features. By asking students to create products with tool software, it requires them to think more deeply about the material in order to represent it with that tool.

For example, to create a concept map students would have to analyse, and then categorize information synthesizing from multiple sources. The resulting concept map would show what they understood to be key and subordinate ideas. When students designed the layout of a hypermedia, multimedia document; this representation would have required them to think about the best media to represent the content on their topic and then analyse and synthesize this information. When word processing text, students can represent their analysis and categorization of information through its formatting and positioning.

For example, by using multiple levels of headings, tables, or other visual clues to visually represent main and subordinate ideas. Educational technology can also add value to students' ability to show and articulate to others about what they have learned. For example, the World Wide Web is a medium through which it is relatively easy for students to communicate with others around the world. Whether to their peers or outside experts, with educational technology students are able to create more authentic and professional communication, and in the style and format appropriate for the topic. Using educational technology in a classroom to add value to teaching and learning, by adding, extending, or changing what teachers or students do, inherently increases the effectiveness of technology. When teachers work together on this principle in a department, grade level, or school it will ensure that students will learn to use technology to help them find information, organize or analyse it, and then tell others about what they've learned.

Software and hardware being considered for purchase would be evaluated according to the value that it adds to teaching and learning, ensuring that only the most effective materials are selected for purchase. Technology assists in the assessment of the learning outcomes. Planning for the assessment of students' learning outcomes

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is a key component of designing instruction. At times, teachers will want to collect and return to students formative data, to let them know about their learning progress. Almost always, teachers will want to collect summative information about students' achievement of the learning outcomes. Technology can assist teachers in collecting both formative and summative data that will help them understand how students are meeting or have met the learning outcomes for that lesson or unit.

Some software or hardware actually collects formative data during its use, and some technologies also provide help in the analysis of the information. Generally, these are software programmes designed to assess student learning, such as tutorial or drill and practice software. Some of these programmes, through screens or printouts of information, or other feedback mechanisms, support student's self-assessment of their learning. When students are working on learning procedural knowledge, they need opportunities to practice and develop their skills. Their progress as they work towards a product can easily be captured through software features such as tracking changes, or by asking students to use the "Save As" feature to freeze earlier versions of their work. These in-process products could help teachers to provide feedback to students for their revision and reflection, thereby aiding teachers' formative assessment practices. In addition, educational technology is an aid to summative assessment, especially performance assessments where students are to produce products that allow them to show what they know and can do.

Products students produce through software, whether a database, "mind map," multimedia or word-processed report, or a Web site, demonstrate what they have learned about both the content of their product, the procedural knowledge required to produce it, and their ability to communicate. The capabilities a product might demonstrate include the skills of editing, analysis, group collaboration, or the operation of the software itself. When teachers use educational technology to assist them in the assessment of students' progress towards or obtainment of learning outcomes it makes technology an even more effective instructional tool.

It will help students to prepare for their future to be asked to create computer-produced products, become accustomed to showing their

progress through such products, and describing how these products demonstrate what they know. If this principle were employed consistently within a grade level, department, or a school, teachers would become more skillful at determining what can be learned about students' process skills, his or her progress, and learning through their technology products.

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Management of Microfinance for Rural Development in India: A Review

Dr. Pawan Kumar Sharma

Management of Microfinance refers to a entire range of financial and non-financial services, including skill upgradation and entrepreneurship development, rendered to the poor for enabling them to overcome poverty.

In the context of designing programme for the poor, microfinance is recognised and accepted as one of the new development paradigms for alleviating poverty through social and economic empowerment of the poor, microfinance is recognised and accepted as one of the new development paradigms for alleviating poverty through social and economic empowerment of the poor with special emphasis on empowering women.

The operational framework of micro-finance rests on the premises that formation of self-employment enterprise is available alternate means of alleviating poverty, lack of access to capital assets credit acts as a constraint on the existing and potential micro enterprises and the poor are capable of saving despite their poor income level. In essence, therefore, microfinance may be referred to as an institutional mechanism of providing credit support in small amount an usually limited with small group along with other complementary supports such as training and other related services to the people with poor resources and skills for enabling them to take up economic activities.

Microfinance providers in India can be classified under three broad categories - formal, semi-formal and informal. The formal banking

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sector constitutes the first category, while the semi-formal group consists of variety of microfinance institutions and self-help groups (SHGs).

Informal providers, on the other hand, are not legal entities and include money lenders and various net works. Today semi-formal and informal lenders dominate the scene.

Development of local resource-based economy provides additional employment to people living in rural areas. In this context Sumachar observed that in order to bring work to the people not people to the work, it was absolutely necessary to establish million and millions of small scale industries in rural areas.

Developing economies like India aim at maximum utilisation of their own national and manpower resources. Even such countries availing raw material in abundance and cheap labour resources, they cannot achieve their targeted growth rate without having sufficient financial resources. In a labour extensive economy it is necessary to liberalise and fluctuate the financial and monetary policy which are the tools to achieve the multidimensional life goal of the poor.

To achieve these goals and to keep the rural poor away from the burden of heavy interest rates prescribed by the moneylenders; the government, the NGOs and voluntary organisations play a crucial multi-linked role in rotating microfinance. Now-a-days micro-credit is world-wide scheme and it is broadly established as a tool to uplift the rural poor from the measurable and deplorable condition.

For sustainable development in rural areas in consonance with rural people wishes and aspirations, huge investments are being made by the Ministry of Rural Development Government of India through the different programmes. A pro-poor policy in terms of which the rural pr or are treated as a net resource replete with their own ideas and experiences well in tune with the local conditions forms an integral part of strategy. In the process, the most disadvantaged section of the society receive high priority. A number of new initiatives have been introduced in the course of the last 7 years.¹

The Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India has been focusing on the four pronged strategy -

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- a) Enhancing the level of awareness about the scheme.
- b) Promoting transparency in the implementation of the programmes.
- c) Encouraging people's partnership and
- d) Ensuring accountability / social audit.

It is the specific direction of the Ministry that all the beneficiaries under different programmes would be selected by the Gram Sabha. The details of estimates regarding civil works should also be available to the public. In order to impart greater transparency, the chief ministers have been addressed advising arrangement of display boards at the district, block and Gram Panchayat levels, indicating there in the funds available to the respective areas under different programmes the Ministry of Rural Development and the work being taken up.

People's partnership particularly of target groups of various rural development programmes is sought to be promoted not only through institution of Gram Sabha, but also through execution of works by people themselves under different programmes of the Ministry of Rural Development. The participation of all the segments of society is a must for national resurgence. A series of dialogue has also been initiated with the corporate houses through ASSOCHAM and CII for establishing an effective public private partnership for rural development.

John E. Akoten² has indicated that micro-credit and small enterprises play an important role improving livelihood of rural and urban populace in developing countries. There is a significant difference in the mean values of men and women. Women getting higher proportion (90 percent) rather than men (10 percent), because poverty can be easily eradicated through the active participation of women in income generating and saving motivating activities. The most important goal of micro-credit is to eradicate world poverty by 2015.

Shylendra³ stated that through linkage programme the NABARD would like to realise the vision of empowering rural poor by improving their access to the formal credit system in an effective and sustainable manner to reach the goal of 100 poor through one million SHGs by 2008.

Rosalinda⁴ evaluated that micro-credit has integrated the scope for personal, social, and political empowerment. The experience of micro-credit started in the early 1980s as a development initiative to alleviate rural poverty, has created positive impact on cash-starved poor women in rural areas to increase confidence, sense of self-worth, higher consciousness of their rights, greater awareness and exposure to the outside world greater decision making power with the household and outside and improvement in health and nutrition of family members.

Ravi Kumar⁵ has stated that SHG is small economically homogeneous and affinity of rural/urban poor voluntarily formed to save and contribute a common fund to be lent to its members as per group decision and for working together for the socio-economic upliftment of their families and community. SHG is a medium group for the development of saving habit among women. These SHGs come to the rescue of women and enhance the quality of status of women as participants, decision-makers and beneficiaries in the democratic economic, social and cultural spheres of life.

Nagayaya⁶ has reported that action for social advancement (ASA) in Bangladesh, Society for Helping and Awakening Rural Poor through Education (SHARE) in India, Centre for Youth and Social Development (CYSD) in South Asia and Bangladesh, Rural Advancement Committee (RAC), Consultative Group to Assist the poorest (CGAP), Professional Assistance Development (PADA), Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA), and Credit Development Forum (CDF) are focussing their financial attention to the income and employment generation to the rural poor with livelihood support. Under the scheme of SHARE, 11 percent of Andhra Pradesh and 44 percent of Bihar respondents raised their employment opportunities in the year 2004. About 97 percent of the PRADAN and about 97 percent of the SHARE schemes belonged to Adivasis, dalits and other backward castes in rural areas.

A federation of SHG members can function as coordinating and monitoring agency for a particular coverage area. The federation is a democratically elected body, and it can evaluate all the activities carried out by the groups of SHG under one Panchayat. The federation gives support, motivates and trains members apart from networking with other agencies for village development. The ultimate goal of the

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federation is to evaluate all the activities carried out by SHGs for the betterment of the group as well as society.

Naransamy⁷ has pointed out that out of 100 SHGs, 98 groups are composed of only women members, engaged with micro enterprises, because they are the main key to close the poverty. The basic principles of SHGs are group approach, mutual trust, organisation of small and marginal groups, group cohesiveness, spirit of thrift, demand based lending collateral-free women friendly loan, peer group pressure in repayment, skill training, capacity building and empowerment. Reddy⁸ extricates that non-farm activities undertaken by the women groups in rural areas are precious for the industrial sector, construction services, trading etc, providing employment opportunities and entrepreneurial skill at the maximum level.

Pitt⁹ mentioned that 90 percent of SHGs clients were women in the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh. Their consumption expenditure increased by 18 taka for every 100 taka borrowed by women. Credit provided to women significantly improved the indices measures of health and nutrition alongwith the educational status of their children. The Grameen Bank of Bangladesh has earned name and fame as the pioneer of credit services for the rural poor throughout the country. Slowly but surely, more and more people can bring themselves out of poverty. The Grameen Bank achieved the repayment rate of 98 percent from its borrowers, 94 percent of whom were women.

The Government's plan for rural development now talks of inclusive growth and is not just confined to only antipoverty programmes. The growth of agriculture, sustainable rural development alongwith social development expressed in terms of educational and health sectors in the main task on the road to future rural development of India.

To improve the resource base, the NABARD has been allowed to raise Rs. 5000 crore by issuing 'Rural Bonds' which would be guaranteed by the government and eligible for suitable tax exemptions. The corpus of the RIDF-XIII has been raised to Rs. 12,000 crore for 2007-2008 from Rs. 10,000 crore for 2006-07. A separate window for rural roads would continue under RIDF-XIII with a corpus of Rs. 4,000 crore.

A financial Inclusion Fund was to be set up with corpus of Rs. 500 crore for meeting the cost of developmental and promotional

interventions. Further a financial Inclusion Technology Fund was to be set up with corpus of Rs. 500 crore to meet the cost of technology adoption with NABARD.

Government's concept of rural development is limited to anti-poverty programmes implemented by the Ministry of Rural Development. However, in view of the inclusive growth one cannot think of rural development on sustained basis without consideration of agricultural development. It is the key to rural development leading to inclusive growth. But sustainable agricultural and rural development is not possible without social development expressed in terms of educational and health sectors.¹⁰

Recently the programme for linking self help groups, with the banking system has engaged as the major Microfinance initiative in the country. It was redesigned as the microfinance development and equity fund in 2005-06 with a corpus of Rs. 200 crores. The fund has been doubled to Rs. 400 crores in 2010-11 budget.¹¹

Lastly the direct steps has been taken by the Government is not sufficient for providing or managing micro-finance for rural development in India. The other measures have been beneficial to the Govt. taken regarding encouraging NGOs.

SHG for managing microfinance from other sources to the development of rural sector in India. This is our urgent need of the time for rural development in India as well as the whole world.

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The Political Activities of the Royal Ladies during the Delhi Sultanate with Special Reference to the Harem

Dr. Ravi Shankar Kumar Choudhary

The Oriental Sultans had large *harem* which was a significant segment of royal household. Large expenses were incurred to maintain luxury in these quarters. The *harem* of Delhi Sultans comprised the mother of the sultan (known as sultan *Valide* by the Turks), his chief queen, his wives, sisters, cousins, daughters, concubines, eunuch and slave girls to serve the royal ladies.¹ The principal wives who were legally wedded were few. They each had their own house, maidens, guards and servants. The number of others were often very large. The Medieval historians have used two very significant phrases- *Darnikahawurd* (brought in to the legal wed lock) and *darharemawurd* (admitted to the harem)- in order to indicate the manner in which particular women were admitted into the *harem*.² The advent of the Turks instilled their culture in the country.

The Turkish royal ladies enjoyed considerable freedom and they were treated at par with men, in all matters pertaining to peace or war. They exercised influence and were consulted in important affairs. But maintaining a large harem was cumbersome, personal jealousies and intrigues disturbed the atmosphere.

The present paper deals with the political activities of the most distinguished royal ladies at the royal *harem*. Some royal ladies enjoyed high prestige and were adorned high titles such as Malika-I-Jahan, etc.. Among the prominent ladies attracted towards the politics were mother of sultan Ruknu-ud-Din Firuz, Khudavand-I-Jahan, Shah Turkan (wife of Sultan Iltutmish), Malika-I- Jahan, (wife of Sultan

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Jalalu-ud-Din Khalji), Makhduma-I-Jahan and Khudavandzada (the mother and sister of Sultan Mohammad-Bin-Tughluq) respectively.

An interesting aspects of *harem* life of the Delhi Sultans was that, in order to strengthen their position, they established matrimonial relations with the royal family. Some of the examples are- daughters of Qutub-ud-Din Aibak was married to Iltutmish; a daughter of Iltutmish was married to Balban; Altuniawas married to Raziya Sultan; Balban also gave one of his daughter in marriage to Nasiru-ud-Din Mahmud; a daughter of Malik Chajju was married to Kaiqubqd; a daughter of Kaiqubad was married to Ala-uddin; a daughter of Sultan Jalalu-ud-DinKhalji married withAlauddinKhalji; a daughter of AlauddinKhalji married to GhiyasuddinTughluq; a daughter of Mubarak Khalji married to Firoz shah Tughluq and a daughter of Sultan Muhammad at the Saiyed dynasty was married to Mahmud Sharqi.³The earliest reference of an outstanding lady who was actively participating in political activities during Turkish rule was Khudavand-i-Jahan, Shah Turkan (wife of Sultan Iltutmish). She was Turkish slave by origin and rose to the status of chief queen of sultan Iltutmish⁴ (1210-1236 A.D.).

During the life time of Sultan Iltutmish, Shah Turkan had gained political strength.⁵ She enjoyed influence in theSultan's court.⁶ But after the death of Sultan (1236 A.D.) she started a reign of terror and also manipulated political affairs to enthrone her indolent and pleasure loving son. At first she controlled the *harem* and also maltreated other ladies of the royal harem, created a serious situation in the royal harem. A younger son of Sultan Qutubuddin, who was a great promise blinded, and then put to death by the orders of this ambitious lady.⁷ The nobles began to distrust the government and rebellions broke out in different parts of the country.⁸

Raziya Sultan was the next hurdle in the way of her authoritarianism. So, ShahTurkan conspired against Raziya. Raziya tackled this obnoxious problem in a tricky way. She took the extreme step of invoking the help of the common people of Delhi, who had assembled for congregational crowd involved in a *coup d' etat* and imprisoned Shah Turkan.⁹ The accession of Raziya to the throne of Delhi heralded a new era in the history of Sultanate. It asserts the claim of a women to the office which was earlier considered to be the monopoly of

males. Raziya was elevated to the throne solely because of her merits and talents.¹⁰ Minhaj says: Raziya was a great monarch, she was wise, generous, benefactor to her kingdom, a dispenser of justice, she was the leader of her army, she was endowed with all the admirable attributes and qualifications necessary for kings; but she was not born of the right sex".¹¹

She handled the administration of Delhi in the absence of her father and acquitted herself very credibly.¹² She successfully dealt the problem of Lakhnavati, Lahore and Multan provinces.¹³ After becoming a sovereign she tried to bring some extraordinary changes in her way of living. She started wearing Kaba and Kulla instead of usual feminine dress. Isami criticized her in these words: "I have heard that she came out of *pardah*."¹⁴ She consolidated her empire by taking bold administrative steps. The nobles who favoured Raziya were awarded by her. She appointed them on the high posts, to avoid the concentration of the powers in the hands of particular section of nobility.

Raziya embarked upon the policy of enlisting and patronizing non-Turkish nobles. This inclusion of non-Turkish noble was used as one of the means to create a new force to serve her political ends. Jamaludin Yaqut, an Abyssinian slave received a special consideration for being a non-Turkish. He occupied one of the very prestigious office of Amir- I-Akhur, earlier enjoyed by the Turkish nobles only.¹⁵ He generally assisted and accompanied Raziya on the various occasions. Minhaj-us-Siraj a contemporary historian speaks nothing about the close relationship between the two while Isami casts a slur upon their relationship.¹⁶ This act of Raziya received a great opposition at the hands of Turkish nobles, who were deprived off from all privileges .

During the third year of her rule these nobles hatched a conspiracy against her.¹⁷ Either it was a scandal with Yaqut or the revolt of Altunia or marriage with him. Her decisions shows her capability of practical approach and her boldness. But all her efforts to regain her lost power proved futile.¹⁸ Finally in the month of September, 1240 A.D. Sultan Muizz-ud-Din Bahram Shah (son of sultan Iltutmish) army defeated Raziya and Altunia and they both were killed by the Hindus of Kaithal on October 13, 1240 A.D.¹⁹

Raziya being a female ruler was a great political significance in the history of sultanate period. It is surprising that she did not find a place

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in the list of Sultans which was prepared by the orders of Sultan Firoz Shah Tughluq.²⁰ This omission by Sultan Firoz Shah no way undermined her contribution in stabilizing Turkish Empire in Hindustan. Raziya stands as the only example of a women who wielded sovereignty during Muslim rule in India.²¹

Two another royal ladies, daughter as well as widow of sultan Iltutmish during the same period also mentioned by Minhaj-ud-Din Siraj. The relevant evidence about the daughter who happened to be the real sister of sultan MuizzuddinBahram Shah (1240-1242 A.D.) shows that a royal lady did not think it derogatory at all to seek divorce from her husband if there was temperamental incompatibility. She was first married to the QaziNasiruddin and then remarry with Aitigin, who had become the *Naib-i-Mulk*(regent) after her brother's accession to the throne in 1240 A.D.²²

The other very ambitious royal lady was widow of Iltutmish, married with a senior noble, Qutlugh Khan and to achieve the political gains she got the support of her new husband along with other nobles at the court. She forced the Sultan AlauddinMasud Shah to release from prison the sons of Sultan Iltutmish, prince Nasiruddin Mahmud (her own son) and prince Jalaluddin. On the advice of nobles her son, Nasiruddin Mahmud was entrusted with the charge of the territorial unit of Bahraich, while Jalaluddin was posted as the *wali* (governor) of Qanauj.²³ Two years later she plotted in league with her husband against Sultan AlauddinMasud and won over the nobles at the court to support her son's claim to the throne. She secretly carried on correspondence with the nobles in Delhi and ultimately sultan AlauddinMasud Shah was dethroned and her son was placed on the throne. She further tried to conciliate her son's position by having the daughter of Balban married to the sultan. By now Balban had emerged as the leader of powerful Turkish nobility and manipulated her and Qutlugh Khan and the sultan also.

The Matrimonial relations of the Sultans with royal ladies did not always remain cordial.Malka-i-Jahan, wife of sultan JalaluddinKhalji and mother-in-law of sultan AlauddinKhalji had great interest in the political affairs during the Sultanate period. As a wife, she enjoyed a complete influence over her husband, Jalaluddin Khalji.²⁴Malika-i-

Jahan was responsible for creating problems and misunderstandings between her daughter and son-in-law, AlauddinKhalji. AlauddinKhalji had secret relations with a sister of Alp Khan named Mahru.²⁵ It could not be kept secret from his suspicious wife and mother-in-law. Another thing was the ambitious and intriguing nature of sultan Alauddin Khalji.²⁶ Malika-i-Jahan supported Qadir Khan against her own son and enthroned him by giving him the title Ruknu-ud-Din Ibrahim.²⁷ She heard petitions and issued decrees. But she did not possess the requisite intelligence to handle the political affairs. AlauddinKhalji took the benefit of her this weakness and snatched the throne of Delhi.²⁸The position of AlauddinKhalji's *harem* is not known but he had several wives-Jalaluddin's daughter, a sister of Alap Khan, Baadshah Begum, a daughter of Kaiqubad known as MalkaMahik, and mother of Mubarak Khan , Kamla Devi the daughter of King Ramdeva.²⁹

The political activities in the harem during the TughluqSultans was characterized by sobriety, dignity and restrained (in the life of Sultan). Sultan GhiyasuddinTughluq's personal life was extremely chaste and pure.³⁰ Even Sultan Muhammad-bin-Tughluq sought the advice of his mother not only in the management of royal household but also in important political matters.³¹ Makhduma-i-Jahan enjoyed considerable influence in the imperial politics. She received envoys and royal guests in the court. One of them was Ibn-Battutah who had been received and entertained by her when he reached Delhi in 1334 A.D. being a women of charitable disposition; she maintained a number of hospices for the comfort of travellers.³² Soon after the death of Sultan, Khudavandzada, being in the royal lineage, put forward the claims of her son, Dawar Malikto the throne against Firoz Shah Tughluq.³³ But the nobles preferred Firoz Shah Tughluq. In order to avoid a civil war, Malik Saifuddin an influential noble at the court made effort to pacify Khudavandzada's stubborn attitude.³⁴ The ambitious and conspiring Khudavandzada though met an unhappy end.

Ladies of the harem seem very active in political life of the fifteenth century. BibiMatto, widow of sultan Shah Lodhi (uncle of BahlolLodhi) once defended the Delhi fort against the armies of Sultan Mahmud Sharqi by a strange stratagem. The role of harem in Delhi- Jaunpur relations can not be ignored in any assessment of political life of the

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period. In 1437 when Ibrahim Sharqi marched against Muhammad Shah of Delhi, the later sued for peace and gave his daughter BibiRaji in marriage to Ibrahim's son Mahmud. When Mahmud ascended the throne BibiRaji played a very important role in political developments.³⁵ The Battle of Narela in 1462 was instigated by her. In the battle Qutub Khan Lodhi, brother-in-law of Bahlol, was taken prisoner.³⁶ Bahlul's wife Shams Khatun sent a message to her Husband that so long as Qutub Khan, her brother, was not taken out of prison," rest and sleep was unlawful for the sultan".³⁷

There is paucity of information in the contemporary sources about the establishment of matrimonial relations between the Hindu and Muslim members of the ruling class. Sultan Alauddin Khalji and his son Khizr Khan married with the Hindu women³⁸. Sultan Firoz Shah Tughluq's father Rajab and the sultan himself married with Hindu women's. But these marriages were generally not welcomed.

The *harem* was very closely guarded and a separate establishment consisting of slave-girls and eunuchs maintained liaison between the 'inner' and the 'outer' world. When the Sultan proceeded on some campaign he assigned the *harem* to the care of some of the most- reliable nobles.

The Political activities of the royal Ladies through the influence of royal harem specially in the political sphere during the Delhi sultanate period varied accordingly to their personality, family connections, political situation and the character of the Sultan. Those who were successful in manipulating the situation in their own interest or in the interest of their son's had to depend on the support of men. By virtue of their tact, intelligence and diplomacy they often strengthened the sultanate. But sometimes impelled by their ambition, intriguing and self seeking nature, their participation in political issues create more problems for the sultanate.

It appears that the royal Ladies during this time enjoying the respectable position in the *harem*. Their opinion matters not only in the household but also in political affairs. They were very powerful and getting the support of the nobility. It is difficult to determine the size of the harem of the Delhi Sultans. They had a considerable influence on their husbands and even issued the farmans . They were in no way

subordinate in status to men in controlling the administrative machinery. It was the legacy of the Delhi Sultanate which also followed by the competitors royal Mughal ladies like Nurjahan, MumtazMahal, and Jahanara Begum were quite influential in the political matters of Mughal Empire.

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