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आवास : 2, देशराम मार्ग, पटना
फोन : 0612-2217856 (816)
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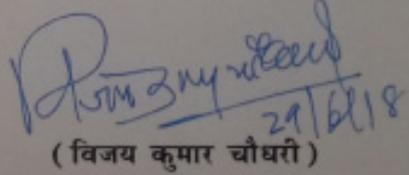


संदेश

प्रसन्नता की बात है कि भारतीय लोक प्रशासन संस्थान बिहार रिजनल ब्रांच, पटना द्वारा पिछले 14-15 वर्षों से एक उच्च स्तरीय शोध पत्रिका बिहार जर्नल ऑफ पब्लिक एडमिनिस्ट्रेशन का अनवरत प्रकाशन किया जा रहा है।

बिहार में लोक प्रशासन विषय को समृद्ध करने में इस संस्थान का महत्वपूर्ण योगदान रहा है।

मैं इस जर्नल के प्रकारान एवं इसकी सफलता की शुभकामनाएँ देता हूँ।


(विजय कुमार चौधरी)

From the Pen of the Chairman-cum-Chief Editor

Dear Readers,

I have immense pleasure to present the latest issue of BJPA (Vol. XV No. 2, July-Dec, 2018) before you. The Indian Institute of Public Administration (IIPA), Bihar Regional Branch, Patna has been endeavouring tirelessly to bring the burning issues of Public Administration to the fore through the Journal. Regular publication of journal is a step forward towards the venture that too amidst financial exigencies and other difficulties. The Branch has been conscious of maintaining high order of the journal in order to make it useful for teachers, researchers, students, policy makers and administrators. Besides, we have made efforts to maintain its high standard so that it could be included in UGC approved list of journals and also for its wide circulation through Branch's website.

The present issue encompasses the burning issues in governance and celebrates the 150th Birth Anniversary of Mahatma Gandhi and Centenary Year of Champaran Satyagrah. However, the issue is not devoted to Gandhism.

I express my thankfulness to the editorial team, anonymous referees, learned contributors and institutions of higher education who have rendered helping hands to our venture.

Er. Jugal Kishore Singh
Chairman-cum-Chief Editor

Editorial

The present issue of Bihar Journal of Public Administration (Vol. XV No. 2, July-December, 2018) covers a wide range of issues of public administration, policy perspectives, working of Indian federalism, food administration etc. The article in commemoration of 150th year of Gandhi's birth day and centenary year of Champaran Stayagrah explains the impact of Gandhi's unique modes of political resistance experimented during Champaran movement 1917-18. The paper analyses Gandhi's move to inspire villagers for sanitation, prayers, education, recording of statements of victim farmers of Champaran and writing letters to British officials that had deep impact on the British Administration of that period, right from District Collector to the Governor of the Province of Bihar and Orissa.

The article, by Yashmin of Osmania University, Hyderabad, examines the paradigmatic shift in India's foreign policy towards countries of ASEAN from Look East Policy to Act East Policy by the present Modi led Indian Government. The paper by S B Kumar deals the national integrity and nature of federal structure in India at length and in which he signifies the role of leadership in the process. He finds that it is leadership that ensure the most cherished need of national integration. Bijoy Chand and Sweta Chand, in their paper entitled "Food Security in India: Issues and Challenges", has examined the conceptual aspects of food security and traces the challenges in proper implementation of provisions of Food Security Act 2013 in Indian states. The authors have concluded that substantial progress in terms of overcoming transient food security by giving priority to self-sufficiency in food grains. We have now mounting buffer stocks of food grains. In spite of this, the problem of food insecurity persists in a section of India's population. Another paper evaluates the environmental administration in India with special reference to assessment of structure and working of Pollution Control Boards (PCBs). The paper finds that inadequate technical personnel, paucity of finances and lack of holistic approach of pollution control boards have marred the environmental assessment and checking the menace. The PCBs further ignore the people's voice at large. The role of digital technology in the process of governance has been dealt in the issue. Further, the present issue gives a comprehensive range of reading on the subject of environmental politics. Finally, a section of book reviews do also find place in the issue. The suggestions for improvement in the Journal are solicited.

Dr. R.K. Verma
Editor

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Impact of Gandhi's Political Resistance on British Administration During Champaran Movement

Ravindra Kumar Verma*

(This Paper is in commemoration of the 150th year of Gandhi's birth and centenary year of Champaran satyagrah.)

Abstract

The British India was such an authoritarian rule that Indians were scared of even complaining against the inhuman atrocities inflicted on them. The farmers of Champaran were exploited, subjugated and oppressed by the English Indigo Traders with the support of British officers. Such atrocities perpetuate due to lack of culture of resistance among the people. The British rulers used to shun the voice of the people with force. Gandhiji visited the place on the request of farmers of Champaran where he found that direct resistance would be crushed by the Britishers, hence he applied such modes of resistance that did not directly provoke the British officials to take coercive action rather these had deep impact on them. The present paper intends to underline those effective passive resistance experimented by Mahatma Gandhi in Bihar during his Champaran stay.

Keywords: Gandhi, Resistance, Cleanliness, Education, Recording of Statements, Nilha Sahib.

INTRODUCTION

It is evident from the history that the people have been made to tolerate infliction of atrocities by state apparatus and powerful elites only for one reason i.e. lack of culture of resistance among the underdogs. There are ample of historical evidences that reveal that people have been prey to atrocities particularly in 20th Century,

* Associate Professor, Post Graduate Department of Political Science, R N College, Hajipur (Bihar).
Contact: rkverma395@gmail.com, Mob: 7762882579, 9473431548

viz. atrocities inflicted on Herero and Nama of South Africa, Jews of Ukraine, Armenians and Hutu of Burundi.¹ But at the same time there are evidences that underdogs have adopted various modes of passive resistance to express their anger by using the medium of art and culture, e.g. mock Palestinian drama by artist of Berlin for identity, ironic demonstration of state symbols by students of Slavonia, painting tapestries in Church by women of Chile during the reign of Pinochet, demonstration of artistic placards by Baltimore community and collection of bones etc. But Mahatma Gandhi's non-violent modes of political resistance were more effective. The present article attempts to underline those modes of resistance.

Indian people had been made subject to exploitation by Britishers right from eighteenth century. People had anguish against them but had no courage to resist. Although in 1857, the sepoys of Meerut dared to resist directly, yet the power and force of Britishers pulverized their bid. Indians' voice was gagged since then. Bearing atrocities silently became the destiny of Indians. Perhaps for this reason, publication of *Atmkatha* of Vishnubhatt took a long period of two decades.²

The indigo manufacturers and traders of Champaran district of Bihar, commonly known as Nilha Sahebs³ inflicted sufferings and atrocities on the farmers for over a century. It so happened because none of them or any such other person resisted against it. On the other hand it was also true that in want of power and authority, they were vulnerable to increased intensity of atrocities if voiced were raised. It was Raj Kumar Shukla, a farmer of the area, approached Gandhi to come to their rescue. Gandhiji visited Champaran and realised their agony. Despite he had to face the wrath of Nilha Sahebs and local British officials, he decided to improve the situation without coming in to direct scuffle with English officers and British indigo traders applying his non-violent and indirect modes of resistance. We shall discuss here those unique modes of resistance which spread the message of fearlessness and awareness of their rights among people.

Unique Modes of Political Resistance

Gandhiji had already experiments of the non-violent but explicit mode of political resistance in South Africa. He had fought for the rights and causes of Indians there. His first such experiment was opposing the Asiatic Registration Bill 1906 in Johannesburg in 1907. This bill was related to limit the rights of Indian traders.⁴ This had developed a strong sense of confidence in him of his experiments. But what he experimented in Champaran was quite different and latent but that was effective too. Let us discuss those modes.

Political Sensitisation through Cleanliness

In his initial ventures in South Africa, Gandhiji had perceived cleanliness as a political weapon and equated it with freedom. He had the belief that there is no importance of freedom without getting rid of dirty habits⁵ He emphasized the significance of cleanliness during entire freedom struggle by indentifying its technical, social, economic, domestic and individual aspects. He used to say, "Cleanliness is next to God." During his stay in South Africa, he expressed his concern about sanitation facilities for cleanliness among Indians and Indian dwellings at par with whites (Europeans). He strongly advocated for the same.⁶ In his open letter to Natal Legislative Assembly, he pleaded that Indians have equal rights to be clean at par with Europeans.⁷ He realised that Indians lacked clean living. During plague epidemic in Durban, Gandhiji, in support to the local officials, despite their opposition, launched a programme of 'house to house inspection' in Indian dwellings. He had once written, "Criminal negligence of the Municipality and ignorance of the Indian settlers thus conspired to render the 'location' thoroughly insanitary."⁸

He raised the issue of cleanliness, after return to India, at various occasions. He said that Indians have two major ailments (problems) - first lack of cleanliness and untouchability. He discussed the dirtiness and inadequate arrangements of sanitation at Haridwar during Kumbh, temple of Kashi Vishwanath, railway stations while he was at Shantiniketan. Gandhiji tried to experiment the cleanliness in Champaran for sensitising the farmers and instilling self respect in them. He made the villagers aware of diseases caused by dirtiness. He took the cognizance of women of the villages, not taking bath. He opposed the work of scavenging and carrying night soil on head. He instigated the construction of such latrines that did not need scavenging and provide to live a respectful life.⁹ These activities do not seem political but this generated political sensitivity and promoted intention to political resistance for quality life. This inspired people of Champaran to have respectful life.

Political Impacts of Statement Recording

The agony and miseries of farmers of Champaran during the 19th century and beginning of 20th century is well known. Nilha Sahebs were blindly supported by local British officials. Nilha Sahebs practiced plantation of indigo and forced the farmers to cultivate indigo in one sixth of their agricultural land commonly known as panchkathia and later teenkathia¹⁰ for almost one hundred years. In fact, these indigo traders had helped the Betiah Raj to take loan from England, and in lieu of that the Raj transferred the tenure rights (under land tenancy Act) to Nilha Sahebs for paying the loan back. Taking the leverage of this transfer, they exploited the

farmers of the Champaran. The farmers were meted out inhuman treatment by them. Sometimes, they exploited the women of the farmer's family. When Gandhiji entered Champaran district the officers of British rule ordered him to leave the place on behest of Nilha Sahebs. He was arrested by the district administration. Gandhiji was tried in the court where he pleaded his innocence. He was released. Later he convinced the Commissioner that he wanted to examine the plight of farmers and not to breach the peace. He was allowed to do so. Gandhiji entrusted his trusted associates to note the statements of the victim farmers. Many persons including Dr. Rajendra Prasad were given the task to note the statements. Officials used to depute police constables, hawildars and sub-inspectors to watch the activity but they could not influence the farmers and prevent them to tell their grief. The statements were written in English, perhaps to use it as evidence. Dr Rajendra Prasad himself has written about the impact of recording the statements of farmers, "The impact of our enquiry was such that the local officers were scared. Many of them felt that English rule was likely to end in Champaran. People began to have perception that as if Gandhi ji is the highest officer who could entertain the complaints against even the District Collector and magistrates. The domineering aura of not only Nilbars (Nilha Sahebs) has been vanishing from people but of officers' from us also. So after having scared they sent a report to provincial government. ... Provincial government asked Gandhiji to meet a member (of government). He met him (the member) at Patna. By that time, a clear statement on the basis of whatever the complaints were received was placed before him. The government member forwarded it to Government which was being considered there."¹¹ He further wrote that Gandhi's this type of act was quite a new for them. The situation was so (sensitive) that officers and policemen were deputed to keep vigil over the persons recording the statements. It irked the statement recorders but Gandhiji advised them not to be influenced by their presence.

Not only this, the provincial Government took action on the reporting. The Governor summoned Gandhiji at Ranchi for discussions on the issue. After having gone through the reports, the Governor appointed a Commission, of which Gandhiji was nominated as a member, to make a detailed enquiry on the complaints.

Dr Rajendra Prasad writes that after appointment of Commission, according to Mahatma's instructions, raiyats presented their documents; having gone through them thoroughly, they (Rajendra Babu and others) prepared a detailed statement for putting them before Commission. Though the problem was not fully resolved, yet the recording of statement had instilled courage among people and generated fear among officials.

Political Sensitisation Among Women through Literacy and Prayers

Gandhiji's another experiment, after cleanliness, was activities for spread of literacy among the villagers of Champaran. He opened a school, for the first time, in Bhitiharwa village on 30 September, 2017 and later in November of the same year, opened another basic school (buniadi vidyalay) at Barharwa Lakhansen, 30 KMs away from district HQ. On 17 January 1918, two more basic schools were opened in Bhitiharwa with help of Sant Rawut. This reflects that the attempt to spread literacy was successful and also that it helped in raising awareness among the villagers. People like Dr. Rajendra Prasad, Dr. Anugrah Narain Sinha, Brajkishore Prasad, Ramnawami Prasad, Jawahar Lal Nehru, Acharya Kripalani and others joined this venture of Gandhiji as volunteers. Gandhiji called her wife Kasturba to Champaran and inspired the women from Indian elite families to join the teaching work in these schools. By this way he enabled women and men for political participation through education and sanitation. Of course the women's participation in Champaran Satyagrah was numerically less but this opened the vista for their political participation. Dr. Sulabh opined that though women's direct involvement in Champaran movement was less, yet Gandhi's inspiration instilled in them life power (*pran-shakti*) and divine energy (*divya urja*). Having been trained and inspired by Kasturba, a large number of women joined in hastkargha (hand weaving device), cleanliness drive and raising awareness among women.¹²

In this way Gandhiji preferred to go for sanitation, education and prayers for the purpose of developing self-respect and confidence among the women and villagers instead of anti-government activities. He took activities involving women against purdah, rituals hostile to and oppression on women, for which he organised prayers (prarthana sabha). He noticed that women's attendance was thin and as such he enquired and found that the reason behind it was lack of alternative saris (women's cloth) with women, meaning that most of the women had only one sari that inhibited them to come to prayers. Only since then, Gandhi began to wear one cloth (Dhoti) and vowed that until and unless these women have adequate cloths, he would cover his body with only one dhoti.

Correspondence as Weapon of Political Resistance

Gandhiji's letters written to English officials became a weapon of political resistance. On 12th April, 1917 Gandhiji wrote a letter to Commissioner of Tirhut L F Morsehead seeking an appointment with him in regard to permission to enquire against the exploitative and torturous treatment by Nilha Sahebs meted out to farmers of Champaran and support from local administration. An excerpt of letter read, "I would like to do my work with cognizance and even cooperation, if I can secure of local administration. I shall be obliged if you will kindly grant me an

interview so that I may place before you the object of my enquiry and learn whether I may receive any assistance from the local administration in furtherance of my work. The interview was granted. In his fortnightly report on 14th April, 1917, the Commissioner mentioned it in his note and remarked that Gandhi would have to place evidence of popular demand for enquiry. One magistrate Weston who was present at the interview, questioned the “advantage of Mr. Gandhi’s intervention, whilst we were in the middle of the problem, and suggested that it would be more appropriate afterwards, when it could be seen if the action taken was adequate. Present intervention might cause regrettable friction between the planters, raiyats and officials.”

Gandhiji, having known the views of Commissioner, wrote another letter to him mentioning, “I fear that I have failed to convey to you the correct scope of my mission. I, therefore, re-state it here. I am anxious to test the accuracy of the statements made to me by various friends regarding indigo matters and to find out for myself whether I can render useful assistance.” Despite all these, the Commissioner instructed the District Collector to impose section 144 of CrPC to prevent breach of peace caused by Gandhiji. On 16th April 1917, in response to clamping section 144, Gandhiji wrote a letter to the District Collector W B Heyoch in which he clearly blamed the officials and resisted to their orders in the following words, “With reference to the order under section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code just served upon me, I beg to state that I am sorry that you have felt called upon to issue it and I am sorry too, that the Commissioner of the Division has totally misinterpreted my position. Out of a sense of public responsibility, I feel it to be my duty to say that I am unable to leave this district, but if it so pleases the authorities, I shall submit to the order, viz., suffering the penalty of the disobedience.” Tirhut Commissioner, in his letter to Chief Secretary, Government of Bihar and Orissa mentioned that “I was also informed that his object was not a genuine desire to satisfy himself, but to foment agitation in support of persons who concern themselves with agitation here.”¹³

The whole gamut of discussions above reflects that Gandhiji did experiments in such unique modes of political resistance (viz. sanitation, education, statement recording and writing letters to high officials) that did not provoke the English officials to take direct action but were much effective in raising political awareness among afraid people and fear among British officials.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

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- 2 Presented by Madhukar Upadhayay, Vishnu Bhatt ki Atmakatha, Vani Prakashan, New Delhi, 2007.

- 3 The indigo traders of British origin, who had obtained the tenure rights from Betiah Raj in lieu of help rendered to the Raj, forcedly got the indigo plants grown in the fields of Champaran farmers and meted out coercive and torturous treatment to the farmers. Such British indigo traders were commonly called as 'Nilha Sahebs'.
- 4 Visit the following website <<https://www.sahistory.org.za/article/gandhi-and-passive-resistance-campaign-1907-1914>>
- 5 Government of India, Works of Mahatma Gandhi, Publication Division, New Delhi Vol 14 p. 56-58
- 6 For details of cleanliness related facts visit the following website: <<https://www.mkgandhi.org/articles/cleanliness-sanitation-gandhian-movement-swachh-bharat-abhiyan.html>>
- 7 Government of India, Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi, Publication Division, New Delhi, Vol. 39, pp. 170-85.
- 8 Government of India, Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi, Publication Division, New Delhi, Vol. 39, pp. 230-31
- 9 Government of India, Collected Works of Mahatma Gandhi, Publication Division, New Delhi, Vol. 39, pp. 271-73
- 10 Panchkathia refers to forced plantation of indigo in five kathas out of twenty kathas of owned agricultural land which was later reduced to teenkathia refers to three kathas out of twenty kathas of agricultural land. Katha denotes the unit of land. In addition they had to work as unpaid labour in the field and indigo factories.
- 11 Rajendra Prasad, "Shoshan ka Chhetra Champaran" in Raji Ahmed (ed), Champaran Satyagrah Shatabdi Samaroh Ki Sukhad Yaden 1917-2018: Prasangikta Visheshank, Gandhi Sangrahalaya, Patna 2018, pp. 7-12
- 12 Visit website <[http://naukarshahi.com/Champaran ki Mahilaon ki Dasha](http://naukarshahi.com/Champaran%20ki%20Mahilaon%20ki%20Dasha)>
- 13 We do not intend to discuss here the contents of the letters, rather to mark the impacts of Gandhi's letters on British officials. For collection of the letters see Vijay Kumar, "A Law Abiding Law Breaker in Champaran: Some Important Letters", in Raji Ahmed (ed), Champaran Satyagrah Shatabdi Samaroh Ki Sukhad Yaden 1917-2018: Prasangikta Visheshank, Gandhi Sangrahalaya, Patna 2018,-pp. 66-70.



India – ASEAN Relations

(A Shift from Look East Policy to Act East Policy)

Yasmin*

Abstract

India's Look East Policy which came into existence in the 1990's led to forming of good relations with the members of ASEAN (consisting of countries such as Indonesia, Singapore, Philippines, Vietnam, Malaysia, Thailand, Brunei, Laos, Myanmar, and Cambodia). There has been considerable improvement in investment and trade since then. India and ASEAN celebrated 25th anniversary of the establishment of sectoral dialogue between two sides. Since the new regime of Modi led Indian Government, there has been a shift of policy from Look East Policy to Act East Policy, realizing the importance of the ASEAN region for India. On the occasion of the Republic Day 2018, India experimented in this regard to invite ten heads of the state of ASEAN as the chief guests, instead of tradition of inviting only one head of the state. This sends out a clear message that India feels the significance of cooperation with ASEAN countries. The present paper attempts to analyze briefly the India's relations with both the ASEAN as a regional organisation and its individual countries.

Keywords: ASEAN, Look East Policy, Act East Policy, Economic Cooperation, Trade, Investment.

INTRODUCTION

India and South East Asian nations have age-old relations, as they share almost similar socio-economic and political history. Colonized by the European countries both India and South East Asian nations have been made to suffer not only economically but socially too. India along with these nations had to rebuild their economies after the end of colonial economic exploitation. Perhaps for this reason, there is similarity in the development process of these countries and henceforth require each other's cooperation. Today India has changed its stand from Look

* Dr Yasmin is Assistant Professor, Department of Political Science, Osmania University, Hyderabad (Telangna). Mobile: 98664 07584, Landline: 040-2339 1449, E-mail: yasmin1505@yahoo.com

East Policy to Act East policy under the leadership of Prime Minister Narendra Modi. The Act East policy has changed the attitude of the ASEAN Nations and they look up to India especially in security context. But in this age of globalisation, both India and ASEAN have no option but to concentrate on economic cooperation particularly, trade and investment. For the first time ten heads of states were invited on the occasion of the Republic Day as chief guests. This was also a commemorative summit, the leaders renewed their commitment to enhance the multifaceted ties between the South East Asian grouping and India.¹ Prime Minister Modi said on the occasion that India hopes to deepen cooperation with ASEAN in their shared maritime domain. Disaster relief efforts security cooperation and freedom of navigation are focus areas for this maritime tie up.² India and ASEAN have realized that there are greater potentials as far as their trade and investment is concerned. Henceforth, serious efforts have been made to increase trade and investment in both the regions. It is high time to make serious efforts to improve economic relations. India on its part should also provide a congenial atmosphere for investment.

INDIA'S TRADE WITH INDIVIDUAL NATIONS OF ASEAN

With Indonesia

The basis of the India-Indonesia partnership dates back to the reign of Jawaharlal Nehru and Sukarno.³ Economic engagement between the two is growing rapidly and has further gained momentum after signing of India ASEAN FTA. Indonesia is an important source of energy and raw materials for India.⁴ Major Indian companies, including the Birla Group, the Tatas, Essar, Jindal Steel, and Bajaj Motors have trades with Indonesia. India Indonesia bilateral trade has increased from US \$4.3 billion in 2005 to US \$15.9 billion in 2015. However, a decline has been noted in last two three-years due to normal global economic situation, fall in commodity prices and diminished overall imports by Indonesia.¹ Indian companies, have increased investment in Indonesia, primarily in power, textile, infrastructure in railways IT, Iron and Steel are economic drivers of India. Indonesia is strong in plantations, low cost housing and retail trade which India needs to adopt, besides imports of coal and palm oil.⁵

With Philippines

India and Philippines have signed a trade agreement in 1979. Bilateral trade was slow between the two countries till the late nineties then posted a positive growth after the deepening relations between India and ASEAN in the context of India's Look East Policy. Major items of Indian exports are vehicles and its parts and

1 It must be noted that (i) Indonesia is India's second largest trading partner in ASEAN countries. (ii) India is largest buyer of crude palm oil from Indonesia.

accessories, frozen buffalo meat, pharmaceutical products, seeds, rubber products, electrical and electronic machinery and equipment, boilers etc. organic chemical, steel and cotton. Major imports from Philippines are electrical and electronic machinery and equipment boilers etc, vehicles, paper products, organic chemicals, fertilizers, inorganic chemicals, optical photographic instruments, rubber etc.⁶

Indian investments in the Philippines are mainly in the areas of textiles, garments, IT & IT equipments, Steel, Airports, chemicals and pharmaceuticals. Some of the major Indian investments in Philippines are the Aditya Birla Group, in textiles and chemicals, Ispat Group in Steel, DSLR group in Agri business etc. A recent entrant is the GMR Group Ltd, which in collaboration with Megawide, won the bid in April 2014 for upgrading and running the Cebu–Mactan Airport Project for the next 25 years.⁷

Collaboration in the BPO sector has grown exponentially in the last few years several Indian IT companies have already set up BPO operations in the Philippines and these include companies like Wipro, TCS, L&T, Infotech, Genpact, Infosys, Intelnet, Aegis, HLMT, Tech Mahindra, etc.⁸ Philippines was a late starter as far as trade and investment is concerned but it has picked up and now the best companies of India have invested in the country.

With Singapore

Singapore is India's second largest trading partner among the 10 nation Association of South East Asia Nations [ASEAN].⁹ Exports to Singapore from India increased to 66.72 INR Billion in January 2017 from 42.20 INR Billion in December of 2016. Exports to Singapore in India averaged 20.81 INR Billion from 1991 until 2017.¹⁰ India imports from Singapore in India decreased to 43.37 INR Billion in January, 2017 from 44.10 INR Billion in December 2016. Imports from India averaged 16.18 INR Billion until 2017. reaching an all time high of 60.46 INR Billion in December of 2012 and a record low of 0.14 INR Billion in April of 1991.¹¹ Indian exports to Singapore are petroleum oils, light vessels, cruise ships, excursion boats, tugs, and pusher craft, articles of Jewellery, rice, synthetic organic coloring medical instruments etc.¹²

Singapore's exports to India are mainly cyclic Hydrocarbons, computers, ships etc.¹³ Bilateral ties between India and Vietnam have strengthened in recent years with a focus on regional security issues and trade. The signing of India ASEAN FTA and India's recognition of Vietnam's market economy status has boosted economic ties.¹⁴

WITH THAILAND, BRUNEI, LAOS AND CAMBODIA

India has excellent relations with Thailand and it forms an important and integral component of India's strategic partnership with ASEAN. Sustained high level bilateral exchanges and regular meetings of bilateral institutional mechanism have provided major fillip to India – Thailand relations and achieved progress in key areas of cooperation such as security, defence, commerce, science, technology & education.¹⁵ India is considered as Thailand's prominent trade partnership in South Asia with 87.13% projected rise in bilateral from current \$ 8.55 billion in 2016-17 to \$ 16.00 billion by 2021. Major Thai export products include electronics, machinery, and optical lenses and major imported products include machinery, chemicals, electronic, medical products and food products. In the ASEAN region Thailand ranks as India's 4th largest trading partner after Singapore, Indonesia and Malaysia.¹⁶

Brunei, Laos, Cambodia have also have good relations with India. Trade and investment has to pick up as far as these countries are concerned. No doubt with recent meeting with the Prime Minister of India, they have also shown an interest in improving trade with India. No doubt India would provide them the same status as it had done with other ASEAN Nations. Time is not far when all these three countries also would be good trading partners with India.

With Malaysia

India and Malaysia have also good bilateral relations. The reason behind it is the sizeable presence of Indian Diaspora in Malaysia. They were taken as plantation labourers by the Britishers. The two nations are focused on galvanizing bilateral economic cooperation and liberalizing their respective investment regimes the facilitate greater mutual FDI.¹⁷ Besides Trade and investment there are other issues which are of concern to both India and ASEAN, like terrorism, freedom of navigation. These issues were discussed at length at the Commemorative Summit in January 2018.

PEACE AND SECURITY CONCERNS

The ASEAN block sees New Delhi as key to peace in Indo-pacific regions and prosperity. According to the ASEAN, India should play a pro-active role in the Indo-Pacific Region. All the ASEAN leaders have appreciated India's role and the bilateral relationship that India enjoys with each of them, and that India has such a positive role in the Indo Pacific Region. They feel that India is a very important component of peace, stability and prosperity of the Indo Pacific Region.¹⁸

The ASEAN India Summit emphasized on counter terrorism. India has been a country which has always called for collaborative effort to fight terrorism particularly, cross-border terrorism. India's policy emphasizes on combating terrorism in the region as it has been victim of terrorist activities since quite some time, as such it promised all help to countries from ASEAN who are fighting terrorism.

Besides economic relations, trade and investment, maintaining good bilateral strategic relations and security concerns has also been very important. Security in the Indian ocean is a major concern for these nations, especially to all the littoral states. Safety of navigation transport of goods needs multilateral cooperation among these nations. The Indian prime minister Modi while addressing the leaders of the ASEAN countries, at the Commemorative Summit of India and ASEAN said that security and freedom of navigation will be at the heart of Indian-ASEAN cooperation in the 21st century.¹⁹

Similarly, the closure of the straits of Malacca through which nearly 9.4 million barrels of oil flow per day can seriously threaten the economies of South East Asia and the energy intensive economies of China and Japan. Due to the geostrategic importance of Malacca straits to almost all the South and South East Counties, any maritime contingency in this traffic congested region would have profound security ramification.²⁰

Therefore, the ASEAN Nations welcome the presence of India in the Indian Ocean. They regularly conduct naval exercises and in a way they feel secure because they have realized that India does not have any ambitions in the Indian Ocean. Even in the South China Sea because of their close proximity with India they will be protected from China. In a recent visit to Singapore, Indian prime minister Modi was successful in negotiating access to Sabang island in Indonesia with the help of Singapore for a naval platform.

Energy security has emerged as an important component of India's foreign policy towards South East Asia, as energy-deficient India is seeking energy resources globally to feed the requirements of its rapidly growing economy.²¹ If today India's economy integrates in the ASEAN, then the prospects of both the economies will be helpful in developing fast.

CONCLUSION

Economic cooperation always helps in building strong relations among nations. India ASEAN trade relations have grown positive over the last decade. There is still the potential to be exploited in the areas which can fruitfully be shared. Their partnership could also be important in building a block of Asian economic community. The ASEAN countries trust India in security concerns and henceforth,

they look up to India for protection from China. It is not just ASEAN who want good relations with India, but under its act East Policy India is pushing to boost its relationship via connectivity, commerce, culture and educational ties with ASEAN countries. Over millions of Indian visiting ASEAN countries enriching people to people contact is very important. Tourism has to be encouraged between India and ASEAN.

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National Integration and Indian Federalism (Tracing the Role of Leadership)

Shashi Bhushan Kumar*

Abstract

Federalism has been used as an instrument of reconciling the necessity of national unity and integration with the natural urges of sub-national communities to maintain their respective identities and autonomy. Thus, it leads to a balance between national unity and regional autonomy, the latter being a shield for diversities in respect to language, culture, race and religion. Federal character of India is a boon for promoting national integration but the role of leadership has been a mixed experience.

Keywords: Keywords: National Integration, Federalism, Leadership, Diversity, Regionalism

National integration is one of the major goals of independent India and for the achievement of the goal, an institutional arrangement is made by adopting a federal constitution. Therefore, there is always a sincere effort by the political leaders of both the centre and the States to maintain the vertical balance between the two levels. Hence, in this article, focus has been made on three variables are (a) national integration (b) vertical balance between the Centre and the States and (c) nature and pattern of leadership in shaping and maintaining the balance for the sake of national integration.

After the end of the Second World War federalism became fashionable both in the West and East, particularly in the British Commonwealth, “as a means of solving or softening the problems of Government of countries attaining, or about to attain independence.”¹ Although Karl Lowenstein maintains that federalism, in spite of its various institutionalisations, is on the decline. He admits that “Federalism is

* Dr Kumar is Associate Professor, Post Graduate Department of Political Science, R. N. College, Hajipur Contact: <shashibhushan911@gmail.com>, Mob No. 9334481906

essential and indispensable where strong tendencies of multi-national or tribal diversity prevail.”²

NATIONAL INTEGRATION AND MULTI-CENTRES

National integration—the vital spirit of a nation, is a subjective phenomenon characterized by objective factors such as similarities of race, culture, religion, historical experiences, social and political institutions and, perhaps above all, language. Integration is to be looked upon not as mere aggregation that overrides multiplicity, but as a process of ordering and balancing the multiplicity through interlocking the various strata, levels, diversities and cleavages into a loose accommodation within a political system. The main characteristics of the system is its centripetality through open interaction, a strong and visible ‘Centre’ towards which the various ‘peripheries’ are drawn by mechanisms of competition and cooperation.

National integration is identifiable by psychological or attitudinal criteria centering on the nature and degree of man’s sense of identity with his fellowman, desire to live under a common government, and commitment to the accepted and broad goals of the system. It is a feeling of one’s identity maintained with the larger community that transcends one’s identification either with the local or regional community.

National integration in the above sense is to be brought about by institutionalising several centres and not by one centre as is the case in a unitary form of government. Several centres model³ is explained through the concept of the Centre and the periphery. The Centre-periphery model institutionalises the States in terms of a national community.

FEDERALISM: A WAY TO NATIONAL INTEGRATION

The Centre-periphery model or several centres model was institutionalized centuries ago through federalism with different metaphors.⁴ Federalism has been defined as the mid-point of a scale running from unitary government to confederation.⁵ It is a compromise between complete centralisation and complete autonomy. It is a balancing factor between motives represented by two types of attitudes, namely, the attitude to unite as one people to confront a common enemy or overcome a common danger, and to maintain the economic and administrative advantages of such a unity on a permanent basis; and the attitude not to submerge the separate identity in terms of ethnicity, language, culture, or all these combined. The equation between these two opposite attitudinal factors is worked out by politically organising societies somewhere between a unitary and confederate government. This is the form we label as federalism.⁶

When nationalism needs a composite culture-content, which is not a mechanical amalgam of the multiple cultures of the people of the nation, federalism is the only mechanism to bring it out. In this sense, federalism assumes a division of powers between the two levels of government, and thus requires a transfer of loyalty from the locality to the nation as a whole. It develops a greater sense of national consciousness and provides a more stable government by recognising the regional identity and autonomy. Thus, it is found where ethnic, linguistic and other differences are so acutely felt that “federalism has to be used in these States in the first place just to get the various political communities together, that federalism also has to be used in the second place (instead of a decentralised unitary state) as a means of integrating the various communities into a larger political community on the strength of the relationship between political services and political loyalties.”⁷

Thus federalism is found to be an easy path to national integration, and nation-building. It is flexible and therefore, it provides a means of bringing distinct groups together and of holding of together long enough for the purpose of national integration. Through an initial grant of autonomy it may offer a way of protecting ethnic, linguistic, religious and economic differences but it always promotes a common nationality through bargains, manoeuvres and manipulations.

CLEAVAGES, DIVERSITIES AND REGIONALISM

When we speak of the cleavages in India, we must point out that class diversities and ideological differences are not so predominant. But regional diversities based upon culture as well as on religion, language, geographical distances and communal identification create problems for national integration.

India is unique in the diversities that she shows:

India has been the melting pot of races and religions but with an unenviable legacy or records of feuds, cleavages and prejudices which are exploited by narrow-minded and/or parochial leaders for short-term sectarian aims and ambitions. The social divisions have been both horizontal and vertical, inhabiting cultural homogeneity and social mobility; often accentuating differences and social divisions. India has been characterized as one of the greatest geographical museums in the world, where several centuries jostle together, where population expands faster than production, where political behaviour is strongly coloured by consideration of communal identification, and where there is a lack of integration among the elite and masses because of the absence of a unified communication system.⁸

Apart from the cultural cleavages, the centrifugal forces such as language, religion, caste and race create barriers in the path of national integration in India. There are “a dozen or more major languages, some quite unrelated to others, each of which is spoken by over a million people and which together embrace the great

bulk of the population.”⁹ Again, there are two highly developed linguistic families: Sanskrit and Dravidian. Each has a classical literary heritage of its own and both are concentrated geographically in such a way as to divide India into North and South. Since language is a reflection of culture and a means of social communication, with the varieties of languages we find differences in food, custom and dress throughout India and these differences are expressed as varieties of political culture.

With the linguistic diversities¹⁰, there are also highly discernible differences of religion and caste. With the creation of Pakistan, India could not declare herself as a Hindu State, even if the vast majority of India’s “different cultures draw upon a common stock derived from Hinduism.” Still, in India more than eighteen crore people are Muslim and more than eight crore people are Christian, Sikh, Jain, Parsi besides miscellaneous religious orders. Within the Hindu community caste distinctions separate the people further.

These cleavages were aggravated by the uneven levels of economic development of different regions. Regions like West Bengal and the erstwhile Madras and Bombay Presidencies which were directly administered by the British became more industrialised and economically developed than regions like Assam, Orissa, Kerala and others which were not politically so important for the British rulers. Therefore, industrialisation and economic development are confined only to a few areas of the nation while a large part of the country remains economically backward. This creates cleavages not only from the economic point of view but also from that of India’s political culture.

Finally, British colonialism perpetuated the existing differences through indirect rule (princely India) which actually increased the obstacles to national integration. Differences in the system of administration germinated a sense of rivalry among the regions. Therefore, when India became independent, regionalism was present in its multiple dimensions. Regionalism is a manifestation of emotional, psychological and sub-national, socio-cultural forces confined to a particular region within a larger political set-up. Regionalism has often been described as a psychic phenomenon where a particular part faces the psyche of relative deprivation. It is also regarded as a quest for self-identity and self-fulfilment on the part of an area.¹¹

In India, language has played an important role in providing a basis for regionalism and in sustaining the same. The importance of regional languages as the basis of formation of a province was recognised by the Indian National Congress during the struggle for independence. In the post-independence period also language continued to demand such importance and attention. Sometimes language and religion both have combined in promoting the regional feeling for self-identity as was the case with the Sikhs of the Punjab. Ethnicity has prompted the Schedule Tribes to demand separate autonomous state such as Nagaland and Meghalaya in

Assam and Jharkhand in Bihar and Orissa. Thus, India is characterised by a federal political culture.¹²It means that regardless of institutions, there is a respect for group rights and identity. This also leads to commitment to plural decision-making. By definition, a federal system is based on the recognition of identity, interests, rights, demands, culture and the power of various communities.

LEADERSHIP AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION

The problem of national integration consists not in suppressing or wiping out the strong tendencies of regionalism but in accommodating them in the mainstream of national life in such a way that the feeling of regionalism does not develop into a demand for separation or secession. To recognise the distinct identity of a people of a particular region and yet to make them feel that they are an integral part of the nation is a difficult task; in a federal polity the federal process has to be utilised to achieve this task. It is not enough to have a federal constitution; the men who operate the federal constitution must have an understanding of the spirit of federalism as distinct from that of Unitarianism.

National integration is not total unity; it is a process of assimilation by which regional forces, however strong, do not intend either to weaken or sacrifice the nation but want their identity to be a factor in the growth and prosperity of the nation. Such a feeling has to be nurtured by operating the federal institutions in the midst of diversities and cleavages. This is the task of political leadership in a federal polity.

The national consciousness that was progressing in the course of the struggle for independence had to be put in a national mould by creating a political union. This was done haphazardly by the Government of India Act, 1935. But it was accomplished fully and astutely by the Constitution of India, 1950. The leadership proved wise enough to gauge the national mood for union by recognising regional diversities and giving each region its due in the federal structure.

National integration is a process and, in India, we find this process in three distinct phases: (a) the period of constitution-making (b) the period of single party dominance (1950-67) and (c) during the post-1967 era when some significant political changes took place.

Constraints on Federal Bargain

The first phase of the process of integration, i.e. federal bargain faced a number of constraints.¹³ In the case of India, the birth of the new nation was achieved at the price of partition and all bargains failed. To prevent further disintegration the national leadership placed emphasis on national integration and made such

provisions as would recognise regional autonomy without jeopardizing the 'unity of the nation', which was incorporated in the Preamble of the Constitution as an important value to be respected and preserved. This was the outcome of a political bargain achieved in the course of shaping of the Constitution by the political leaders in the Constituent Assembly.

During the constitution –making there was the argument that a very strong Centre was needed to preserve the 'new-born freedom' and 'solidarity of the country'.¹⁴ One representative argued in favour of a constitution which would be federal in structure but unitary in character.¹⁵ The majority view, which was finally adopted, was the outcome of a bargain or compromise among the political leaders. The position taken by Dr. Ambedkar, Chairman of the Drafting Committee was that the Constitution should strike a balance between giving the Centre too little or too much power. The opinion of Frank Anthony, representative of the Anglo-Indian community, reflected the approach of most of the leaders when he said that "in view of inherent potential divergence and disintegration the maximum possible power ought to be given to the Centre in the interest of integrity and cohesion of the nation."¹⁶

After implementation of the Constitution the biggest problem was six hundred and odd princely states, the rulers of which had acceded to the Union only in respect of defence, communications and external affairs and were administering their respective states in accordance with their own whims. While the people of the neighbouring provinces were enjoying democratic government, the people of princely states, barring a few, were subject to feudalistic rule. This gulf was itself an encouragement to agitation and disintegration. It posed a formidable problem for the national leadership. Under the wise leadership of Ballabh Bhai Patel, supported by other outstanding leaders like JawaharLal Nehru, Chakravarti Rajagopalachari, Rajendra Prasad and others, the integration of the princely states was achieved peacefully with a spirit of compromise and give and take. Thus, the broad vision of the leadership and its conciliatory character achieved a landmark in the process of national integration.

In the early years of federal republic, language proved to be a very forceful rallying point for regionalism. The emergence of a chain of demands for linguistic states compelled the national leadership to set up the States Reorganisation Commission, 1956 to inquire into the regional demands and make recommendations for the formulation of a policy that would strengthen national integration while reconciling it with regional demands. Like language, religion also posed an important impediment to national integration during the time of independence. Prior to India's independence the Akali Dal in Punjab launched a movement for the establishment of an independent 'Khalistan' for Sikhs of the Punjab.¹⁷ Moreover, the Nagas in India demanded pre-colonial freedom and their own national

independence. The Government of India proposed a nine-point agreement which inter-alia, recognised the customary laws of the Nagas, guaranteed their religious freedom and allowed them control over taxation and revenues.¹⁸

Thus, the leaders of this period possessed a special characteristic which was conducive to bringing about national integration through federal institutions. The leaders at the national level and the leaders of the regions possessed a common socialising experience. When the elite at both levels tried to think in terms of unification and integration, they made a far-reaching impact upon the common man, encouraging him to think in the same light or to have the same attitude.

Effective Leadership and Accommodative Federalism

The second phase, the period 1950-67 which may be characterised as one of effective leadership and accommodative federalism. In the first two decades of the federal experiment in India, particularly during the period 1950-67, the leaders both at the Centre and in the States faced two sets of compromises in order to bring about national integration—there were the compromises which could lead to easing of centrifugal pressures by allowing the states borders to coincide either before or after independence, with predominantly linguistic, tribal or racial characteristics, and the second set of compromises to develop a national language as a means of linking together the diverse peoples.

In the first decade of the post-independence period, the central leadership consisted of personalities like Rajendra Prasad, Nehru, AbulKalam Azad and similar statesmen who accepted the views of the States Reorganisation Commission with broad goals of national integration and survival of the polity. But, at the same time, the leaders of Maharashtra, Andhra, Punjab and Nagaland became vociferous in their demands keeping their regional interests in view, and the Centre was obliged to fulfil their demands by reorganising these States.

The problem however, was not over. Following the reorganising of the States in 1956, the Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK)¹⁹ party of Madras demanded 'Dravidanadu' as a separate federal republic, consisting of Madras (Tamil Nadu), Kerala, Mysore (Karnataka) and Andhra Pradesh. But compromise was made when the Government at the Centre came forth with a tough response by enacting the 16th Amendment to the Indian Constitution which outlawed parties advocating secession. When the 16th Amendment came into force, it did not lead to a confrontation with the DMK. Rather the DMK leaders made a compromise with the Centre and gave up the idea of secession.

Again movements at sub-state levels were started when a particular region within a linguistic state wanted to be separated from its own state. Examples are many, namely, the Telangana movement in Andhra Pradesh, the *Saurashtra*

movement in Gujarat, and the *Mahavidarbha* movement in Maharashtra. In each, of these, the agitation was due to the nostalgia of the people in these areas for their earlier jurisdictional status. These regions were always haunted by a sense of deprivation in the areas of developmental expenditure, allocation of government jobs, industrialisation and communication.

Furthermore, the state border problem was acute in North-East India. This region is geographically important from the country's security point of view as it faces China to the north, Burma to the east and south and Bangladesh to the west. Moreover, it is the oil feeder of India as the oilfields of the Brahmaputra Valley produce a significant portion of India's oil output. This region, because of its geographical and economic importance, also became a place for setting the refugees from erstwhile East Pakistan (Bangladesh). But this area is less developed compared to other areas of India. It was alleged that in the fields of communication, industrialisation, urbanisation, welfare, etc. this part of India remained ignored for quite a long time by the Central Government. The people of this region had a feeling that this part of India was a product of historical exclusion under colonial administration and cultural alienation.²⁰

As a first measure, the Central Government tried to make a compromise with the Nagas by establishing the state of Nagaland in 1963. Once Nagaland was created, an agitation began among the Khasi, Jaintia and Garo Hill tribes of South-West Assam and the Mizos of South-East Assam for their own autonomous states. The Central Government tried to make a compromise with the people of these areas by appointing a number of commissions and even by granting partial autonomy, by introducing the innovation of a 'federal state' within the state of Assam, and finally granted the Khasis and Garos their own separate state of Meghalaya in 1972. Meanwhile, the Mizos launched a violent agitation for a separate state which was granted them in the form of Mizoram. The Government of India separated Mizoram from Assam in 1972 and made it a Union Territory.

The second issue in the post-independence decade which evoked intense feelings was that of a common national language. During the struggle for independence, the revolutionary leaders like Mahatma Gandhi and Nehru stressed the need for a common language as a link language for communication among different linguistic communities. But they could not impose Hindi as the only official language. In the federal bargain, the state leaders became triumphant. Delegates from Southern India were afraid that the rapid transition from English to Hindi, as the official language of India would only facilitate 'Northern exploitation of Southern India.'²¹ So, in the Constitution no hard and fast rule was laid down. Once English was granted associate language status, the South was happy to live with the Congress and support it.

Accommodative federalism²² and effective leadership during this period were also supported by some situational factors. During this period the centralised Congress Party was the strongest party in power not only in the Centre, but also in most of the states. Intra-party cleavages did not threaten its hegemony. The charisma, stature and unquestionable leadership of Nehru favoured the climate of the Centre's political dominance over the states. It does not however, mean that during that period the state leaders were weak and feeble politicians. The example of Dr. B.C. Roy, the then Chief Minister of West Bengal, possessing unquestionable qualities of leadership can be cited. His stand on the DVC issue cannot be underestimated, but the leaders, both at the Centre and in the States were of a conciliatory nature so that "conflict-resolution could take place with the help of consultation-consensus technique, and that also within the Congress system itself."²³ The Setalvad Report also pointed out that during this period the political network "connecting the Centre and state leadership was used amply to resolve conflict and ease tension or even to postpone consideration of inconvenient issues. In the process, the Constitution was not violated, at least not deliberately or demonstrably, but was often bypassed."²⁴

Confronted Leadership and Changing Nature of Federalism

The third phase which may be characterised as confronted leadership which brought changes in nature of Indian federalism. The consensus period for leaders at both the Centre and in the states was over with the 1967 general elections when, for the first time in the history of India, more than nine states had non-Congress governments. The Congress Party now had neither the hold on state politics nor the party leadership to continue its dominance unlike earlier. In the post-1967 period, the federal system had to operate within a multi-party framework which, perhaps, was more akin to the plural social background of Indian federalism. Confrontation of leaders of the Centre with those of the states was seen in matters particularly relating to financial relations. It affected the federal process as well as the process of national integration.

This trend also favoured the growth of sub-nationalism in India. It was found that the displacement of the Congress Party in various states had been possible largely through massive mobilisation of regional sentiment. Now the state and sub-state groupings decided that they no longer need rely on the Congress connection to win votes and could come forward as regional parties acting independently of the national party.²⁵ This happened because of the strong leadership in the states and the weak leadership of the Centre thereby leading to less interference of the Centre with the states. This resulted in increasing the hazards in the path of national integration. This trend reached its climax when the states demanded more autonomy under threat of secession. But the emergence of the Congress party under the strong leadership of Indira Gandhi after the 1971 Lok Sabha elections.

The issue of state autonomy gained grounds and P V Rajmanna Committee was constituted in 1972, perhaps with a view to water down the intensity. Efforts were made to create a balance.

Again, towards the end of the Janata Ministry, the “Assam for the Assamese” agitation raised its head and created tension in the whole nation. Assamese sub-nationalism had evolved through recurrent mass movements focusing on the twin themes of under-development and cultural identity. Whether the fundamental apprehension underlying the agitation in Assam was due to heavy ‘infiltration of foreign nationals’ with the Assamese fear of losing their linguistic and ethnic identity, or whether it was the demand for Assamese to be made the official language for jobs, for an oil-refinery, for a broad-gauge railway or a bridge over the Brahmaputra, it is through the mobilisation of sub-nationalism that students and cultural and literary leaders articulated the demands, side-stepping the states politicians.²⁶

Lack of cohesion and purpose within a party tends to weaken the leadership and makes it lose the broad national perspective. The case of India under the rule of the Janata Party at the Centre and several states after the 1977 general elections can be cited. During the first two years the party provided a leadership that could appreciate the states’ demand for more autonomy without sacrificing national unity and strength. But when the leadership at the central level became involved in fighting for personal ambition and power, the result was chaos and confusion, both at the Centre and in the states.

MODES OF CONFLICT-MANAGEMENT

Each federation undergoes a crisis of adjustment in the relationship between integrative and separatist forces, particularly when it faces a problem of political development. Ideally, of course, the crisis should not be allowed to reach the level of secession. It calls for foresight and wisdom in the national leaders to keep the crisis under control in its formative stage, so that it will not amount to a heavy price for the nation to pay.

The federal experiment during the past sixty-eight years has shown that with the formation of states on the basis of either language or ethnicity, or both, the number of constituent units within the federation has certainly increased. But language no longer remains a basic issue of regionalism and disintegration. Other issues have come to the forefront. Among these the most important is regional disparity in ‘economic development’.

With the increase of population, the demand for jobs is growing and, with it, the demand for industrialisation and urbanisation. There are states which are relatively under-developed economically and, within each of such states there are

regions which are still more backward compared to other regions of that state. Hence, the problem of economic development of backward regions confronts the leadership at the level of the state as well as at the Centre. Since the leadership at the state level depends on popular support in the elections, it cannot but voice the regional demands for more of Central funds in the name of industrialisation and development of irrigation and such other facilities. If the same party is in power at the Centre, the Central leadership will have to consider favourably the regional demand for maintaining its party's hold over the government in the state. If the party ruling over the state is different from the party in power at the Centre, the leadership of the latter cannot look at the regional demands simply from its own party perspective. It has to consider the impact of neglect of demands of backward regions on the strength and prosperity of the nation as a whole. There are several regional issues which cannot be looked at from the angle of the ruling party at the Centre. What is required is wise leadership of the Centre in solving the issue through dialogue and consultation.

The greater the level of political awareness, the easier it is for the federal government to provide services designed to promote a national integration.²⁷ For this purpose, Gandhiji launched a programme of social mobilisation "by building bridges between these two elements by urging the middle class to identify itself with the people and work among them on the one hand, and by exhorting the masses to throw themselves into the middle class-dominated movement without rejecting their own traditions and social structure on the other." After independence efforts have also been made by national leaders to awaken and cultivate national orientation in the country by means of the activities of the Central government. In India, the Central government is also making more use of its authority through its communication network. It is also trying to create national awareness and orientations whereby linkages between the Centre and the localities can be established from above thereby minimising confrontation. For this purpose, the Central government has its authority over the press and media and has paid close attention to proper programming in the development of political awareness.

Besides these general modes which will lessen Centre-State confrontation and will create a sense of Indianness, there are certain issues and problems to tackle which the leadership at the Centre can use the methods provided in the Constitution. If expression of regionalism takes the extreme form of civil war or insurgency, the Centre can proclaim national emergency under Article 352 and deal with the situation effectively. If there is a failure of constitutional machinery in a state, the Centre can act effectively by enforcing Article 356. But when the issues are different and, create strong feelings for protection of economic interests of a region, the approach needed is different. This calls for the ability of the leadership for crisis-management. The method that may be successful here is the

‘consultation-consensus’ method. The consultation-consensus method assumes the existence of frictions and conflicts between the state and Union leadership. For consultation and consensus, certain institutions such as the Planning Commission (now NITI Aayog) and Finance Commission have already been provided in the Constitution of India. Though they are instruments of centralisation, they never take any decision of their own without consulting the state governments. In the National Development Council, Zonal Councils and Inter-State Council meetings, both the Union and state leaders meet and decisions are taken through consultation-consensus method. Furthermore, very often the meetings are held where the political leaders of the Centre and the states and executive officials at both the levels, can meet and take decisions jointly. In such a case what is needed is effective and strong leadership both at the Centre and in the states, so that the elite’s coherence and commitment to bargaining will be the necessary condition for policy making and crisis management as well.

What the Centre needs is not more constitutional powers but able political leadership to ensure keeping states intact with national politics. What the States need is not mere autonomy, but the political leaders who can realise and gauge the rising expectations of their constituents and be conscious of their increasing responsibility for satisfying such expectations by making strong demands and bargain with centre.

CONCLUSION

National integration is not a finished product that can be achieved at any particular point of time. It is a process of assimilation by accommodation. In the context of a federal polity, national integration is achieved not by sacrificing genuine regional interests and demands but by fulfilling them consistent with the broad goals and objectives of the nation.

In India, the nation which has been in the process of evolving from the days of struggle for independence got an opportunity to grow in the framework of a federal Constitution. In the dynamic process of national integration, both the national and regional leadership have a prominent role to play in maintaining the federal balance, in running the democratic governments at the Centre and in the states, in creating political awareness amongst the people, and also in maintaining a linkage from above.

From the above analysis it is found that when there is strong leadership at the Centre and a weak leadership in states there is the predominance of the Centre over the states. In such a situation it is easier to bring about national integration. On the other hand, when there is strong leadership in the states and a weak leadership at the Centre, there is more chaos and confusion, creating barriers in the path of

national integration. Hence, when the leaders of both the Centre and the states are strong, it can lead to achievements of national goals. Satisfaction of the demands of the people of the regions and at the same time make the people of all regions feel that they are an integral part of the nation.

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Food Security in India: Issues and Challenges

Bijoy Chand* and Sweta Chand**

Abstract

Ensuring food to its people is the first and foremost responsibility of state. A large size of world's population is deprived of basic need of food, most of which are concentrated in developing countries. Earlier it was attempted to provide food on subsidized prices to needy people through public distribution system (PDS). But the failure or very poor performance of PDS prompted policy makers and scholarship to devise a mechanism to ensure food to hungry people as a matter of right. Nobel laureate Amratya Sen added the issue of right based quality food security with appropriate conditions of its absorption. Attempts were being made to introduce food security in India since 2009. Finally it could be enacted only in 2013. Since then, the Indian Government has been venturing to implement it. But the issue of food security has been interfacing numerous challenges. The present paper intends to underline the challenges before India, particularly in West Bengal.

Keywords: Food Security, Public distribution System, Food Accessibility, Agriculture, Wastage

INTRODUCTION

In view of the fact that large population of the world are deprived of basic need of food, it becomes the responsibility of the state to provide food to the hungry people. Food, shelter and clothing are the three basic needs of human beings. Food is essential, since one can survive without caring for shelter or clothing but cannot be able to live, for long without food. Despite their being brainy and resourceful among all the other living beings on earth, human beings have remained short

* Dr. Chand is Associate Professor & Head, Department of Political Science, Burdwan Raj College, Burdwan (WB)

** Ms. Sweta is a Guest Faculty, Department of Political Science, St. Xavier's College, Burdwan (WB)

of food. Nobel laureate Amratya Sen pleaded for the ensured availability and accessibility of food commodities to the poor people as matter of right.¹ Becoming food secure has become a challenge as also a matter of utmost importance for all human beings. In recent times food security issue has come to the forefront of national debate and discussion in India and is a matter for concern for governments all over the world. Government of India took steps to introduce food security in the country in 2009 but the policy could not be enacted. Finally it could only be enacted in 2013. The Government intended to ensure food security to its hungry people as matter of right. In the light of the above condition, the present paper is a modest attempt to throw light on the conceptual issues and challenges before implementation of Food Security Act 2013.

FOOD SECURITY: CONCEPTUAL ASPECTS

The issue of food security is not a new phenomenon, rather the issue of definition was raised on global level by World Food Conference in 1974 which defined it as, “Eligibility at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic stuffs to sustain an easy expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuation in production and prices.”² Again in the World Food Summit held in 1996, the definition was improved by adding some new elements like - ensuring universal physical and economic accessibility and adequate nutrition for active and healthy life.³ Since then, the concept of food security encompassed such elements that could ensure the healthy and quality life to the people as a matter of right. In Indian context the issue of ‘right to food’ was brought on political agenda in India in view of the fact that more than thirty per cent of her population live below poverty line. The concept of food security emphasize on availability, quality, universal accessibility and conditions of metabolisation. In other words, availability encompasses food production, storage, transportation, distribution and quality of food stuff. Similarly, physical and economic accessibility refers to accessibility of quality food commodities to poor by controlling the prices and even free distribution. Further conditions of metabolisation refers to ensuring the conditions in which the consumer absorbs the food for nutrition. Finally the sustainability of all these elements in all conditions and times.

Finally food security can be defined as physical, economic, and social access to sufficient, safe and balanced diet, clean drinking water, environmental hygiene, and primary health care.⁴ In our Food Security Act, it has been defined as “the supply of entitled food grains and meal.” Food Security has four basic components: availability, accessibility, utilization and stabilization. It may be noted here that while availability is determined by the availability of basic needs, stabilization is influenced by the attention given to the sustainability of the system. Food Security is also understood in terms of vulnerability of certain sections of the society

who are physically and mentally, preoccupied with getting the next meal. It, thus involves intervention to make opportunities available to such sections so that they can overcome the problem.

ISSUES

In this era of modern democratic states, in the event of shortage of food items, people look towards the government to make arrangements for the easy and sufficient supply of the food stuff, as it is the duty of the state to always keep enough buffer stock of the food grains and make them available to public in routine, and also in the case of extreme emergent situations like drought, famine and failure of crops. The state is also bound to create an environment of food security to assure its people of the safety from hunger, starvation and destitution. Here the issue boils down to making appropriate politico-legal arrangement and policy reforms and also its proper implementation. This refers to the provision of appropriate administrative mechanism in consonance with the created law of food security.

India ranks 65 out of 79 countries on the Global Hunger Index, 2012 available from the International Food Policy Research Institute. By the government's own estimate, nearly half of India's children under five are chronically malnourished. From 2005-2010, India ranked second from last among 129 countries on underweight children, below Ethiopia, Niger, Nepal and Bangladesh. Surveys a decade ago found that 36% of Indian women of childbearing age were underweight, compared to 16% in 23 sub-Saharan countries.⁵ This indicates the proper implementation of the law in context of making changes in the administrative mechanism, identifying the genuine beneficiaries, checking the leakage of food into black market and ensuring hygienic conditions and health services to the poor class.

CHALLENGES & SUGGESTIONS

Revamping Public Distribution System:

The PDS is an important delivery mechanism to ensure that essential items of daily use are made available at reasonable prices to the public, particularly to the disadvantaged sections, both in urban and rural areas. This system has significantly contributed to the nutritional standards of the poor by providing essential commodities at reasonable prices. Keeping its significance in mind, there is a need to make the PDS more efficient and effective. For which, there is an urgent need of making appropriate changes in PDS administrative structure in congruence with the new law of food security. There is an urgent imperative to involve community action, beneficiaries' involvement in implementation and local institutions to strengthen and streamline the PDS with a view to regular deliver

of the minimum quantities of quality food grains etc. to the vulnerable sections, thereby implementing the food security.

Augmenting Storage Facility

The food travels from the farm to consumer through a route that involves the stages of procurement, transportation, storage, lifting of food commodities by fair price dealers and distribution. In the process, proper storage is the most essential part. It has been seen that due to poor warehousing of the food grains, a large amount of food grains get rotten and destroyed by mice and insects. In the state of West Bengal, particularly in remote areas the warehouses have either not properly maintained or constructed, resulting into loss and damage of food grains. The Government does not have sufficient godowns for storage of food grains, the construction of which will entail a huge fund. Thus it is suggestible that steps should be taken to maintain the existing warehouses, timely lifting of food materials from the godown, utilising the local resources for protecting food grains. Whatsoever steps be taken but storage facilities need to be augmented.

Ensuing Availability of Food

Although India is self reliant of food commodities, yet there is need of increasing food productivity as the scholarship has argued that the full potential of agriculture is not being harnessed at the optimum level. The state governments should sharply focus on improving significantly the productivity of food grains and make adequate food available to BPL families. Latest technology would go a long way in increasing food production to a great extent.

Strengthening Rural Financial Institutions

The rural financial institutions must reach all the household so far financially excluded, to enable them to generate and enhance the purchasing power to buy food.

Availability, Accessibility, and Absorption Capacity

The major issues of food availability, accessibility to food and capacity of food absorption are important dimensions of food security. The country must be in a sound position to produce the required food without depending upon import or as external aid. The BPL (Below Poverty Line) family should be able to generate adequate purchasing power and lastly, in order to enhance food absorption capacity, there must be easy access to drinking water, sanitation, toilet facilities, environmental hygiene and primary health care etc.

Sustainability of Agriculture

There must be a focused attention on the issue of sustainability of agriculture with emphasis on environmental concerns. Soil erosion, reduction of ground water table and decline into the surface area of irrigation are some of the problems needed to be addressed. The consequences of climate change on Indian agriculture ought to be taken into account.

Wastage of Food

The Rome based FAO in a report said that one-third of all food produced in the world gets wasted, amounting to loss of \$ 750 billion a year. The food in developing countries is wasted mostly due to poor harvesting techniques, while in high income areas, the primary cause of the waste is careless consumer behavior. The most serious areas responsible for waste are of cereals in Asia, and meat in wealthy regions and Latin America. The wastage of food commodities has been sizeable in government godowns itself in India, particularly in West Bengal. The proper measures of protection of food commodities should be taken up seriously.

Women Empowerment

Women play an important role as producers of food, managers of natural resources, and caretakers of household food and nutrition security. It has been realized that women also play a key role in agricultural development and they contribute significantly in the field of food security. A more empowered woman³ means a highly competent work force to meet the needs of the burgeoning population ensuring food security for all.

CONCLUSION

Food security is a major issue for any country. In India food insecurity has prevailed causing considerable distortions in the country. The challenge meeting the food requirement for an ever increasing population can be met by practicing sustainable agriculture, protecting natural resources and using production technologies that conserve and enhance natural resources. More than two-thirds of the total population of country lives on agriculture and allied activities. The main objective of the government should be to promote inclusive growth where the benefits of economic growth can percolate to the poor and underprivileged section of society. It should also aim at meeting the challenges of widening gap between the rural and urban areas and ensuring quality life to the people.

To fulfill the intended objective of access to food at affordable prices, the Government should also look into the issues of pilferage⁶ in the supply of food

grains, inefficient food management, high transport cost, quality of food grains supplied to the beneficiaries, etc. India is one of the few countries which have experimented with a broad spectrum of programmes for improving food security. It has already made substantial progress in terms of overcoming transient food security by giving priority to self-sufficiency in food grains. We have now mounting buffer stocks of food grains. In spite of this, the problem of food insecurity persists in a section of India's population.

The Government should take into account the cultural habits or food habit or practices, regional and seasonal variations, family size, age group, gender and adequate quantity and better quality of food grains. The Food Security Act, 2013 is landmark legislation. The Act could make a big difference to millions of people who live in conditions of intolerable food security.

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Environmental Administration in India (A Study with Special Reference to Pollution Control Boards)

Ravindra Kumar Verma**

Abstract

In view of fast degrading environment and depleting natural resources and climate change in India, there is an urgent imperative to assess the implementing bodies involved in environmental protection. The high level governmental bodies are meant for formulating environmental policies whereas the implementing bodies at the ground level have to be effective. As such, the present paper intends to examine the environmental administration in India and attempts to assess the implementing bodies right from Ministry of Environment and Climate Change to the Pollution Control Boards from central to state levels. The assessment has been done on the basis of governmental reports and reports of the independent bodies. The paper prima-facie finds that the policies are being made in India under influence of international instruments/ recommendations and less under influence of Indian conditions and the implementing bodies, especially, PCBs have inadequately been equipped, ill functioning and ill financed as well as ignorant of people's say or voice.

Keywords: MoEFCC, Implementation, Pollution Control Boards (PCBs), Policy Objectives

INTRODUCTION

The issue of environmental protection has acquired prime significance in India in view of fast degrading environment like depletion of natural resources, climate change and high level of pollution (air, water, land etc). It is true that Government of India has been taking steps to protect the environment and several laws and rules have been made to enforce implementation of the environmental policies but despite all these policies, programmes and implementing bodies, the level of environmental degradation in India is one of the highest in the world evident from the fact that out of 17 most polluted cities, India has 14 cities in the category. Thus

* Dr Verma is Associate Professor at Post Graduate Department of Political Science, R. N. College, Hajipur. Contact: <rkverma395@gmail.com> Mob: 7762882579

it is high time to examine the 'environmental administration' in the country. Right from Union Ministry to bodies of state governments, pollution control boards and judicial and quasi-judicial bodies are involved in implementing the environmental bodies. Of all the governmental bodies, the Pollution Control Boards (PCBs) are at the centre of action throughout the country. As such, it is an urgent imperative to assess the implementing bodies with special reference to the functional status of PCBs.

IMPLEMENTATION MECHANISM

The Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change is the prime governmental body to handle the environmental issues. On the basis of recommendations of Tiwary Committee, a full-fledged Ministry of Environment was created with effect from November 1, 1980 under the charge of the Prime Minister. The functions of the ministry were identified as:

- a. Nodal agency for environmental protection and ceo-development in the country;
- b. Carrying out of environmental appraisal of development projects through other ministers/ agencies as well as directly;
- c. Administrative responsibility for
 - (1) Pollution monitoring and regulation,
 - (2) Conservation of critical eco-systems designated as Bio-sphere Reserves, and
 - (3) Conservation of marine eco-system. Another body, National Commission on Environmental Planning (NCEP) to discharge the following functions:
 - i. Preparation of an annual "State of Environmental Report" of the country;
 - ii Establishing an Environmental Information and communication system to propagate environmental awareness through the mass media; iii. To sponsor environmental significance. The Department of Environment has two bodies i.e. (NCEP and National Development Board) to assist and advice the functions of the bodies under it.

The implementation mechanism for environmental protection in India consists of the various laws and institutions which are as vast as the environment itself. According to World Bank Report 2007, India has extensive environmental management system with a comprehensive set of environmental laws, specific statutory mandates, regulatory instruments and institutional frameworks to implement and enforce environmental policy objectives. It is true that environment is on the Central list, however, states have also made laws and rules in regard to environmental protection. The laws made by Central Government relate to the following categories of environmental issues - prevention and control of industrial pollution (as many as 13 laws), urban waste management, water and air pollution,

climate change, energy conservation, preservation of forests and bio-diversity, protection of wild animals, green habitats and health hazards. These laws have to be implemented by certain institutions. The primary institutions responsible for the formulation and enforcement of environmental acts and rules include the Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF), the Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB), State Departments of Environment, State Pollution Control Boards (SPCBs) and Municipal Corporations. Responsibility is shared between the centre and the states, with the central government having responsibility for policy and regulatory formulations and the state governments for ensuring implementation and enforcement of national policies and laws.

The voluntary efforts and corporate contributions have also been encouraged in implementation of environmental policies. In addition a Charter on Corporate Responsibility for Environmental Protection (CREP) was introduced. The Ministry of Environment and Forests and the industrial sector have entered into a partnership on voluntary pollution control by releasing a charter on CREP. The CREP comprises a set of 153 guidelines that would assist the corporate sector in streamlining environmental management. Collaborative efforts of MoEF, CPCB, SPCBs and industrial associations to provide technical information to small & medium entrepreneurs on different environmental technologies and alternative approaches to pollution prevention were initiated.¹

OBJECTIVES AND ACTION PLAN FOR IMPLEMENTATION

There are over two hundred laws made in this context and hundreds of policy strategies have been adopted so far. The environmental legislations should be taken into consideration on basis of which administrative structures are involved and action plans are made. These legislations can be clubbed into five categories - legislations on environmental protection, industrial sector, housing and urban settlement, forest and wild life (bio-diversity), energy conservation and climate change.

The following actions have been earmarked to achieve the policy objectives in environmental protection : 1. Review of standards for pollution control, 2. Implementing the Environmental impact assessment notification, 3. Handling E-wastes, 4. Air pollution control from urban areas, 5. Air quality improvement in industrial areas, 6. Sewage pollution management, 7. Water pollution control from highly polluting industries, 8. Implementation of hazardous wastes management rules, 9. Fly ash management, 10. Municipal Solid Waste Management, 11. Promotion of Green Buildings across the country, 12. Combating Climate change, 13. Inventorisation of forest resources, 14. Bio prospecting and 15. Capacity Building. Besides, there are five more missions - 1. National River Conservation Plan, 2. Ecomark Scheme of India (ECOMARK) - eco-mark labeling 3. National

Afforestation Programme: A Participatory Approach to Sustainable Development of Forests 4. National Action Programme to Combat Desertification and 5. Grants-in-aid Schemes for voluntary agencies.

In addition, a high Level advisory group on climate change was constituted in June 2007 and reconstituted in November 2014 with the following objectives: (i) Coordinate national action plans for assessment, adaptation and mitigation of climate change. (ii) Advise government on pro-active measures that can be taken by India to deal with the challenge of climate change. (iii) Facilitate inter-ministerial coordination and guide policy in relevant areas.²

According to Environment Performance Index prepared by Yale University in January 2014, India ranks 155th out of 178 countries in its efforts to address environmental challenges, according to the 2014 Environmental Performance Index (EPI). India performs the worst among other emerging economies including, China, which ranks 118th, Brazil at 77th, Russia at 73rd, and South Africa at 72nd. India's air quality is among the worst in the world, tying China in terms of the proportion of the population exposed to average air pollution levels exceeding World Health Organization thresholds. India's environmental challenge is more formidable than that faced by other emerging economies. However, India's overall performance has improved despite dramatic declines on air quality.³ In 2008 eight missions were announced by Man Mohan Singh Government namely, Jawahar Lal Nehru National Solar Mission, National Mission for Enhanced Efficiency, Mission on sustainable habitat, Green India Mission, Mission for Sustainable Agriculture, etc.⁴

MODI GOVERNMENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL ADMINISTRATION

After new Indian Government under leadership of Prime Minister Narendra Modi, environment policy is not changed, however, some strong steps were taken in shape of improving and creating institutional arrangements. A high Level advisory group on climate change named as Prime Minister's Council on Climate Change, which was constituted in June 2007, has been reconstituted in November 2014 with the following objectives:- (i) Coordinate national action plans for assessment, adaptation and mitigation of climate change, (ii) Advise government on pro-active measures that can be taken by India to deal with the challenge of climate change and (iii) Facilitate inter-ministerial coordination and guide policy in relevant areas. The Council is now consists of 18 high officials e.g. Prime Minister, various ministries, high officials of the rank of cabinet secretary and secretary and experts from research institutions and non-governmental organisations. In addition, to the National Action Plan on Climate Change, the Government of India has taken several other measures to promote sustainable development and address the

threat of climate change. These initiatives operate at the national and sub national level and span domains that include climate change research, clean technology research and development, finance, and energy efficiency and renewable energy policy and deployment.⁵ The present government made much hue and cry for the environmental issues and introduced rather reproduced the earlier policy of national cleanliness policy as Swakshabharat policy giving emphasis on Free from Open Defecation even in rural areas. However, propaganda is being made on high pitch.

In the meantime, India have to go by the Paris Agreement held in 2015 and take definite steps in accordance with the Agreement. Paris Agreement in 2015 made a scintillating change in making the state parties to contribute to environment in concrete. Known also as Paris Climate Accord or Paris Climate Agreement, is an agreement within the UNFCCC dealing with long term agenda on green house gas emission mitigation, adaptation and finance starting in the year 2020. The language of the agreement was negotiated by representatives of 196 parties at the 21st Conference of the parties of the UNFCCC in Paris and adopted by consensus on 12 December 2015. As of June 2017, 195 UNFCCC members have signed the agreement, 153 of which have ratified it. The main points of the Agreement are - nationally determined contributions, effects on global temperature, global stocktaking, restructuring the environmental administration in a 'bottom up approach', mitigation provisions and carbon markets, sustainable development mechanism, adaptation provisions with ensuring finances, enhanced transparency framework etc.⁶ In the Paris Agreement, each country determines, plans and regularly reports its own contribution it should make in order to mitigate global warming. There is no mechanism to force a country to set a specific target by a specific date, but each target should go beyond previously set targets. In 2017, President Donald Trump withdrew the United States from the agreement, causing widespread condemnation in the European Union and many sectors in the United States.

Pollution Control Boards

On the lines of Stockholm convention held in 1972, the Government of India enacted Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1974. Sec. 3 of the Act, empowers the Central Government to constitute a Central Board for the prevention and control of water pollution in the Union Territories of India. Under the same Act, vide Sec. 4, the State Governments have also been empowered to constitute State Boards for the prevention and control of air pollution in the respective states. Accordingly, the Central Pollution Control Board and the State Pollution Control Boards have been constituted for the prevention and control of water and air pollution. Central Pollution Control

Board acts under the directions of the Central Government. For a Union Territory, the Central Pollution Control Board exercises the powers and performs the functions of State Pollution Control. An umbrella act called the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 was passed which vested the Pollution Control Boards with wide powers. Basically the measures adopted for environmental regulation are those of command and control.

Central Pollution Control Board

The Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) of India is as a statutory body under Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change (MoEFCC). CPCB is also entrusted with the powers and functions under the Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act, 1981 and also wields powers from Environment (Protection) Act 1986. It serves as a field formation and also provides technical services to the Ministry of Environment and Forests under the provisions of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986. It Co-ordinates the activities of the State Pollution Control Boards by providing technical assistance and guidance and also resolves disputes among them. It is the apex organisation in country in the field of pollution control, as a technical wing of MoEF.⁷ CPCB has its head office in the national capital, New Delhi, with seven zonal offices and 5 laboratories. The board conducts environmental assessments and research. It is responsible for maintaining national standards under a variety of environmental laws, in consultation with zonal offices, tribal, and local governments. It has responsibilities to conduct monitoring of water and air quality and maintains monitoring data. The following is the constitution of the CPCB:

- (a) A full-time Chairman, being a person having special knowledge or practical experience in respect or matters relating to environmental protection or a person having knowledge and experience, to be nominated by the Central Government.
- (b) Such number of officials, not exceeding five to be nominated by the Central Government to represent that Government.
- (c) Such number of persons, not exceeding five, to be nominated by the Central Government. from amongst the members or the State Boards of whom not exceeding two shall be from those referred to in Clause (c) of sub-section (2) of Sec.4.
- (d) Such number of officials not exceeding five to be nominated by the Central Government to represent the interests of agriculture, fishery or industry or trade or any other interest which, in the opinion of the Central Government ought to be represented.

- (e) Two persons to represent the companies or corporations owned, controlled or managed by the Central Government, to be nominated by that Government.
- (f) A full-time member-secretary, possessing qualifications, knowledge and experience of scientific engineering or management aspects of pollution control to be appointed by the Central Government.

Following are the envisaged functions of the CPCB:

- (i) To advise the Central Government on any matter concerning the improvement of the quality of air and water and the prevention and control or abatement of air/water pollution.
- (ii) Plan and cause to be executed a nation-wide programme for the prevention, control or abatement of air and water pollution.
- (iii) Co-ordinate the activities of the State Boards and resolve disputes among them.
- (iv) Provide technical assistance and guidance to the State Boards, carry out and sponsor investigations and research relating to problems of air pollution and prevention, control or abatement of air and water pollution.
- (v) Plan and organise the training of persons engaged or to be engaged in programmes for prevention, control or abatement of air and water on such terms and conditions as the CPCB may specify.
- (vi) Organise through mass media a comprehensive programme regarding prevention control or abatement of air and water pollution
- (vii) Collect, compile and publish technical and statistical data relating to air/water pollution and the measures devised for its effective prevention and control or abatement and prepare manuals, codes or guides relating to prevention, control or abatement of air and water pollution.
- (viii) Lay down standards for the quality of air and water.
- (ix) Collect and disseminate information in respect of matters relating to air and water pollution.

The CPCB also works with industries and all levels of government in a wide variety of voluntary pollution prevention programs and energy conservation efforts. It advises the Central Government to prevent and control water and air pollution. It also advises the Governments of Union Territories on industrial and other sources of water and air pollution. Functions of CPCB comes under both national level and as State Boards for the Union Territories. CPCB aims to promote cleanliness of streams and other water bodies in different areas of the States by prevention, control and abatement of water pollution, and to improve the quality of air and to prevent, control or abate air pollution in the country.

For the task of maintaining air quality, the CPCB runs nationwide programmes of air quality monitoring like National Air Quality Monitoring Programmes

(NAMP). The network consists of 621 operating stations covering 262 cities/towns in 29 states and 5 Union Territories of the country. CPCB is responsible to monitor regularly the four air pollutants viz., SO₂, NO₂, SPM (suspended particulate matter) RSPM/PM₁₀ (respirable suspended particulate matter) at all the locations under N.A.M.P. The monitoring of meteorological parameters such as wind speed and wind direction, relative humidity and temperature were also integrated with the monitoring of air quality.

In case of water quality control and prevention of water pollution, CPCB, in collaboration with concerned SPCBs/PCCs, establishes a nationwide network of water quality monitoring with 1019 stations in 27 States and 6 Union Territories. Most of the water bodies in India (like 14 major rivers, 44 medium rivers and 55 minor rivers besides numerous lakes, ponds and wells) are fed by monsoon rains, run dry throughout the non-rainy season of the year often carrying wastewater discharges from industries or cities or towns endangering the quality of our scarce water resources. They often carry wastewater discharges from industries or cities or towns endangering the quality of our scarce water resources. As such CPCB monitors quality of water quarterly in case of surface water and half yearly in case of ground water. The inland water quality monitoring network is operating under a three-tier program i.e. Global Environment Monitoring System (GEMS), Monitoring of Indian National Aquatic Resource System (MINARS) and Yamuna Action Plan.

Under the EcoCity Programme, CPCB takes up cleanliness in urban areas. Tenth five year plan envisaged to improve environment through implementation of identified environmental projects in selected towns and cities. It has created Centre for Spatial Environmental Planning to conduct pilot studies under World Bank funded Environmental Management Capacity Building Programme for EIA. CPCB develop a comprehensive urban improvement system employing practical, innovative and non-conventional solutions. Besides, municipal authority has been responsible for collection, segregation, storage, transportation, processing and disposal of municipal solid under the Municipal Solid Wastes (Management & Handling) Rules, 2000 (MSW rules,2000). CPCB collects necessary information from municipal authorities and provide them technical assistance. Further CPCB has the responsibility to regulate and control noise producing and generating sources with the objective of maintaining the ambient air quality standards.⁸

State Pollution Control Boards

The constitution of State Pollution Control Boards (SPCBs) is guided by Water (PCP) Act 1974 and almost the same structure as that of CPCB. However, the constituting authority is State Government. There is a Chairman at the apex of the body is appointed by State Government and the eligibility criteria is the same as that

of CPCB. The qualification, category and number of members are also the same like five officials, members from local bodies, three from amongst non-officials, two from corporate sector and a full time Member Secretary, having knowledge and experience of scientific, engineering or management aspects of pollution.

The SPCBs have almost similar functions in the jurisdiction of the territories of respective state. The SPCBs have to plan a comprehensive programme for prevention, control or abatement of air and water pollution and to secure execution thereof, advise the state government, collect and disseminate information, collaborate with CPCB, plan and organise the training of persons engaged for prevention of pollution, raise awareness through mass media, collect, compile and publish data and lay down standards for quality of air and water. The Environment (Protection) Act, 1986 has significantly augmented the powers and duties of the State Boards.⁹

Assessment of the Working of PCBs

Various studies have evaluated the wholesome performance and functioning of the PCBs, the most important among them are first the evaluative study sponsored by Planning Commission of India and the CAG report on environmental clearance and post clearance monitoring. Since its inception, several committees were entrusted to assess the functioning of PCBs like Bhattacharya Committee in 1984, Belliappa Committee in 1990, study by Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad in 1994, etc. on the instance of PCBs. These studies have examined the aspects of finances, conferring power on them, categorisation of industries, enhancement of awareness among people and so forth.

So far the organisational structure is concerned, it has been found that there is shortage of professionals in the PCBs. It is also criticised that the boards have been dominated by non-technical members and facing lack of professionals. Besides, non-filling of the sanctioned strength is one of the predominant factors behind the widely varying per unit staff ratios across SPCBs. The primary functional tool deployed by SPCBs in controlling pollution is the inspection of polluting units. Some of them are unable to perform even basic functions like inventorisation of polluting units.¹⁰

The CAG Report also points out the paucity of technical and professional staff in the PCBs have adversely affected the functioning of the PCBs. It finds that “there were only 15 scientists available for monitoring of Environmental Clearance conditions against sanctioned strength of 41. Regional Offices have not been delegated the powers to take action against the defaulting PPs and they had to report the violations of the Environmental Clearance conditions to the Ministry.”¹¹ Further, the report found that “the targets for monitoring of the implementation

of the projects were not fixed realistically with reference to the manpower and quantum of work besides the size/approachability of the area and the complexity of the projects. While accepting the audit observation, MoEF&CC stated (October 2016) that the appointment of scientists would help taking up of more projects for monitoring. However, Ministry remained silent on fixing of target with reference to manpower and quantum of work.”¹²

The financial resources of a State Board consist of (1) own resources like fees, fines, revenue and reimbursement of expenses, (2) external assistance in the form of grants-in-aid from Central and State Governments, project-based grants from CPCB and other grants. An analysis of the 25 SPCBs suggests that SPCBs are heavily dependent on Government grants while some rely helplessly on their own insufficient resources. Most of the SPCBs run considerable revenue surpluses even while they have not fulfilled the requirements for capital expenditure. Prohibitive spending restrictions imposed by State Governments are an important cause for this.¹³

The financial management by the PCBs has been questioned by CAG in its report, in the following words, “The EMP (Environment Management Plan) included in the EIA report submitted to the EAC when applying for EC for projects should clearly depict the cost (initial as well as recurring costs) required for carrying out environmental protection measures and should also include the basis for deriving such costs along with time bound action plan for implementation of the EMP. Such clarity in the EIA Report was necessary for monitoring the adequacy of activity wise and cost wise compliance by the PP. We observed that out of the 352 sampled projects pertaining to various sectors, in 90 projects (26 per cent), there was a shortfall in expenditure towards EMP.”¹⁴ Technically the Light Detection and Ranging (LIDAR) projects refer to “laser beams towards the sky. Subsequently, the interplay of light with the objects falling on its path through absorption, reflection, scattering help determine the composition of particulates by studying the wavelengths.”¹⁵

It has been indicated by examinations that at the initial stage of creation of PCBs, it had the political content in it. It has been argued that in order to increase political influence over state governments, the then political regime (during Indira Gandhi’s premiership) utilised the opportunity to make arrangements under garb of environmental protection. It is worth mentioning that forests, water and energy had previously fallen exclusively under state legislation. But with a hidden intention to intervene in the working of state governments, the then ruling regime pressed environmental concerns as an opportunity for increasing the influence of the central government.¹⁶

The official data reveals that the physical performance of the State Boards draws a mixed picture. The degree of inventorisation achieved by some State Boards falls clearly short of its desired level. The extent of compliance with pollution standards observed by the inventorised polluting units is also not satisfactory in many States. Among other things, absence of an effective punitive mechanism contributes to non-compliance. Though elaborate monitoring networks have been created by the SPCBs of the industrialised States, yet some serious deficiencies are evident from the above preliminary analysis. The relative importance attached to crucial areas like environmental research, awareness generation and publicity and R & D leaves much to be desired. To conclude, the existing system of industrial pollution control, despite its wide network and moderate achievements, exhibits many symptoms of underdevelopment, which need to be urgently attended to.¹⁷

The functioning of SCPBs have been confined to simply granting environmental clearance to industries and they ignore the overall environmental assessment in their respective jurisdictions. The study report of Planning Commission depicts the fact that SPCBs in their present form are functioning as industrial pollution control boards. In almost all States, the vehicular pollution is mostly outside the purview of SPCBs. While it is inevitable that vehicular pollution prevention is to be vested with Road Transport Authorities, it is suggested that concurrent jurisdiction in penal action on erring vehicles be vested with the SPCBs and the fines arising thereof may be used to fund these operations. There is also no transparency in the pollution control administration and dissemination of information to the public whose interests the SPCBs seek to protect. It is suggested that the pollution control could be better administered and monitored, if local community action groups are created/sensitised to take up vigilant community action against pollution. This could, perhaps take the form of this group monitoring periodically the samples generated by the polluting industries and getting the same tested in private labs.¹⁸

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Environmental Protection in Ancient India: Why Can't We Follow them Now?

Shashi Pratap Shahi**

Abstract

The history of environmental morality and jurisprudence dates back to ancient period as reflected in mandatory compliance of the restrictions mentioned in religious rituals and punitive provisions for violation of environmental prescriptions of Vedas, Upanishads, Epics, Puranas, etc. The code of conduct for the people in these religious discourses are meant for the preserving and sustaining the environment. Besides, Kautilya's Arthashastra does also make a number of codes of conduct and provisions in regard to obligations of the king to take serious care of violation of environmental rules and punitive provisions for the individual violators. The present paper gives an account of the environmental protection mentioned in ancient epics and Kautilya's Arthashastra.

Keywords: Environment, Vedas, Upanishads, Puranas, Arthshastra

INTRODUCTION

Environmental degradation has posed danger on not only human beings but on the entire living world. Several steps have so far been taken, at both national and international levels, to protect the environment through international agreements, covenants and national level policies, programmes. But the result is that pollution in air, water and land has been increasing day by day; besides there has been fast degradation in natural resources like drying up of rivers, depletion of underground water table, loss of bio-diversity and climate change etc. India is worst hit by effects environmental degradation. If we look back in Indian history, we can find that the dos and don'ts prescribed in Indian mythology, Vedas, Upanishands, epics, Puranas etc. are such that protects environment by Indian cultural ethos. Besides,

* Professor of Political Science and Principal, A N College, Patna; Email: profspshahi@gmail.com>
Mobile No. 9431012332

the most cherished discourse, on politics and guiding principles for the rulers, the Arthshastra written by Kautilya during 3rd century BC prescribes a number of rules for regulating the people's behaviour in protection of environment and nature. It entrusts the King to take care of the environmental protection and makes a number of punitive provisions. The present paper examines the prescriptions, suggestions and code of conduct mentioned in ancient India. Indian mythology and culture has been found to be conscious of preserving the nature (environment) which is reflected in Hindu mythology, Vedas, Upanishads, epics, Puranas and Arthshastra.

HINDU MYTHOLOGY AND ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Hinduism is a remarkably diverse religious and cultural phenomenon, with many local and regional manifestations. The diverse theologies of Hinduism are - Earth is manifestation of God, life is founded on - space, air, fire, water and soil (*chhiti, jal, pawak, gagan, samira, panch tatwa yah bana sarira*), *dharma* is duty, simple living is ideal life, and treatment of nature affects our *karma*. Besides, there are Hindu teachings and preaching that are related to environment, those are - five great elements (*panch mahabhutas*) of life i.e. life derived from nature, omnipresence of divinity, *dharma* is protection of environment etc. Hinduism recognizes that the human body is composed of and related to these five elements, and connects each of the elements to one of the five senses. For Hinduism, nature and the environment are not outside us, not alien or hostile to us. They are an inseparable part of our existence, and they constitute our very bodies. Hindu texts, such as the *Bhagavad Gita* (7.19, 13.13) and the *Bhagavad Purana* (2.2.41, 2.2.45), contain many references to the omnipresence of the Supreme divinity, including its presence throughout and within nature. Hindus worship and accept the presence of God in nature. For example, many Hindus think of India's mighty rivers — such as the Ganges — as goddesses. Chhatha puja is one of the most burning example of our religious beliefs. *Dharma*, one of the most important Hindu concepts, has been translated into English as duty, virtue, cosmic order and religion. In Hinduism, protecting the environment is an important expression of *dharma*. In past centuries, Indian communities — like other traditional communities — did not have an understanding of “the environment” as separate from the other spheres of activity in their lives. A number of rural Hindu communities and tribes such as the Bishnois, Bhils and Swadhyaya have maintained strong communal practices to protect local ecosystems such as forests and water sources as part of *dharma*. These traditional Indian groups do not see religion, ecology and ethics as separate arenas of life. Instead, they understand it to be part of their *dharma* to treat creation with respect.¹

VEDAS, UPNISHADS AND PURANAS

Vedas in India are considered to be the source of regulating all aspects of human life and culture that has been accepted universally as most precious heritage of India. The Vedas have knowledge of all types and the main Vedic views revolve around the concept of nature and life. Vedas have several references to environmental conservation. As such in ancient times the people had high level of awareness of protection and cleanliness of environment. Forests, tress and wildlife protection commanded special respect. Cutting green trees was prohibited and liable to punishment. In fact, man is forbidden from exploiting nature. Man was taught to live in harmony with nature and recognise that divinity prevails in all elements including plants and elements. A *richa* from Rig-Veda says, “Thousands and hundreds of years if you want to enjoy the fruits and happiness of life then take up systematic planting of trees. Sowing one tree is equal to ten sons.” However, the Hindu mythology do not mention the term pollution but indicates about poisoning of the nature or environment. It is believed that the *panchmahabhutas* are derived from the nature (*prakriti*) and the primal energy and human body is composed of these *mahabhutas* which are connected with the five senses. It has been cleared that nose is related to Earth, tongue to water, eyes to fire, skin to air and ears are related to space. This bond between senses and the elements is the foundation of the human relationship with the natural world. For Hinduism, nature and the environment are not outside us. They are an inseparable part of human being’s existence.

The Vedas stress the need for protection and development of forests and emphasize that the plants and trees are the treasures for generations. The *richas* of Veda prescribes, “do not harm the environment. Do not harm the water and flora; Earth is my mother, I am her son; may the waters remain fresh. Do not harm the trees, because they remove poison” (Rig Veda,6:48:17) ...“Do not disturb the sky and do not poison the atmosphere” (Yajur Veda,5:43) Besides, the Hindu sacred texts contain a number of prescriptions to worship the nature. The *mantras* reminds people every day to respect rivers, mountains, trees, animals and the Earth.²

As in Vedas the *Upnishads* contain the basic philosophy of Hinduism. It recognises that the human body is composed and related to the five elements. It is argued that the wide spread *nargodha* tree (banyan tree) is compressed in small seed; similarly as the seed germinates, at the time of human being’s dissolution, the whole universe is comprehended in them. as germs which becomes just a shoot and then rises into loftiness. As such the created world proceeds from them and expands into magnitude. The *Varah puran*, says, “one who plants one peepal, one neem, one bar, ten flowering plants, two pomegranates, two orange and five mango trees, does not go hell.” Similarly, Kalidasa described Himalayas as a great deity, great spiritual presence and a measuring rod to gauge the world’s greatness. In *Mahabharat* too, mountains are symbolised as bones, earth as flesh, sea is blood,

air as breath, sky as abdomen and agni symbolised as energy of mankind. All these teachings congeal that human body cannot be separated from nature. The sloka 20 chapter 10 of Shrimad Bhagwat Gita prescribes that planting and preservation of natural vegetation (bio-diversity) are the essential rituals of sacred and religious functions as God is omnipresent in these living things. Lord Krishna said, “I am the self seated in the heart of all creatures. I am the beginning, the middle and the very end of all beings, therefore, they should be treated alike. He compared the world to a single tree with unlimited branches amidst which all the creatures wander. He further said, “*patram pushpam phalam toyam yomey bhaktay prayachhati tadham bhakti yupahrutam asnaami prayataatmanaha*.”³ Meaning that I accept a leaf, flower, fruit or water or whatever is offered with devotion. It will be evident from the practice that the coconut, mango leaves, banana leaves, fruits of any kind are offered during worship and are considered sacred. The Lotus, tulsi (basil) and even grass (dubhi) are considered symbol of purity and auspiciousness.

Thus it is found that the narrative of Hindu mythology reflects that the politico-legal arrangements were conscious of environmental protection and implemented through not only punitive legal provisions but people's habits and behaviour were regulated through moral and religious beliefs. The religious texts like *Puranas* (namely *Shiva Purana*, *Agni Purana*, *Vishnu Purana*, and *Garuda Purana*), *Manusmriti*, *Mahabharata* and other ancient Indian texts like *Panchtantra*, *Raghubansam*, etc. kept people environmentally sensitive particularly to its protection and preservation. In these ancient literature, one can find the prayer of natural entities like trees, mountains and rivers and religious beliefs were developed in day to day activities of the people. For example in *Garuda Purana*, cutting green trees and plants has been kept in the category of 'sin'. Besides the fifth pillar inception of Ashoka does also contain the preaching of sustaining environment.⁴

KAUTILYA'S ARTHSHAstra

The most cherished discourse of politics in ancient India written as early as during 321 and 300 BC by Kautilya entitled the '*Arthashastra*' contains the provisions meant to regulate the people's activities in a number of aspects related to environment. A great deal of environmental issues in *Arthashastra* is designed to specify rules which could be enforced by law by the King. Kautilya entrusts the King to ensure appropriate plants be grown to protect dry lands and pastureland to be properly protected. The king should protect different types of forests, water reservoirs and mines. There are ample prescriptions to protect wild animals and forest products mentioned in sections II/1/39 and II/2/5-7 of this text. He suggests to treat animals like guests in elephant-forests at border, evident from , 'And he (the King) should establish on its border or in conformity with the (suitability of

the) land, another animal park where all animals are welcomed as guests and given full protection.'(II/12/4). There was provisions of capital punishment for the slayers of elephants. Not only this the discourse also provides prescriptions for green housing constructions and proper sanitation in habitats. Settlements, houses and other dwelling places, roads, cremation grounds etc. were prescribed to be properly constructed preserving environment. Any violation of the rules pertaining to these matters would make one liable to punishment. There should be proper arrangements in each house for sewage and proper disposal of wastes. The violators would be fined according to the gravity of the offence. It was the obligation of the King to look into making the dung-hill, the water-course or the well, not in a place other than that suited to the house, except the water-ditch for a woman in confinement till the end of ten days of child delivery (III/8/6). Kautilya further prescribes various fines and other punitive measures for polluting the environment by throwing dirt on the roads and highways or voiding urine and faeces at public places (II/36/26). He prescribes check on and mitigation of natural disasters, viz. the provisions of prior preparation for anticipated disasters for preventing them as far as possible. First, he classifies the disasters caused by divine origin into eight categories - fire, floods, epidemic, famine, rats, wild animals, serpents and evil spirits (IV/3/1). The King should appoint officers to look into these calamities.⁵ To conclude, in ancient times, moral preaching were not considered enough to prevent people from committing eco-damaging activities. Thus, the legal provisions specified punitive measures by the state for violating rules intended to maintain environment and ecology.⁶

To cap it all, ancient religious Indian texts like Vedas, Puranas, Upnishads, other Sanskrit literature like *Panchtantra*, *Raghubansam*, etc. as well as Kautilya's Arthshastra kept people environmentally sensitive particularly to its protection and preservation. In these ancient literature, one can find the prayer of natural entities like trees, mountains and rivers and religious beliefs were developed for day to day activities of the people in preservation and protection of environment. Why can't we now follow them?

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Hindi Section

हिन्दी प्रभाग



बिहार में गरीबी और आपदा प्रबंधन की सीमा

मधु बाला*

विश्व बैंक के एक अनुमान के अनुसार भारत में प्राकृतिक आपदाओं के चलते देश के सकल घरेलू उत्पाद के दो प्रतिशत के बराबर नुकसान होता है। यह असर आपदा प्रभावित राज्यों में बिहार जैसे राज्य पर भी पड़ता है। उससे भी महत्वपूर्ण बात यह है कि इन आपदाओं का प्रभाव गरीबों पर उनके अनुपात से ज्यादा पड़ता है।

भारत आपदा प्रवण देश है जहाँ प्राकृतिक एवं मानवजनित आपदाओं का खतरा बना रहता है। बड़े राज्यों में एक बिहार बहु-आपदा प्रवण राज्य है। जिसमें आपदा का संपूर्ण परिदृश्य विभिन्न आपदाओं के सम्मिश्रण से उत्पन्न होता है, जो कि यहाँ के निवासियों के लिए अत्यंत विषय परिस्थितियाँ उत्पन्न करता रहा है। दुनिया के लगभग हर भाग में आपदाएँ आती हैं। विश्व बैंक की प्राकृतिक खतरे और अप्राकृतिक आपदाएँ शीर्षक एक रिपोर्ट में कहा गया है कि बाढ़ और तूफान दुनिया भर में आते हैं, जबकि अफ्रीका में अक्सर सूखा पड़ता रहता है। दुनिया के जो भू-भाग बार-बार पड़ने वाले सूखे और बाढ़ से प्रभावित होते हैं, वहीं पर दुनिया की अधिकांश वह आबादी रहती है जो भूख और गरीबी से त्रस्त है। संभावना है कि जलवायु परिवर्तन से यह स्थिति और गम्भीर हो सकती है। इसलिए इस बात की सख्त जरूरत है कि प्राकृतिक आपदाओं के निवारण शमन और प्रबन्धन के लिए प्रभावशाली और व्यापक कदम उठाए जाएँ और उन स्थलों की पहचान की जाए जहाँ ये आपदाएँ अक्सर आती हैं।

यह एक बहु-आपदा प्रवण राज्य है जहाँ सभी प्रमुख प्राकृतिक एवं मानवजनित आपदाओं का कहर समय-समय पर राज्य के निवासियों पर बरपा है। राज्य के सभी 38 जिले विभिन्न आपदाओं के लिए प्रवण हैं। बाढ़, भूकम्प, चक्रवाती तूफान, सुखाड़, अगलगी, लू, शीतलहर, नाव दुर्घटना, सड़क दुर्घटना आदि अनेक प्राकृतिक एवं मानवजनित आपदाएँ इन जिलों को प्रभावित करती रही हैं। राज्य के 8 जिले भूकम्प के सर्वाधिक संवेदनशील Zone V में, 24 जिले Zone IV में तथा 6 जिले Zone III में आते हैं। इसी प्रकार बाढ़ की दृष्टि से भी बिहार अत्यंत संवेदनशील है। राज्य के कुल 28 जिले बाढ़ के प्रति संवेदनशील हैं जिनमें 15 जिले अति प्रवण एवं 13 जिले बाढ़ प्रवण की श्रेणी में आते हैं।

* परियोजना पदाधिकारी, बिहार राज्य आपदा प्रबंधन प्राधिकरण

विभिन्न आपदाओं के संयुक्त प्रभाव को देखते हुए राज्य के आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण रोडमैप में सभी जिलों को तीन श्रेणियों में रखा गया है - श्रेणी A में बाढ़ के प्रति अत्यंत संवेदनशील एवं भूकम्पीय Zone V में शामिल 10 जिलों को शामिल किया गया है, श्रेणी B में अन्य बाढ़ प्रवण एवं भूकम्पीय Zone IV में 18 जिलों को रखा गया है और श्रेणी C में मुख्यतः सुखाड़ के प्रति संवेदनशील एवं भूकम्पीय Zone III में शामिल 10 जिलों को रखा गया है। इस प्रकार के श्रेणी विभाजन में अन्य आपदाओं को भी संज्ञान में लिया गया है।

बिहार के मामले में बाढ़, भूकम्प सुखाड़, चक्रवाती तूफान, ठनका और शीत लहर जैसी प्राकृतिक आपदाएँ राज्य के किसी न किसी भाग में आती रहती हैं।

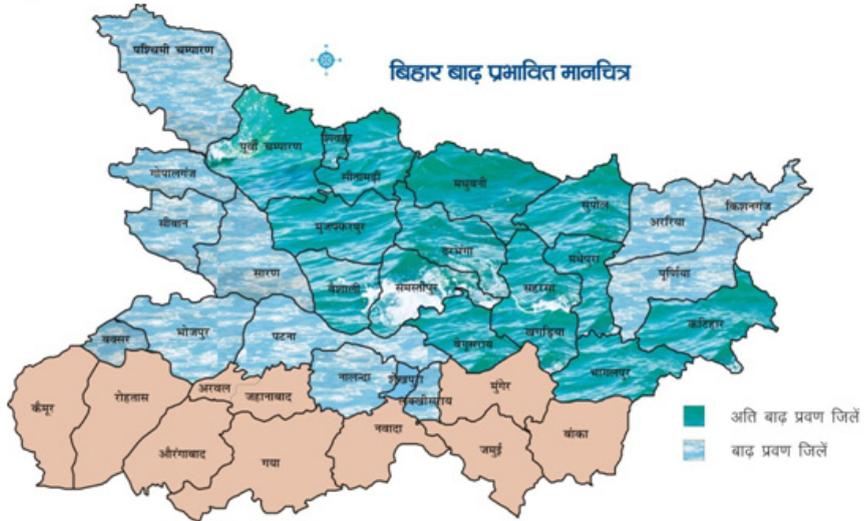
राज्य के कई ऐसे जिले हैं जहाँ कई प्रकार की आपदाएँ आती हैं और पूरे साल कोई न कोई आपदा आती रहती है। बिहार में होने वाले आपदाओं के विवरण इस प्रकार हैं-

13 बाढ़ प्रवण जिलों के नाम :

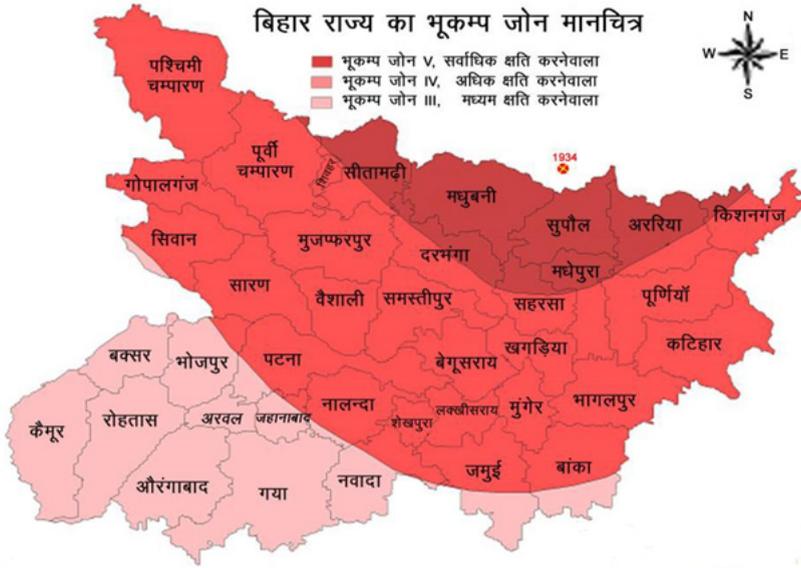
- | | |
|---------------|-------------|
| 1. सारण | 8. बक्सर |
| 2. नालन्दा | 9. अररिया |
| 3. पूर्णियाँ | 10. रोखपुरा |
| 4. प. चम्पारण | 11. किशनगंज |
| 5. पटना | 12. भोजपुर |
| 6. सिवान | 13. लखीसराय |
| 7. गोपालगंज | |

15 अति बाढ़ प्रवण जिलों के नाम :

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------|
| 1. सुपौल | 9. मधुबनी |
| 2. मधेपुरा | 10. समस्तीपुर |
| 3. शिवहर | 11. वैशाली |
| 4. सहरसा | 12. कटिहार |
| 5. खगड़िया | 13. पूर्वी चम्पारण |
| 6. सीतामढ़ी | 14. वेगूसराय |
| 7. दरभंगा | 15. भागलपुर |
| 8. मजफ्फरपुर | |



वर्ष 2016 में अगलगी के कारण 150 से भी अधिक लोगों की मृत्यु राज्य में हुई थी तथा पशुओं, घरों एवं फसलों को काफी नुकसान पहुँचा था। वर्ष 2017 में अगलगी के कारण 37 लोगों की मृत्यु हुई एवं 4757 घटनाएँ प्रतिवेदित हुई।



बिहार को प्रभावित करने वाले विगत बड़े भूकम्प

- 6 अक्टूबर 1833, शाम 5.30 से 8 बजे, M 7.5-8
- भूकम्प केन्द्र: नेपाल में, सीमा से 100 कि.मी. पर
- नेपाल में 414 लोग मारे गए
- मुजफ्फरपुर, मुंगेर एवं अन्य जगहों पर भवन ढहे/क्षतिग्रस्त हुए

15 जनवरी 1934, दोपहर, 2.13 बजे, M 7.4

- भूकम्प केन्द्र : नेपाल में, सीमा के पास
- नेपाल में 8,519 लोग एवं भारत में 7,153 लोग मारे गए
- मुंगेर एवं भटगाँव (नेपाल) बर्बाद, नेपाल सीमा से सटे जिलों में भीषण क्षति।

21 अगस्त 1988, सुबह 4.39 सुबह 4.39 बजे, M 6.6

- भूकम्प केन्द्र : नेपाल में, काठमाण्डू से 80 कि.मी. उत्तर पश्चिम
- नेपाल में करीब 7,000 लोग मारे गए और भारत में 78 (बिहार)
- नेपाल में लाखों भवन ध्वस्त हो गए।
- नेपाल में भरतपुर, काठमाण्डू में सभी मुख्य धरोहर संरचना बर्बाद हो गया।

विश्व बैंक के एक अनुमान के अनुसार भारत में प्राकृतिक आपदाओं के चलते देश के सकल घरेलू उत्पाद के दो प्रतिशत के बराबर नुकसान होता है। उससे भी महत्वपूर्ण बात यह है कि इन आपदाओं का प्रभाव गरीबों पर उनके अनुपात से ज्यादा पड़ता है।

संयुक्त राष्ट्र की एजेंसी संयुक्त राष्ट्र अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय आपदा न्यूनीकरण नीति

(यू.एन.आई.एस.डी.आर.) ने 2005 में प्राकृतिक आपदाओं से सम्बन्धित ह्यूगो कार्यवाही रूपरेखा तैयार की, जिस पर भारत ने भी हस्ताक्षर किए हैं। इसमें आपदा जोखिम कम करने के लिए सामाजिक-आर्थिक विकास नियोजन और 5 प्रकार की प्रक्रियाएँ अपनाने की पैरवी की गई है। ये निम्नलिखित हैं-

राजनीतिक प्रक्रिया : इसके अन्तर्गत सभी देशों को ऐसी नीतियाँ और कानून तथा संस्थान विकसित करने हैं, जो आपदा जोखिम कम करने में सहायक हों, इस काम के लिए संसाधन निर्धारित करें और राहत पहुँचाने की तैयारी करें। अर्थात् सुनिश्चित करें कि आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण राष्ट्रीय और स्थानीय महत्व प्राप्त करें और उसे लागू करने के लिए मजबूत संस्थागत आधार मिले।

तकनीकी प्रक्रिया : इसके अन्तर्गत प्राकृतिक आपदा से होने वाली तबाही के आकलन पहचान और मॉनीटरिंग के लिए विज्ञान और प्रौद्योगिकी का इस्तेमाल किया जाए और पूर्व सूचना तंत्र विकसित किया जाए। अर्थात् आपदा के खतरों को पहचानें, मूल्यांकन करें, अनुश्रवण करें और अग्रिम चेतावनी को मजबूत करें।

सामाजिक शैक्षणिक प्रक्रिया : इसका उद्देश्य नागरिकों में समझदारी और हर स्तर पर लचीलापन तथा सुरक्षा की भावना विकसित करना है। अर्थात् ज्ञान, बदलाव और शिक्षा का प्रयोग सभी स्तरों पर सुरक्षा और पुनर्स्थापन के संस्कृति को बनाने में करें।

विकास प्रक्रिया: इसका उद्देश्य विकास के हर सम्बद्ध क्षेत्र में आपदा जोखिम का एकीकरण और विकास के साथ नियोजन तथा कार्यक्रम बनाना है। अर्थात् आसन्न खतरों को कम करें।

मानवीय प्रक्रिया: इसके अन्तर्गत आपदा के समय कार्रवाई और बचाव का काम करना शामिल है। अर्थात् आपदा से निपटने की तैयारी जोर-शोर से की जाय, ताकि सभी स्तरों पर प्रभावी हो।

क्रम में वर्ष 2015 में आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण पर सेंडाई, जापान में मार्च, 2015 में आयोजित तृतीय विश्व कांग्रेस (Sandai Framework of Action) में भारत के गृह मंत्री के नेतृत्व में गए भारतीय दल में शामिल बिहार के आपदा प्रबंधन विभाग के प्रधान सचिव श्री व्यास जी शामिल हुए, और वहां से लौटकर माननीय मुख्यमंत्री, बिहार के दिशानिर्देश में राज्य में आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण रोड मैप (2015-2030) का निर्माण कर देश में एक कीर्तिमान स्थापित किया है और बिहार ऐसा रोड मैप बनाने वाला देश का ही नहीं अपितु विश्व का अग्रणी राज्य बन गया है जिसमें SFA के अन्तर्गत आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण की दिशा में सात प्राथमिकताएं एवं पाँच लक्ष्य के तर्ज पर आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण रोड मैप, (2015-2030) निर्धारित कर पाँच लक्ष्य एवं चार प्राथमिकताएं तय कर निर्धारित लक्ष्यों की पूर्ति हेतु सभी संबंधित विभागों एवं एजेंसियों को आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण के सुपरिभाषित दायित्व सौंपे गए। रोड मैप के अन्तर्गत बिहार के आपदा प्रभावित जिलों को तीन श्रेणियाँ ए, बी और सी में रखा गया। ए में सर्वाधिक आपदा प्रवण जिले, बी में मध्यम श्रेणी के आपदा प्रवण जिले तथा सी में सुखाड़ प्रवण जिले रखे गए हैं, पाँच प्रमुख स्तंभ निम्न प्रकार हैं-

1. सुरक्षित ग्राम
2. सुरक्षित नगर
3. सुरक्षित अत्यावश्यक आधारभूत संरचना
4. सुरक्षित बुनियादी सेवाएं और
5. सुरक्षित आजीविका।

आपदा जोखिम न्यूनीकरण के चार लक्ष्य निम्न प्रकार निर्धारित किए गए हैं-

1. बिहार में आपदाओं से होने वाली मौतों को वर्ष 2030 तक 75% तक कम कर लिया जाएगा।
2. बिहार में सड़क रेल या नाव दुर्घटना में होने वाली मौतों को वर्ष 2030 तक काफी हद तक कम कर लिया जाएगा।
3. बिहार में आपदा से प्रभावित होने वाला की संख्या वर्ष 2030 तक 50% तक कम कर लिया जाएगा।
4. बिहार में आपदा से होने वाले नुकसान को वर्ष 2030 तक 50% तक कम लिया जाएगा।

बिहार में डी.आर.आर. रोड मैप 2015-30 के पूर्व आपदा प्रबंधन अधिनियम, 2005 के अन्तर्गत आपदाओं के समय केन्द्रीय, राज्य, जिला और स्थानीय स्तर कानूनी, वित्तीय और समन्वय तंत्र बनाए जाने की व्यवस्था की गई। विदित हो कि सरकार ने आपदा प्रबंधन योजनाएं बनाने एवं उनके क्रियान्वयन पर निगरानी रखने, आपदाओं की रोकथाम शमन के प्रभावों के लिए सरकार के विभिन्न एवं द्वारा पूर्व से उपाय सुनिश्चित करने तथा किसी भी आपदा की परिस्थिति के लिए एक संपूर्ण समन्वित तथा तत्पर प्रतिक्रिया शुरू करने के लिए एक कानून बनाने का निश्चय किया गया था। परिणामस्वरूप आपदा प्रबंधन अधिनियम, 2005 बनाया गया जो 26 दिसम्बर 2005 को अधिसूचित किया गया।

अधिनियम की प्रमुख विशेषताएं निम्न प्रकार हैं :

प्रधानमंत्री की अध्यक्षता के अन्तर्गत सदस्यों के रूप में अन्य मंत्रियों के साथ जिनकी संख्या 9 से अधिक नहीं हो और जिन्हें प्रधानमंत्री द्वारा यथा नामित किया जाए एक राष्ट्रीय आपदा प्रबंधन प्राधिकरण स्थापित करना जिसका उत्तरदायित्व आपदा प्रबंधन नीतियां योजनाएं और दिशा निर्देश निर्धारित करना है।

प्रत्येक राज्य/संघ शासित क्षेत्र में मुख्यमंत्री या राज्यपाल, प्रशासक जैसा भी मामला हो की अध्यक्षता में एक राज्य आपदा प्रबंधन प्राधिकरण होगा जिसका उत्तरदायित्व राज्य में आपदा प्रबंधन की नीतियां और योजनाएं निर्धारित करना होगा। इसी क्रम में बिहार राज्य आपदा प्रबंधन प्राधिकरण का गठन 06.11.2007 को माननीय मुख्यमंत्री की अध्यक्षता सहित 8 से अनाधिक सदस्यों के साथ की गई।

यह सर्वविदित है कि किसी भी आपदा के कारण सबसे ज्यादा प्रभावित होने वाले लोग गरीब वर्ग के होते हैं। बिहार भारत के गरीब राज्यों में से पाँचवें स्थान पर है। वर्ष 2011 की जनगणना के अनुसार वर्ष 2018 में बिहार की कुल आबादी 104,099,452 है, जिसमें करीब आधी आबादी 33.74 प्रतिशत लोग गरीबी रेखा के नीचे रहते हैं। जिसका मुख्य कारणों में से

एक लगातार आपदाओं का आना है और इन आपदाओं से राज्य के आपदा प्रभावित इलाकों के लोगों को अक्सर जान-माल का नुकसान उठाना पड़ता है। उनकी जीविका के साधन नष्ट हो जाते हैं। इसीलिए आपदाओं के कारण सकल घरेलू उत्पाद पर पड़ने वाले प्रभाव को लेकर चिन्ता जाहिर की जा रही है। यह और भी चिन्ता की बात है कि हम सर्वसमावेशी विकास का लक्ष्य प्राप्त करने की कोशिश कर रहे हैं और जब तक आपदा जोखिम कम करने में कामयाबी नहीं मिलती तब तक यह सम्भव नहीं होगा। इस लक्ष्य को प्राप्त करने के लिए निम्नलिखित उपाय जरूरी होंगे :

1. विकास के कार्य में आपदा जोखिम कम करने के उपायों को मुख्यधारा में लाना।
2. विज्ञान और प्रौद्योगिकी का इस्तेमाल करते हुए पूर्व चेतावनी व्यवस्था को प्रभावशाली बनाना।
3. जागरूकता और तैयारी बढ़ाना।
4. राहत और बचाव तंत्र को मजबूत बनाना।
5. बेहतर पुनर्वास और पुनर्निर्माण।

इसके अलावे केन्द्र और राज्यों के सम्बंध के अन्तर्गत बिहार जैसे आपदा प्रभावित राज्य को विशेष राज्य का दर्जा, बाढ़ भूकम्प जैसे गंभीर आपदाओं के घटने के पश्चात विशेष सहायता, अनुदान आदि भी महत्वपूर्ण होता है। भारत सरकार/राज्य सरकार कृषि, ग्रामीण विकास शहरी विकास, पेयजल, ग्रामीण सड़क, स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा एवं खाद्य सुरक्षा क्षेत्रों में अनेक महत्वाकांक्षी कार्यक्रम चला रही है। इन कार्यक्रमों के लिए काफी परिव्यय रखा गया है और इनका उद्देश्य लोगों के रहन-सहन की गुणवत्ता में सुधार लाना है। इन सबसे कुछ हद तक आपदा जोखिम कम करने में मदद मिली है, लेकिन आपदा जोखिम घटाने के प्रमुख घटक इनमें मौजूद नहीं हैं। अब कोशिश इस बात की होनी चाहिए कि इन योजनाओं में आपदा जोखिम कम करने के घटक शामिल कर लिए जाएं। जहाँ भूख और गरीबी घटाने में कृषि का बहुत योगदान है, वहीं कृषि पर आपदाओं का बुरा असर पड़ता है तो छोटे किसानों और खेतिहर मजदूरों की रोजी-रोटी पर आफत आन पड़ती है तथा खाद्य सुरक्षा प्रभावित होती है। खेती के विकास के लिए जो भी कार्यक्रम बनाए जाते हैं उनमें इन बातों पर ध्यान नहीं दिया जाता। कृषि मंत्रालय का एक प्रमुख कार्यक्रम है राष्ट्रीय कृषि विकास योजना जिसमें आपदा जोखिम कम करने के घटक शामिल किए जा सकते हैं। बीज के आरक्षित भण्डार बनाने, खेती में लगने वाले कीड़ों पर नजर रखने और महात्मा गाँधी राष्ट्रीय रोजगार गारण्टी योजना के सहयोग से जल भण्डारण उपायों के जरिए आपदा जोखिम कम करने के घटक शामिल किए जा सकते हैं।

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Seminar Proceedings
संगोष्ठी कार्यवाही



Role of Digital Technology in Governance

INTRODUCTION

With the dawn of twenty first century, the use of digital technology in governance has become the necessity for the governments for two reasons - first, making governance efficient, effective, citizen-centric and second, achieving sustainable development goals (SDGs). SDGs, announced by UNDP in 2015, has encompassed almost all aspects of human life and become the acceptable goals of all kinds of democratic governments. It is a predominant assumption that in achieving the goals of sustainable development, the information and communication technology (ICT) has been proved to be a leveraged enabling tool. There have been fast growth of new ICTs for last one and half decades. In this context, the questions that make an urgent imperative to address them in context of availability, feasibility, acceptability of and challenges before the use of digital technologies in public governance. As the digital technologies are the tools of information storage and analysis, communication and transfer of information from one end to another, what people call G2G, G2B and G2C, its use in governance keep the nerves of government sound for governance indicators.

Let us have look on governance indicators, meaning the prime areas of governance. After having comparatively studied 200 countries, six indicators or prime areas of governance have been marked by Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI Project of World Bank, 2018) namely, Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and Absence of Violence/Terrorism, Government Effectiveness, Regulatory Quality, Rule of Law and Control of Corruption. Besides, the scholarship on the subject have viewed the role of digital technology in governance from different approaches which can be categorised into four namely, organisational approach,

functional approach, social justice approach and democracy approach. All these approaches, have no watertight compartments rather the categorisation is based on degree of premium placed on the different aspects of governance. The first emphasizes on strengthening of an organisation through MIS, the second on functional aspects like service delivery and output functions, the third on serving the cause of poor and deprived and fourth approach puts emphasis on strengthening democracy by empowering citizens with information for greater level of people's participation. The IT has been improved by innovation and emergence of new technologies.

Historically, America, unlike its use in England, introduced DT first for identifying fake beneficiaries later its use in organisation and its functioning. Evolution and use of DT, in Bihar has been lagging behind the other Indian states in terms of IT infrastructure. Further there are various challenges of proliferation of DT like adverse impact of social media, artificial intelligence adversely affecting employability, making social skills redundant, problems of re-skilling, manufactured identity, etc.

A variety of digital technology have recently emerged which are categorised into three namely - artificial intelligence, transparently immersive and digital platforms, which make an imperative to look into the Indian scenario of digital governance status. At present, according to UN e-Government Index of 2018, India ranks 96th in terms of e-government development index as compared to 119th of 2010. India scores merely 0.2009 points as against highest score of 1.0000 in terms of telecommunication infrastructure whereas India rose from 58th rank of 2010 to 15th rank in 2018 as regards to e-participation index. All these indexes show that India is growing digitally too. Now the question is - Have India sufficient IT infrastructure and has it harnessed them in optimum way? Is increased e-participation conducive to governance and democracy?

India has introduced ICT in governance well back in 1980s but substantial policy was made in the year 2000. Later, National e-Governance Plan (NeGP) was introduced in 2006 with 27 mission mode projects. During the years from 2008 to 2013, there were - IT Act Amendments, NSDG, National IT Policy (2012), Cloud and Mobile Seva. With the new political regime coming into power in the year 2014, the Digital India programme has been launched with the aim to "transform India into a digitally empowered society and knowledge economy", as consequence, MyGov and e-Kranti platforms are created with dozens of mission mode projects.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE PRELUDE CONFERENCE OF IIPA, BIHAR REGIONAL BRANCH, PATNA

Annual General Body Meeting and Prelude Seminar on 'Role of Digital Technology in Governance' was organised by Indian Institute of Public Administration, Bihar Regional Branch, Patna held on 5th October, 2018 in the Department of Political Science, Sri Arvind Mahila College, Kajipur, Patna. Sri Vijay Kumar Choudhary, Hon'ble Speaker, Bihar Vidhan Sabha inaugurated the seminar as the Chief Guest. Er J K Singh, Chairman of the Branch presided over the function. Dr Vibhash Kumar Yadav, Principal, R N College Hajipur and Prof. Gandhi Jee Roy of V K S University, Ara were the Guests of Honour on the occasion. Sri Rahul Singh, IAS, Secretary Finance and MD, BELTRON, Govt. of Bihar delivered the Key-Note address. Dr Usha Jha, Principal, Sri Arvind Mahila College, Patna delivered the welcome address. Dr. R K Verma, Hony Secretary of the Branch presented the Activity Report and audited accounts for the year 2017-18 and introduced the theme of the Seminar.

In his inaugural address, Chief Guest Mr Choudhary enumerated the benefits of digital technology (DT) in making the governance fair, responsive, efficient and effective and shared his experiences of smoothening of conduct of the proceedings of legislative houses with the help of DT. He added that the members of the legislatures have become more responsive, responsible and efficient owing to the DT. However, he underlined the menace of the DT in social life. He said that this has enhanced the connectivity on one hand and has resulted in social and emotional disconnection on the other.

In his key-note address, Sri Rahul Singh, dwelt up on the history of rise of DT and argued that America, unlike its use in England, introduced it first for identifying fake beneficiaries later its use in organisation and its functioning. Discussing evolution and use of DT, he said that Bihar has been lagging behind the other Indian states in terms of IT infrastructure. Further he enumerated various challenges of proliferation of DT like adverse impact of social media, artificial intelligence adversely affecting employability, making social skills redundant, problems of re-skilling, manufactured identity, etc. He suggested that government should make adjustments in its policies, civil society will have to act accordingly and politico-legal support to regulate the of DT.

Dr R K Verma Hony. Secretary of the Branch presented the annual activity report and audited accounts of the Branch for the year 2017-18. Introducing the theme, he underlined approaches to the study of DT in governance namely organisational, functional, social justice and democratic approaches. He further pointed out that biggest challenge before digitalising India is the lack of e-readiness among the people of weaker sections and lower administrative echelons.

Prof. Ghanshyam N. Singh of Magadh University (retd), Professor Sadhna Thakur of Sri Arvind Mahila College, in her presentation, dwelt upon the use of digital technology in teaching and learning process and said that it has been helpful in enhancing creativity among students. Dr Rajiv Shankar Sinha of the College also presented his paper. Important among those IIPA members who spoke on the occasion were Dr Rajesh Kumar, joint Secretary, Dr Archana Kumari, treasurer, Dr Sangeeta Bishwanath, member of the Branch, Prof Sita Sinha of B D College, Patna, Dr P K Yadav, Dr K A Narain of R N College, Hajipur, Dr Veena Sinha, Dr A Ghosh of MU, and Dr P K Verma.

On this occasion, prizes were given away to the five students of different colleges of Bihar who participated in the J K P Sinha Memorial Essay Competition on the same topic organised by the Branch in the month of September. Nikita Kumari student of M A Political Science Semester 3 of R N College, Hajipur won the 1st prize. Kumari Jyotsna, student of MA Sociology Sem 2 and Ansu Kumar Gaurav of BA Sociology Hons of A N College, Patna shared the second prize whereas Ritu Das Gupta of BA Political Science Hons student of Sri Arvind Mahila College, Patna won the third prize. Akanksha of R N College, Hajipur received the Consolation Prize.

Finally the vote of thanks was proposed by Dr. Henna Tabassum, Head, P G Department of Sociology, A N College, Patna.

FOLLOWING ARE THE FINDINGS OF THE SEMINAR

- The role of digital technology have been examined by the scholarship from three approaches, namely, Organisational Approach, Functional Approach, Social Justice Approach and Democracy Approach
- The digital technology makes the governance transparent, objective, efficient, responsive and minimising red tapism as well as corruption. The artificial intelligence, immersive technology and digital platform facilitate governance become citizen-centric as these digital mechanisms are accessible to both the people and the public servants.
- India is still far behind the global standards, rather in midway, in terms of availability of IT infrastructure and support conditions in government agencies and lack of e-readiness of the rural people and lower administrative echelons, however, the quantum of use of DT in India has grown substantially.
- But the growth of DT in India has posed some serious challenges like proliferated use of social media with adverse impacts on individual and society, artificial intelligence lessens job opportunities in Indian conditions, social skills become redundant, lack of opportunities for re-skilling, growing social and emotional disconnection, manufactured identity, etc.

- The discussions cropped up in recommending suggestions like adjustments in public policies in light of the challenges, strong politico-legal arrangements, active roles by civil society and making the DT users to be prompt to utilise the available resources.

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SEMINAR IN PRINT MEDIA



Book Reviews

पुस्तक समीक्षा



Book Review

Reviewed by Ram Ranbir Singh*

Archana Kumari, Khadya Suraksha, Prashashan Evam Upbhokta,
Victorious Publishers (India), New Delhi, 2018

A large chunk of world's population is starving and deprived of adequate food; majority of them belong to south Asian countries. Though meeting the need of people's hunger has been subject matter of state's responsibility right from ancient period, yet in the modern times it was first taken into consideration by international bodies in the later part of 20th century. The concern for global starvation was first expressed by the World Health Organisation (WHO) in 1970s. World Food Conference (WFC) emphasized the assurance of availability of food to all. With the passage of time economists like Amartya Sen found WFC's emphasis inadequate and pleaded for 'ensuring entitlement' of food to all, especially the poor people. In this way the 'food security' became the global call as well as it added adequate availability with right to food. Again in 1996 the issue gained ground and few more elements were added to the concept of food security. Quality of food commodities, good health and proper conditions for absorption of the food consumption etc. are now added among the elements of 'food security'. It was first raised in India in 2009 and policy makers began to prepare the legal frame work of the 'food security'. The major objective was to provide food and nutrition as matter of right. The Food Security Act was passed finally in 2013. The Act encompassed the four elements - availability, accessibility, distribution and quality of food grains as a matter of right. However the Act made adequate provisions to ensure quality food to poor, deprived and insecure people. This entailed a huge fund. On the contrary, no substantial restructuring was attempted in the implementing agencies, particularly the Public

* University Professor, Department of Political Science, Veer Kunwar Singh University, Ara;
Email: singh.ramranbir@gmail.com; Mob No. 9431685122

Distribution System (PDS). In the given present situation of food security, there are certain questions need to be addressed such as - Will the proper implementation of FSA 2013 be possible with the present administrative structure? Has the food administration been able to overcome the leakage of food commodities in the transit from farm to the consumer? Has the new law been successful in improving the delivery system? Are the consumers of PDS well aware of the law to accrue benefit from the FSA? These questions need to be addressed.

The book under review caters to the need and attempts to answer the queries. The book is an outcome of the UGC sponsored research project. In the first chapter Archana Kumari has taken the account of global situation of food availability and also that of India. Besides, the history of PDS and related laws has been discussed in this chapter. The second chapter examines the concepts of food insecurity, food security and food administration. She establishes that food is not simply a nutritional commodity but is a political, economic and administrative commodity too. The nature of food insecurity varies from one country and situation to another. It has been argued that food has been source of power at the society level and a weapon for electoral politics in India. The chapter assesses the evolution of concept of food security from assuring availability to accessibility, quality food commodity, timely distribution and conditions of absorption. It has been found that the element of conditions of absorption is lacking in India. The third chapter examines the features of FSA and administrative structure of implementation of food policy right from central level down to district level. In this chapter, the pattern of functioning of food bureaucracy in Bihar state, in the light of FSA, has been dealt with, viz. identification of beneficiaries of targeted PDS, procurement and distribution of food, quasi-judicial functions (ensuring consumer rights) and vigilance mechanism at the ground level. The fourth chapter examines the situation of food security in the light of consumers' satisfaction; based upon empirical examination at micro-level using survey method, survey conducted in four districts across the state of Bihar. The study finds that a very meager percentage (3 to 4 percent) of rural consumers depend on PDS under FSA. They are superficially aware of the FSA. The PDS in Bihar vis-a-vis consumers has been examined in the fifth chapter. This chapter is also based on survey results. A relationship with PDS dealers and consumers has been examined. The study finds that though the consumers are dissatisfied, yet they want the PDS to continue with certain improvements. The sixth chapter is conclusion. The study suggests the people want involvement of beneficiary community in management of the public distribution, a substantial section want strict vigilance on the government functionaries and very few rely on participative vigilance mechanism.

The book though written in Hindi version, yet it takes the almost all issues of food security and presents the ground realities. However, the sample size seems to be a bit smaller. The author deserves commendation for the rigorous research work. The book is a paperback and under reach of common readers. It is a useful discourse, on FSA and its working in Bihar, for both young researchers and teachers of public administration.

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