

New Series

ISSN: 0974-2735

Vol. XVII, No. 2

July - Dec., 2020

BIHAR JOURNAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

(A Bi-Annual Refereed Research Journal of IIPA Bihar Regional Branch, Patna)
(S. No. 41 In UGC-CARE Reference List of Quality Journals, Soc. Sc.)



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INDIAN INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

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A/C No. 000234005002918 IFSC: YESB0BSCB01 Bank: Bihar State Cooperative Bank Ltd Branch: New Secretariat, Patna.

Website: www.iipabiharbranch.org

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From the Desk of the Chief Editor

I have immense pleasure to present the Vol. XVII No. 2 2020 issue of Bihar Journal of Public Administration before the readers. The processing (internal and external reviews, as well as computer typography) of the contributions took place amidst tough time of Covid-19 pandemics. As the Journal has been receiving a large number of contributions of good quality in shape of research papers, research notes, book reviews etc. from across the disciplines and the country, it becomes difficult to publish them in two issues. However, the editorial board intends to accommodate the new ideas and issues of our focus area of research. We have endeavoured to provide space for new ideas, related to Public Administration, like reservation policies, social audit, women in pandemic management, online education, bases of coalition politics, child budgeting, FDI etc.

The Branch has been conscious of maintaining quality and punctuality of the journal in order to make it useful for teachers, researchers, students, policy makers and administrators. I express my thankfulness to the editorial team, anonymous referees, learned contributors and institutions of higher education that have rendered helping hands to our venture.

Prof. S.P. Shahi
Chief Editor

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Editorial

It is my privilege to present the Vol. XVII No. 2, 2020 of Bihar Journal of Public Administration before the readers. Thanks to the digital technology that facilitated us to keep our academic activities continued. We are passing through a phase that poses the unique challenges for governance and administration, owing to Covid-19 pandemic, changed values and priorities, growing space of digital functioning amidst scarce resources, economic crisis, reversing globalization, trade war etc. The Journal intends to cover the issues related to these challenges.

The present issue of the Journal covers a wide range of issues of public administration and management. It contains, besides the book review, contributions on 'rethinking reservation policy', 'intergovernmental interactions', 'social audit of finances of the PRIs', 'education policy and online education', 'economic scenario and financial administration', 'programmes on development and livelihood', 'gender issues in politics and women empowerment', 'women's role in pandemic management', 'ground realities of coalition politics' 'human rights of police personnel', 'justice delivery', 'environmental concerns & politics', 'cleanliness among tribal women' and so on. We have taken care to include the specific issues related to Bihar and Jharkhand. The Hindi section of the journal does also contain the valued contributions.

The Editorial Board has taken utmost care to maintain the quality of the Journal with emphasis on highlighting emerging issues and ideas. Further, the empirical attempts, particularly concerning Bihar and Jharkhand have been accommodated in the issue. With a view to present the challenges faced by other developing political systems, role of FDI in development of a country like Ethiopia and civil society of Bangladesh have been included in the issue. However, we are open to welcome the suggestions for improvement of the quality of the Journal by the readership and scholarship.

R.K. Verma,
Editor

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RESERVATION POLICY IN INDIA: A REVIEW AND RETHINKING

Mahendra Prasad Singh* and Niraj Kumar**

Abstract

Reservation policy, though introduced by the British rulers, has gained political significance with the passage of time, particularly after introduction of recommendations of Mandal Commission in 1989. Since then it became a political weapon for parties for not only the electoral prospects but sensitizing certain sections of our society to enter into political arena. This makes an imperative to review the policy in context of laws, judicial decisions and caste-class texture of Indian society. Thus, the present paper intends to throw light on these aspects and in the process it traces the evolution and implications of policy in the context of Indian polity. Reservation policy in India emanates from the Constitution, laws, executive orders and regulations and it has the nexus with fundamental right to equality, social texture and partisan political interests. The whole situation suggests that the policy requires a substantial re-thinking.

Keywords: Reservation Policy, Constitution, Equality, Jobs, Education, Politics, India

INTRODUCTION

The reservation policy is a subsidiary matter having a nexus with the fundamental right to equality under Article 14; provision of discrimination on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth under Article 15; and equality of

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opportunity in matters of public employment under Article 16. In addition to these fundamental rights, there are also implied fundamental rights to equality of representation and franchise or right to vote, though these are not expressly included in Part III of the constitution on Fundamental Rights. They flow from the provisions of the constitution relating to the elections to the Lok Sabha, Vidhan Sabhas, and local self-governing urban and rural councils. Reservation policy is premised on some departures from the above rights in the interest of reverse discrimination for historically discriminated and disadvantaged communities to promote justice and ultimately desirable greater equality in the society. The Constitution also enjoins the need for reconciling the policy of reservation in the services with their efficiency in performance (Article 335). Arguably, the reservation policy has also a nexus with the vision of a national community transcending ascriptive categories of castes, tribes and other kinds of communities such as those based on language and religion.

Despite its aptness for India's specific conditions, reservation appears quite late in the long and convoluted grand and lofty debate on the rights between the nationalists and the colonialists in British India. It does not figure in the Proclamation of Queen Victoria declaring "Our royal will and pleasure" to all Indian subjects, "the equal and impartial promotion of the law". It must be clarified that these rights proclaimed by the British in India were common law rights (i.e. under customs and traditions, legislations, and case laws). These were not fundamental rights in the sense of being constitutionally entrenched like the Bill of Rights in the US Constitution.

EVOLUTION OF THE POLICY AND CONSTITUTION

Reservations first appeared in British India as provincial legislative and administrative measures in the South for the non-Brahmin middle and lower castes, and were seen, along with unequally weighted representation in favour of minorities at the all-India level in respect of legislative representation in the Government of India Acts of 1909, 1919, and 1935, as an aspect of colonial policy of "divide and rule" in order to weaken the nationalist platform of the Indian National Congress

On the nationalist side, the rights discourse remained mainly focused on fundamental rights all along the freedom struggle. It becomes clear by scanning the series of nationalist documents such, for example, as the Constitution of India Bill, which Annie Besant called the Home Rule Bill, the Commonwealth of India Bill finalized by a National Convention in 1925, Gandhi's memorandum circulated at the Second Round Table Conference, the Motilal Nehru Committee Report (1928), and the Sapru Committee Report (1945) (both appointed by All Party's Conferences). In response to the persistent demand for fundamental rights

for Indians, the standard British response was that the common law protections available in India make any additional mechanism superfluous. Besides, the Joint Select Committee of the British Parliament on the Government of India Bill (1934) rejected the demand for fundamental right echoing the similar opinion of the Simon Commission on the ground that any such rights are “so abstract” as to have “no legal effect of any kind”, besides entailing legal effects that would “impose an embarrassing restrictions on the powers of the Legislature and to create a grave risk that a large number of laws may be declared invalid by the courts as being inconsistent with one or other of the rights so declared...”¹

Article 16 of the Constitution on Equality of Opportunity in matters of Public Employment made an exception to the general principle of equality via clause 4 permitting the state to make any provision for the reservation of appointments or posts in favour of any backward class of citizens which, in the opinion of the state, is not adequately represented in the services under the state. The 77th Amendment, 1995, and the 85th Amendment, 2001, expanded the ambit of the above reservation to include promotion in case of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled tribes.

Besides reservation in public employment, there is a second kind of reservation provided in the Constitution relating to reservation of seats for SCs and STs in the Lok Sabha and the Vidhan sabhas under Article 330 and 332. These reservations are to be proportionate to the population of these communities in the states concerned. These reservations were originally made for ten years but have been extended by constitutional amendments to date.

Another important development on the reservation policy front took place in 1990 when the Janata Dal-led National Front Government of Prime Minister V. P. Singh implemented the recommendations of the Mandal Commission on the Backward Classes in favour of 27 per cent reservation in Central Government Services under Article 16, clause 4. This decision was challenged in the Supreme Court in *Indra Sawhney vs. Union of India*, 1993, but the Court sustained the decision subject to the proviso that the “creamy layer” among the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) be taken out from the benefit of this policy and the quantum of reservation must not exceed the 50 per cent of the posts available.

In 2001 the 85th Amendment to the Constitution allowed the state to make any provision for reservation in matters of promotion with consequential seniority, to any class or classes of posts in the services in favour of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes which in the opinion of the state are underrepresented in the services.

The next important extension of the reservation policy was introduced by the Congress-led United Progressive Alliance Government headed by Manmohan Singh under the 93rd Constitutional Amendment Act 2005 adding clause 5 to Article 15 dealing with prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race,

caste, sex or place of birth. The exception made under this clause allowed the state to make special provision by law for the advancement of any socially and educationally backward-classes of the citizens and for the SCs and STs in relations to their admission to educational institutions, public or private, other than minority educational institutions referred to in clause 1 of Article 30. This Amendment was challenged in the Supreme Court in *Ashok Kumar Thakur Vs. Union of India and others* (2008). The Amendment was sustained subject to the continuation of the exclusion of the “creamy layer” from the ambit of reservation as it was in the *Indra Sawhney case* relating to the Mandal Reservation of 1990. The Court also clarified that the SCs and STs would continue to be exempted from the “creamy layer” exclusion. However, the Court ruled that the Government must improve upon its criteria of determining who are parts of the “creamy layer”, taking into account the changing circumstances and keeping in view the constitutional goal of equality. For example, the government was urged to exclude from the benefit of reservation the children of former Members of Parliament (MPs) and Members of Legislative Assemblies (MLAs).

In 2014 just before the general election that year the Congress-led-UPA government expanded the list of OBCs in 9 states with the intention of extending the ambit of reservation in Central Government jobs to the Jats. This decision was challenged in the Supreme Court in *Ram Singh and Others Vs. Union of India* (2015). A two-judge bench unanimously quashed this move as constitutionally untenable. The move was also criticized in public discourse as “vote bank” politics. The Court ruled that the impugned notification of the Government, which was passed the day before the announcement of the poll schedule, was not backed by compelling evidence which the Constitution requires with regard to backwardness and lack of adequate representation of the Jats in services. The Court found the recommendation of the National Commission for the Backward Classes (NCBC) more convincing in this matter which the government had overruled and issued its order. In the opinion of the Court, “Though caste may be a prominent and distinguishing factor for easy determination of backwardness of a social group, this Court had been routinely discouraging the identification of a group as backward solely on the basis of caste....social groups who would be most deserving must necessarily be a matter of continuous evolution. New practices, methods and yardsticks have to be continuously evolved moving away from caste-centric definition of backwardness. This alone can enable recognition of newly-emerging groups in society, which would require palliative action”²²

JOB RESERVATION

A review of implementation of SC/ST job reservation suggests that there has been a notable improvement in their condition. Nevertheless, the targeted socio-economic

improvement in this lot leaves much to be desired. In the two decades between 1964 and 1984, the share of SCs in group A or class 1 jobs in the Union Government increased from 1.6 to 7 per cent. This pace registered a marked improvement during the decade between 1994 to 2004 to 12.2 per cent. Comparable data for STs are 0.3, 1.7 and 4.1 for the same timelines. The OBC reservation which began much later, as already mentioned above, lags behind the SCs and is more or less similar to the position of STs. For example, in 2004 this share among group A officers was 4 per cent, the same as that of STs.³

Table 1 gives data about the number of officials belonging to SCs/STs in Group A and equivalent posts in various pay bands working in various ministries/departments/public sector undertakings/nationalized banks as on January 1, 2011. The proportion of the employees belonging to the SC Category on the above date happened to be 12.27 per cent and that of the employees belonging to ST Category was 5.35 per cent.

Table 1:

<i>Pay band/ Grade Pay</i>	<i>Total employees</i>	<i>Employees belonging to SC category</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Employees belonging to ST category</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
PB-3: GP 5400	23328	3257	10.10	1396	5.9
PB-3: GP 6600	18532	2585	13.9	1075	5.8
PB-3: GP 7600	11885	1401	11.7	632	5.3
PB-4 GP 8700	11026	1198	10.8	527	4.7
PB-4 GP 8900	3085	206	6.6	103	3.3
PB-4 GP 10,000	6666	575	8.6	258	3.8
HAG + Above	1592	116	7.2	80	5
Total	76114	9338	12.27	4071	5.35

Source: Parliamentary Committee on the Welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (2012-2013) 26th Report on Ministry of Personnel, Public Grievances and Pensions (Department of Personnel and Training), 15th Lok Sabha, Lok Sabha Secretariat, New Delhi, 20th March, 2013, Para-2.9.

Table 2 shows the representation of SC/ST officers at various levels in the Central Secretariat on September 1, 2012. Overall (inclusive of all levels) the proportion of SCs was 6.91 per cent, and that of the STs was 4.09 per cent. Their representation was minuscule or zero at the levels of the Secretaries and Deputy Secretaries, but relatively better at the levels of Additional Secretaries, Joint Secretaries, and Directors. Out of 69 Secretaries none was from the SCs and only one from the STs. Their representation was most sizable among the Directors: 13.56 per cent SCs and 8.48 per cent STs.

Table 2:

S. No.	Level (These figures do not include equivalent posts)	All	SCs (Number)	SCs (Percentage)	STs (Number)	STs (Percentage)
1	Deputy Secretary	10	0	0	0	0
2	Director	59	8	13.56	5	8.48
3	Joint Secretary	189	16	8.45	9	4.76
4	Additional Secretary	64	3	4.69	1	1.56
5	Secretary	69	0	0	1	1.45
Grand Total		391	27	6.91	16	4.09

Source: Same as in Table 1, Para 2.11.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Data about the impact of reservation in higher educational institutions are scarce. The limited available data suggest that reservation has increased the presence of reserved category in the higher education but this does not ensure commensurate success in the race for employment, which is nevertheless not entirely negligible. Weisskopf (2004) finds that at least 50 per cent seats reserved for SCs and at least two-thirds of those for STs remained vacant, taking all institutions of higher education together into account. The University Grants Commission provides special funds for remedial counselling and coaching in Universities but these funds largely remained unutilized.⁴

Desai and Kulkarni (2008) doing secondary analysis of data from successive National Sample Survey (NSS) records between 1993 and 2000, conclude about the general trend regarding the impact of educational reservation that there has been significant reduction of inequalities between the general and reserved categories at the primary educational levels. This trend continues at middle and high school levels but not remarkably. In college education the inequalities between ST males and upper caste Hindus have declined.⁵

Satish Deshpande (2012) provides some data about enrolment of various groups in various types of educational institutions in urban India in 2004-5 at all levels of government schools the enrolment of Scheduled Castes was at 62.8 per cent and that of the Scheduled Tribes 53.7 per cent. The corresponding figures for the two categories in all levels of schools were 7.2 per cent and 46.3 per cent respectively. The percentage of OBC enrolment in government schools was 47.7 per cent and in private schools 52.2 per cent. It's clear that the OBCs are better represented in

private schools than both SCs and STs. It is a common knowledge that the plight of private schools is generally considered better than government schools in India. If we consider college level education and above, the enrolment of SCs in government colleges is 54.3 per cent and in private colleges 45.7 per cent; the ST enrolment in government colleges is 55.6 per cent and in private colleges 44.4 per cent. The corresponding data for OBCs are 46.6 per cent in government colleges and 53.4 per cent in private colleges. We may add that government colleges are generally better off than private colleges.

The picture of group shares in technical education in urban India in 2004-5 is sharply different from the general education discussed above. In this domain OBCs are far ahead of the SCs and STs in attaining some technical degrees: their percentage is 20.9 per cent compared to 4.1 per cent for SCs and 2 per cent for STs.⁶

POLITICAL RESERVATION

The most complete implementation of reservations has been in the field of political representation in local rural and urban councils; state legislatures; and the national Parliament (See in the Table-3 for reserved seats in the Lok Sabha the popularly elected House of the Parliament). The problem of unfilled seats or backlogs as in the services and educational institutions is not to be found in this domain. The representation proportionate to the population of these categories guaranteed by the constitution or laws are fully ensured to them.

Table 3: State/UT wise Seats in the Lok Sabha and their Reservation Status

Sl. No.	STATE /UT	Type of Constituencies on the basis of the Delimitation Order 1976			TOTAL	Type of Constituencies on the basis of the Delimitation Order 2008		
		GEN	SC	ST		GEN	SC	ST
1.	ANDHRA PRADESH	34	6	2	42	32	7	3
2.	ARUNACHAL PRADESH	2	-	-	2	2	-	-
3.	ASSAM	11	1	2	14	11	1	2
4.	BIHAR	33	7	-	40	34	6	-
5.	JHARKHAND	8	1	5	14	8	1	5
6.	GOA	2	-	-	2	2	-	-
7.	GUJARAT	20	2	4	26	20	2	4
8.	HARYANA	8	2	-	10	8	2	-
9.	HIMACHAL PRADESH	3	1	-	4	3	1	-
10.	JAMMU & KASHMIR	6	-	-	6	6	-	-
11.	KARNATAKA	24	4	-	28	21	5	2

12.	KERALA	18	2	-	20	18	2	-
13.	MADHYA PRADESH	20	4	5	29	19	4	6
14.	CHHATTISGARH	5	2	4	11	6	1	4
15.	MAHARASHTRA	41	3	4	48	39	5	4
16.	MANIPUR	1	-	1	2	1	-	1
17.	MEGHALAYA	2	-	-	2	-	-	2
18.	MIZORAM	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
19.	NAGALAND	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
20.	ORISSA	13	3	5	21	13	3	5
21.	PUNJAB	10	3	-	13	9	4	-
22.	RAJASTHAN	18	4	3	25	18	4	3
23.	SIKKIM	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
24.	TAMIL NADU	32	7	-	39	32	7	-
25.	TRIPURA	1	-	1	2	1	-	1
26.	UTTAR PRADESH	63	17	-	80	63	17	-
37.	UTTARAKHAND	4	1	-	5	4	1	-
28.	WEST BENGAL	32	8	2	42	30	10	2
29.	ANDAMAN & NICOBAR ISLANDS	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
30.	CHANDIGARH	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
31.	DADRA & NAGAR HAVELI	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
32.	DAMAN & DIU	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
33.	DELHI	6	1	-	7	6	1	-
34.	LAKSHADWEEP	-	-	1	1	-	-	1
35.	PONDICHERRY	1	-	-	1	1	-	-
	TOTAL	423	79	41	543	412	84	47

Source: Election Commission of India website – http://eci.nic.in/eci_main1/seats_of_loksabha.aspx accessed on 23 August, 2015

A debatable point about the impact of the political reservations can be that the representatives who are elected through the reservation route may really be cross-pressured under conflicting interests and considerations as a common electorate votes them to power not only their own ethnic group. They must, therefore, try to appeal to all sections of voters to get elected or re-elected instead of taking exclusively the cause of the weaker sections they are supposedly elected to represent. This in itself is not bad for social union and national integration. Yet it does dilute the notion of social justice which the voters belonging to their own ethnic groups

might expect them to serve. The Constituent Assembly preferred to reconcile the ideas of social justice and social union in this way, rejecting the British colonial system of separate ethnic electorate in their sinister policy of divide and rule, which created the perverse forces of religious communalism that ultimately led to the partition of India.

PREFERENTIAL TREATMENT IN ECONOMIC ENTERPRISES

Besides the advancement of Dalits (the connotation of this term is sometimes more inclusive than only the Scheduled Caste but here it is restricted to them) through democracy, and educational and employment opportunities, several scholars have drawn attention to the impact of economic opportunities created by over two decades of economic reforms on them. Swaminathan S. A. Aiyar (2011) refers euphorically to the new phenomenon of the rise of Dalit Millionaires who have now established a Dalit Chambers of Commerce and Industry in Mumbai. Citing a seminal study by Devesh Kapur and Others, Aiyar says that the proportion of Dalits owning their own business was up from 4.2 per cent to 11 per cent in Eastern UP. This percentage in non-traditional occupations like Tailors, Masons, etc., was up from 14 to 37 in the east and from 9.3 to 42 in the western UP.⁷ Gopal Guru, however, argues that the emergence of Dalit Capital is clientalist, that is subordinate to powerful political and state elites.⁸

Barbara Harriss-White *et al.* provide some data which indicate that the first decade of the economic reform after 1991 witnessed significant shifts in private enterprises from rural to urban sites and faster growth in the urban firms owned by Dalits and Adivasis remained stationary at 13-14 per cent. Nevertheless, this stability counsels the differential trajectories between enterprises owned by the Adivasis and Dalits. During 1990-98 the proportion of Adivasi Enterprises increased by 49 per cent while the Dalit enterprises declined by 15 per cent. During 1998-2005 the trend was reversed such that the proportion of Adivasi enterprises decreased by 7 per cent while Dalit enterprises increased by 17 per cent. These trends are presented in a broader comparative context in table 4.

Table 4: Dalit Enterprises, 1990 – 2005

	<i>Total pvt enterprises* (m)</i>	<i>% ST Popn</i>	<i>% ST firms</i>	<i>%m SC popn</i>	<i>% SC firms</i>
1990** (-1)	22.14	8.08	2.92	16.33	9.85
1998 (-01)	27.71	8.20	4.35	16.20	8.42
2005	37.58	8.26	4.05	16.14	9.82

**This does not include non-profit institutions, cooperatives and private corporations.*

***This does not include enterprises in Jammu and Kashmir as it was excluded from the economic census.*

Source: Barbara Harriss-White et al., *Dalit and Adivasis in India's Business Economy: Three Essays and an Atlas*, Haryana, Gurgaon; Three Essays Collective, 2014, pp. 51-52.

There is some evidence that the preferential procurement policy for Central Public Sector Undertakings from Dalit Enterprises exists in principle but remains not fully implemented. The first comprehensive survey of these undertakings from Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) owned by Dalits(Scheduled Castes/ Scheduled Tribes) Entrepreneurs indicated that their supplies amounted to nearly Rs 419.37 crores in 2013-14 or 0.51 per cent of the total CPSU procurement of Rs 81,319.28 crores during the year. There is a steep shortfall from the Government of India's Public Procurement Policy for MSEs Order 2012 dated April 25, 2012 which required that at least 20 per cent of the procurement was to be made from MSEs within which 4 per cent was to be made from MSEs promoted by Dalits. The foregoing shortfall in procurement appears all the more glaring if we consider the fact that the 2013 Survey by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) found that there were 5.77 crores MSEs employing 12 crore people, and more than 60 per cent of these units were owned by the SCs/STs, and OBCs.⁹

The most notable effect of job, educational, and representational quotas is the emergence of a new middle class among the backward classes in three segments— SCs, STs and OBCs. This is particularly true of the SCs and STs rather than the OBCs, as the latter and a section of the STs in the north-east and the Meenas among the STs in Rajasthan were/are already a part of the middle class anyway.

There are some studies which have examined the impact of political reservations on public policies. Political reservations have now been extended to local government councils. At this level it has been found by Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2004) that representation for women in Gram Panchayats in Birbhum in West Bengal and Udaipur in Rajasthan show a marked difference between composition as well as investment decisions by the Panchayats.¹⁰ It may be relevant here to refer to Jaffrelot (2003) and his thesis of the "Silent Revolution" in India by which he means the peaceful transfer of power from upper class elites to subaltern groups through the electoral process. He qualifies his own thesis by pointing out that this transfer of power is fraught with some constraints that the newly emergent subaltern elites still face vis-a-vis the well-entrenched upper caste elites. He mentions these constraints particularly in relation to the OBCs, which arguably is faced even more acutely by Dalits. He also points out that most political parties are multi-caste formations and even Dalit dominated Bahujan Samaj Party must include upper caste elites to win elections and form governments. Besides, with economic liberalization job opportunities have expanded in the corporate-private

sectors where reservation doesn't apply and public employment no longer remains as numerous and significant as before.¹¹

In view of the foregoing discussion, it may well be concluded with Ashwini Deshpande that political reservations will help to increase representation and access of traditionally marginalized groups such as low castes and women. However, the transition of this increased representation into real power is bound to be a long journey, which must traverse and uneven, non-linear and rocky road.¹²

BEYOND RESERVATIONS

The reservation policy has been operative for the last sixty-five years. It is paradoxical as well as ironical that even after this long span of time it is difficult to come to a definitive conclusion about its success or failure. Its success would have led to a decision to phase it out. Its complete failure would have also compelled a drastic review. Neither of the two categorical options would appear to be warranted. Academic observers like Ashwini Deshpande lament on implementation without any effective monitoring and penalties for evasion. He goes on to say, "Just providing entry into jobs or educational institution is not sufficient. There have to be supplementary measure that needs to be mandatorily incorporated: remedial teaching, counselling, and other measures to lower the incidence of drop-outs; skill enhancing programmes and so forth: which would ensure that the benefits of entry into prestigious jobs and educational programmes are fully utilized".¹³ Nevertheless, the disquiet and discontent against reservations in the civil society specially against those for OBCs has been evident as reflected in anti-reservation violent protests in Bihar in the late 1970s against job reservations for OBCs; in Gujarat against admissions in technical education for all categories of backward classes in the mid-1980s; practically in all over North India in the wake of the implementation of the Mandal Commission Report in 1990 in Central Government Jobs; and in Uttar Pradesh in 1993 against job reservations for OBCs.

Some serious rethinking on the framework of the reservation regime for revisions, though not outright abolition, is also visible in a series of relevant Supreme Court Judgements, such for example as *Indra Sawhney Vs. Union of India* (1993), *M. Nagraj Vs. Union of India* (2006), *Ashok Kumar Thakur Vs. Union of India* (2008), and *Ram Singh Vs. Union of India* (2015), etc. *Indra Sawhney* (popularly known as the Mandal Judgement) first introduced the qualifying concept of the "creamy layer", which the Court ruled must be kept out of the purview of the benefits of reservations for OBCs. *Nagraj* reiterated the "creamy layer" formulation and went on to say "The state is bound to make reservation for SCs/STs in matter of promotions. However, if they wish to exercise their discretion and make such provision, the state has to collect quantifiable data showing backwardness of the class

and inadequacy of representation of that class in public employment in addition to compliance of Art 335” (This Article seeks to combine considerations of social justice with those of the efficiency of Civil Services). The court rules that “even if the State has compelling reasons,” it “will have to see that its reservation provision does not lead to excessiveness so as to breach the Ceiling limit of 50 per cent or obliterate the “creamy layer” to extend the reservation indefinitely”¹⁴. *Ashok Kumar Thakur* upheld 27 per cent reservation of seats for OBC students in institutions of higher learning but categorically reiterated that the “Creamy Layer” as well as private institutions should be excluded, and the government should also consider the desirability of fixing a cut-off marks for OBC candidates to balance reservation with other social interests and national integration as also to maintain excellence. In *Ram Singh* the court quashed the Union Governments notification granting OBC status to the Jats on the ground that (a) the impugned notification was passed the day before the announcement of the election schedule for the 2014 general election by the Election Commission of India, (b) the National Commission for Backward Classes (NCBC) had recommended against this demand, and (c) the government’s decision was not backed by compelling evidence. The court also admonished the government to be vigilant to discover emerging forms of backwardness instead of keeping in mind only historical injustice. Moreover, a running concern of the court in a series of judgements has been partial dissatisfaction and inaptness of caste as the soul criteria of determination of backwardness.

In a nutshell, judicial discourse needs to be matched by a more rational policy discourse which has come to be dominated by a recurrent attempt to grab reservation by considerations of power and electoral “vote bank” politics. The latest incident in this series of political agitations is the one recently (August-September, 2015) to have rocked Gujarat on the astounding demand for the inclusion of Patel’s/Patidars, who are among the most economically and politically powerful *nouveau riche* in state politics there, for inclusion in the list of OBC castes enjoying educational and job reservations. This caste is the mainstay of the BJP power in Gujarat that catapulted this party to a single-party majority in the Lok Sabha elections in 2014 under Narendra Modi after a gap of three decades since 1984 when Rajiv Gandhi won a landslide victory for Congress party and after the recurrent phenomenon of hung parliaments and coalitional governance since 1989. It is obvious in this backdrop that a greater concern for morality and law consistent with the spirit of the Constitution is called for.

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SOCIAL AUDIT OF FOURTEENTH FINANCE COMMISSION GRANTS IN JHARKHAND

Rajesh Kumar Sinha* and Srinivas Sajja**

Abstract

Social Audit Unit of Jharkhand conducted social audit of utilisation of Fourteenth Finance Commission (FFC) grants in 1500 Gram Panchayats (GPs) in the State. FFC grants are given to GPs for delivery of basic services such as water supply, sanitation, sewerage & solid waste management, drainage, maintenance of community assets, maintenance of roads, footpaths and street-lighting, burial and cremation grounds. Absence of records/ documents, irregularity in purchases/ inflated estimates, underpayment of wages, incomplete works, duplication of works, unnecessary works undertaken and lack of wall writing and information boards have been found as key deviations found in the social audit apart from GP specific deviations. This paper describes and analyses the process, achievements and challenges of social audit of FFC grants and makes recommendations to the Government of India and State Government of Jharkhand to further strengthen social audit, most of which may be applicable to social audit of utilisation of Fifteenth Finance Commission grants in coming years.

Keywords: Social Audit, XIV Finance Commission, Gram Panchayats, Jharkhand, Public Hearing

INTRODUCTION

Social Audit has emerged as an important social accountability tool which promotes transparency, participation, grievance redressal, consultation and accountability

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which together lead towards good governance. Fourteenth Finance Commission (FFC) has devolved an amount of Rs. 2,00,292.20 Cr. to Gram Panchayats (GPs) for the award period 2015-20. It is necessary that utilisation of such a huge amount of funds by GPs must be coupled with accountability mechanisms like social audit. Effective governance of FFC grants may bring changes in quality of lives in villages as these grants are to be utilised for delivery of core basic services such as water supply, sanitation, sewerage & solid waste management, drainage, maintenance of community assets, maintenance of roads, footpaths and street-lighting, burial and cremation grounds etc.

However, neither FFC nor the Ministry of Finance (MoF) has recommended social audit. Instead, the advisory for utilisation of 10% of the FFC grants as administrative component mentions social audit as one of the items on which this administrative component can be spent. The State Government of Jharkhand has taken a pioneering decision in the year 2017-18 to get social audit of FFC grants conducted in 1500 Gram Panchayats through Social Audit Unit (SAU) constituted under MGNREG Audit of Scheme Rules, 2011.

Scope of Social Audit of FFC Grants include planning and prioritization process for works, administrative and financial processes, participation and facilitation of Gram Sabhas, meetings and functioning of various committees, official records and stock maintenance, quality and utility of works executed, convergence with other programmes. Process of social audit can be divided into two phases: (i) Preparatory Phase which includes preparation of annual social audit calendar, selection of VRPs, training of VRPs, multi-stakeholder's workshop, zero-day meeting and formation of team; and (ii) Field Implementation Activities including entry point meeting at GP, verification of records, verification of works, verification of benefits/wages with households, report preparation, Gram Sabha, GP level public hearing, block and district level public hearing. Unit cost of social audit per GP is Rs. 12,997. Social audit of three GPs are conducted in one round utilizing 25 days of BRPs and 23 days of VRPs. Two VRPs and 1 BRP is responsible for conduct of social audit of FFC grants. Total 07 days are spent to conduct social audit activities at the GP level and it takes 15 days for block level hearing and 2-3 months for district level Hearing. Absence of records/ documents, irregularity in purchases/ inflated estimates, underpayment of wages, incomplete works, duplication of works, unnecessary works undertaken and lack of wall writing and information boards have been found as key deviations spread all over the State.

FOURTEENTH FINANCE COMMISSION GRANTS

FFC, for the award period 2015-20, has devolved an amount of Rs. 2,00,292.20 crores to GPs constituted under Part IX of the Constitution. Ninety percent of

these Grants are Basic Grants and 10 percent are Performance Grants (Govt. of India, 2015). Performance grants will be given to GPs who increase their own source revenue and get their accounts audited. The FFC grants are intended to be used for delivery of basic services including water supply, sanitation including septic management, sewerage and solid waste management, storm water drainage, maintenance of community assets, maintenance of roads, footpaths and street-lighting, burial and cremation grounds and any other basic services within the functions assigned to GPs under relevant legislations.

The FFC grants are released by MoF in two instalments, first in June and second in October. While the 50% of the basic grants for the year is released to the State as the first instalment of the year, the remaining basic grant and the full performance grant for the year is released as the second instalment for the year (Govt. of India, 2015). Grants received by States have to be transferred directly to the account of GPs within 15 working days. In case of delay, interest amount is to be paid to GP. Share of FFC basic and performance grants (in Rs. Cr.) for GPs in Jharkhand for the period of five years (FY 2015-16 to FY 2019-20) are as follows:

Table 1: Year-wise FFC Grants (In Crore Rupees) to Jharkhand

Type/FY	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	Total
Basic Grants	652.83	903.96	1044.45	1208.24	1632.59	5442.07
Performance Grants	118.57	134.18	152.38	199.53	604.67	1209.33
Total	771.4	1038.14	1196.83	1407.77	2237.26	6651.40

(Source: Fourteenth Finance Commission Report, 2015)

SOCIAL AUDIT

General definition of an audit is an evaluation of a person, organization, system, process, enterprise, project or product. The primary objective of an audit is to reveal defects or irregularities in any of the functions or activities examined and to indicate possible improvements so that organizational efficiency and effectiveness may improve. Sinha (2008) defined Social Audit as a process in which, details of the resources, both financial and non-financial, used by public agencies for development initiatives are shared with the people, often through a public platform such as the Gram Sabha in rural India. Social audits allow people to enforce accountability and transparency, providing the ultimate users an opportunity to scrutinise development initiatives. Broadly, this process of social audit involves the following components: (a) availability of information/ details of the resource, financial and non-financial, used by public agencies for development initiatives, (b) organising the ultimate users/ beneficiaries/ people and (c) scrutiny of the information by the end users/ primary stakeholders of that development initiative. Defining the

social audit in government settings, Social Audit Manual of the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD), Govt. of India (2015) has observed that social audit is an audit jointly conducted by the people. Further it says that social audit can be described as verification of the implementation of programmes/ schemes and its results by the community. The Manual clarifies that the social audit process goes beyond accounting for money that has been spent to examine whether the money was spent properly and has made a difference to people's lives. Recognising social Audit as a tool to enforce accountability, transparency and participation, in the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) 2005, Gram Sabha (GS) was authorised to conduct social audit of the all works taken up under the scheme in the GP area. In June 2011, the Ministry of Rural Development (MoRD) notified the Mahatma Gandhi National Employment Guarantee Audit of Scheme Rules specifying the process of social audit and responsibilities of social audit unit and other officials. In 2016 MoRD issued 'Auditing Standards of Social Audit' laying down detailed protocols to be followed in the conduct of independent and credible social audits.

SOCIAL AUDIT OF FFC GRANTS

As per MoF (2015) Guidelines, Comptroller and Auditor General (C&AG) may conduct audit of expenditure in selected Panchayats. FFC has recommended that stern action should be ensured in case of irregularities and third-party audit mechanism may be put in place by March, 2017. The mode and form of each of these accountability measures need to be spelt out clearly by States. Also, there should be a grievance redressal system available to citizens and GPs. MoF has issued guidelines for the utilization of FFC Grants. Under para 3 of the guidelines, up-to 10% of the allocation to GPs is allowed for meeting the technical and administrative support. Further, MoPR (2015) issued an advisory recognising cost of social audit as one of the 15 permissible activities that GPs can undertake using FFC grants towards operations & maintenance (O&M) and capital expenditure. Although the Government of India has permitted social audit as permissible O&M activities, there is no advisory to States to get social audit of FFC grants conducted.

In above context, Government of Jharkhand took decision to get social audit of FFC grants conducted in 1500 GPs through the Social Audit Unit set up for MGNREGA out to total 4398 GPs. A sample study of this social audit was conducted by the National Institute of Rural Development and Panchayati Raj (NIRD&PR).

STUDY METHODOLOGY

Study is based on quantitative as well as qualitative data collected from primary and secondary sources. Secondary sources on social audit of FFC in Jharkhand such as

guidelines, formats, executive instructions etc. were examined. In addition, data from the records of GPs, social audit resource persons and district administration were obtained. As part of primary sources, interviews of key Stakeholders like State Resource Persons (SRPs), District Resource Persons (DRPs), Block Resource Persons (BRPs) and Village Resource Persons (VRPs) of Social Audit Unit; Officials of Panchayati Raj Department and district administration; Mukhya and Secretaries of GPs; individual households with the help of interview schedule were conducted. In addition, FGDs with villagers were conducted. Five districts (01 each from each of the five Divisions) were selected randomly. From these selected districts, 01 GP per district was selected randomly from GPs where social audit had already been conducted. List of sample GPs is given below:

Table 2: Division Wise- List of Sample Districts, Blocks and GPs

<i>Sl. No.</i>	<i>Division</i>	<i>District</i>	<i>Block</i>	<i>GP</i>
1	North Chotanagpur	Hazaribagh	Vishnugarh	Govindpur
2	South Chotanagpur	Lohardagga	Senha	Bhargon
3	Palamu	Latehar	Barwadih	Ketchki
4	Santhal Pargana	Jamtara	Fatehpur	Palajori
5	Kolhan	Saraikela-Kharsawan	Saraikela	Sini

Average participation in the FGD was around 25 persons. Approximately 10 household interview schedules were administered in each of these 05 GPs. Interview schedules have been administered to 19 BRPs (universe 84) and 29 VRPs (universe 168).

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Process of Social Audit

Entire process of social audit of FFC grants in Jharkhand may be divided into two phases: (i) Preparatory Phase and (ii) Field Implementation Phase.

1.1 Preparatory Phase: Preparatory phase consists of following activities. The SAU prepares the social audit annual calendar for entire State at the beginning of financial year. The Social Audit Unit selects VRPs from primary stakeholders and training of VRPs on key aspects of FFC grants, social accountability, social audit and field level verification. SAU organises multi-stakeholder's workshops at the district level to explain the objective, process and different roles of various stakeholders in the conduct of social audit of FFC. In these workshops Mukhia (GP Chairperson) and Panchayat Sevak (GP Secretary) of selected GPs are invited to participate. Thereafter, SAU conducts zero-day meeting at district level before starting social audit at Gram Panchayat level. The in-charge

DRP of SAU conducts a brief orientation programme for VRPs and BRPs and forms teams. Resource persons in the GPs are deployed as per expenditure and number of works to be audited. Social audit team for FFC consists of 1 BRP and 2 VRPs for one GP.

- 1.2 Field Implementation Phase: After the preparatory activities are over, social audit teams leave for their respective assigned Gram Panchayats for actual conduct of social audit. During field implementation phase, following activities are undertaken. At GP level the social audit team meets the key persons of Gram Panchayat which includes Mukhiya (GP President), Secretary, Rojgar Sewak, Lady Women Supervisor, Anganwadi Worker, women SHG Members, Ward Members, traditional Gram Pradhan who is also ex-officio Chairperson of Gram Sabha and other important villagers. In the meeting, social audit team explains to them the purpose of conducting social audit, process of social audit and requests for their cooperation and support. Thereafter the Social Audit team conducts the verification of three aspects: documents, works/ Schemes and wages paid to the workers/ benefits to community. The team checks whether documents: work estimates, administrative sanctions, technical sanctions, measurement books, muster rolls, three phase photographs, Gram Sabha resolution copy, fund transfer orders, completion certificates pertaining to each work exist and are in order. Also they cross check information to rule out any inconsistencies. The social audit team visits worksites physically and takes the measurement and records the quantity and quality of works in social audit report. The team verifies and cross checks wages paid, details in bank account passbooks of all workers worked during social audit record period. Whether FFC works are providing benefits to the community is also assessed. After completion of all verifications the social audit teams collate all the findings and evidences and prepare a report. Thereafter a special Gram Sabha is convened by Block Development Officer (BDO) in consultation with the DRP. Social audit team members read out the report of the social audit point-wise and then open discussion is done and decisions on the findings of report are taken. Meeting of Gram Sabha is also used by social audit team to generate awareness. A decision taken report is prepared after the Gram Sabha. After all Gram Sabhas, social audit public hearing at the GP level is organised. Participation of GP elected representatives, GP functionaries, women's SHG representatives, women & marginalised groups and block level officials are ensured. Officials of all implementing agencies and line departments through whom projects under FFC grants have been carried out also remain present. On request of VRPs, representatives of suppliers and villagers who have raised any issue during the social audit exercise also attend. Public hearing of FFC grants is conducted after public hearing of MGNREGA. For public hearing of FFC

grants, a separate jury is constituted. Members of this jury include Member of Panchayat Samiti (intermediate panchayat) concerned, woman representative of SHG federation, a reputed social activist in case of non-scheduled areas/ a Gram Pradhan from GP area who has not been associated with implementation of FFC grants nominated with consensus in case of scheduled areas and the Mukhia (Chairperson) candidate who got the second highest vote in last GP election. To chair the public hearing at GP level, District Programme Coordinator (DPC) of MGNREGA deputes a block level officer. BRP presents findings of social audit and recommendations of Gram Sabha one by one. Every party to a decision taken by Gram Sabha puts forward its case before the jury and action to be taken is decided taking into account relevant laws, rules and procedures. A decision taken format is provided beforehand for recording decisions. After public hearings in all GPs in a block is completed, a block level public hearing is organised within fifteen days in which review of action taken on the decisions of GP level hearings is done. FFC functionaries of all GPs of the block, BDO, DPRO, Mukhias and Secretaries of all GPs, jury members of GP level public hearing, block level officer of all implementing agencies, VRPs, BRPs, complainants, media, DPC or nominee attend the block level public hearing. One by one, GP Secretaries present action taken report on decisions of GP level hearings. Complainants and social audit team members may register their objections if any. Taking into account all the facts, jury panel takes final decision. Such decisions are corrective, disciplinary or punitive. Once in a year, a district level hearing is organised in which action taken on decisions made in block level hearings are reviewed.

Cost of Social Audit

Unit cost of social audit per GP is Rs. 12997. However, the SAU feels that conducting social audit along with MGNREGA has made it possible to keep the cost low. This cost is borne by GP from administrative component of FFC grants. Immediately after the social audit is over, the SAU represented by DRP/BRP collects a cheque from the GP.

Time Taken to Conduct Social Audit

Social audit of three GPs are conducted in one round utilising total 25 days of BRPs and 23 days of VRPs. Preparatory activities take 2 days. Total 7 days are spent to conduct GP level social audit activities in one GP level. GP level public hearing is held on the 7th day. It was found that 79% BRPs and 93% of VRPs of social audit resource persons feel that time given for conduct of social audit is sufficient.

Key Deviations in Utilisation of FFC Grants

In the initial phase of implementation of FFC grants in the State, following deviations took place.

- (i) **Absence of Records/ Documents:** In some GPs physical register with list of all purchased items are not available. Items such as chairs, tables, almirahs have been purchased in most of the GPs using FFC grants. But in many GPs it is found that they are not numbered and recorded in the physical register of the GP. In many GPs, bills, vouchers related to expenditure incurred are not found in the registers.
- (ii) **Irregularity in Purchases such as Inflated Estimates/ Bills:** Price paid for items purchased is much higher than the prevalent market rates. In most of the GPs, Kraya Samiti (Purchase Committee) has not been constituted. Water tankers have been purchased by many GPs. These are leased out to households for their use during wedding or any other occasion. However, rate for leasing them out has not been fixed. Payments made to contractor for works such as deep boring etc. are much higher than the market rate. During initial few months, many GPs have purchased solar street lights at a rate much higher than the Jharkhand Renewable Energy Development Agency (JAREDA) rate.
- (iii) **Underpayment of Wages:** Labourers working at works taken up under FFC have been paid less than the prescribed daily wage rate. Under FFC daily wage rate of Rs. 221 is prescribed whereas implementing agency has paid 200 or 150 in several GPs.
- (iv) **Incomplete Works:** Works which have been shown as closed and payments have been made are still incomplete. In some cases, works less than the sanctioned length/width has been done and shown as having been done as per sanctioned estimates.
- (v) **Duplication of Works:** PCC road which have been constructed under FFC grants have also been shown under MGNREGA. Similarly, drainage facilities created under MGNREGA and Thirteenth Finance Commission (TFC) grants in the past have been shown as to have been done under FFC.
- (vi) **Unnecessary Works:** Works which are not necessary have been undertaken. For example, to supply water to GP building a deep boring has been constructed in one GP visited by the study team while there is already a mini water tank with boring only about 25 meters away from the office building. For beautification of GP office building, many GPs have purchased expensive chairs, tables, carpets, curtains etc. Many repair and maintenance works such as repair of GP building, repair of hand pumps, repair of borings, cleaning of drainage etc. have been undertaken which were not required at all.

(vii) Lack of Wall Writing and Information Boards: Unlike MGNREGA, wall writings of fund received and spent and works executed under FFC grants is not there in most of GP office building. Similarly, at majority of worksite, information boards have not been found.

Awareness of FFC Grants and Social Audit of FFC Grants

FFC grant is known as Mukhia fund in Jharkhand by common villagers. Most household respondents were unable to tell about FFC grant initially. However once asked by the name Mukhia Fund they were able to recall 2-3 works undertaken using FFC grants. Finding of household survey suggests that there is high awareness among villagers about the FFC/ Mukhia fund. There is high awareness among villagers about the social audit of FFC grants conducted in the past. Also, there is high recall among people of social audit Gram Sabha and GP level public hearing for social audit of FFC grants. However, only 56% of household respondents have accepted that they were contacted by social audit team members.

People's Participation in the Social Audit

Only half of the household respondents had participated in social audit Gram Sabha. Approximately 70% household respondents had participated in GP level public hearing. Approximately 68% of BRPs and 90% of VRPs have found people's participation in social audit Gram Sabha adequate. While the participation of FGD respondents in Gram Sabha in 04 sample GPs other than Sini GP was high and their participation in GP level public hearing was very high, in case of Sini GP in Saraikela district, participation in Gram Sabha and also in public hearing was low. Willingness to participate is quite high among villagers.

Participation of Jury Members in Public Hearings:

Responses of BRPs and VRPs suggests that high number of jury members attended GP level public hearings, while participation of jury members in Block hearings were moderate and that for district hearing was poor. Total 84% of jury members participated in GP hearings, 68% participated in block hearings and only 42% participated in district hearings as responded by BRPs.

Cooperation from Gram Panchayats and Administration:

High percentage of social audit resource persons have responded that they receive adequate information and in time from the GP and Block administration which is a good sign. However, delay in making records available is one of the most important challenges of social audit of FFC grants in Jharkhand. A few resource persons also conveyed that GP and Block administration does not cooperate if they need even

small help such as photocopying of important documents, locating worksites etc. Approximately 37% of BRPs and 38% of VRPs have faced resistance from GPs. Resource persons have expressed lesser resistance from district administration.

Usefulness of Social Audit

Social audit of FFC grants has helped the Department of Panchayati Raj in knowing the kind of schemes/works the GPs are taking up. It has brought to the notice of the Department issues of misappropriation of funds by GP Secretaries as well as Mukhias of GPs. Social audit has provided insights to the Department as to what other Government Orders and guidelines need to be framed and notified for better utilization of FFC grants. All the five Mukhias (GP Chairpersons) of sample GPs have found the social audit exercise useful. When probed further they explained that because of social audit transparency and accountability has enhanced, record keeping has improved, people are more aware of the works, quality of works have improved, implementing agency realises its faults and rectifies them and GP Secretaries are better aware of provisions of relevant Acts and Rules than earlier. Mukhias and Secretaries accepted that they have learnt about the various rules and procedures of FFC implementation from the BRPs and VRPs. Most of the participants of FGDs conducted in sample GPs communicated benefits of social audit. These include transparency about funds received and spent under FFC grants, information about how works are to be executed particularly technical aspects of it. Social audit has led to correct wage payments to wage seekers. Ninety percent of household respondents have found the social audit useful and 87% household respondents would like to participate in the social audit process again.

CHALLENGES IN SOCIAL AUDIT OF FFC GRANTS

Absence of rules for actions to be taken on the decisions of jury in GP and Block level hearings is a bottleneck and the Department of Panchayati Raj needs to frame such rules/guidelines sooner than later. Scheduling of GP level public hearing with simultaneous hearings in more than one GP makes it difficult for district and block administration to depute Junior Engineer (JE) and other concerned officials to GP level hearing. Mukhias felt that conducting social audit after a long gap leads to difficulty in physical verification of works. Secretary, Junior Engineer concerned who have approved and supervised the works undertaken are sometimes transferred before the social audit and the new officers are clueless and unable to answer queries raised during the public hearings. Non-availability of records or delay in making records available to the social audit team is the most important challenge faced by DRPs/BRPs/VRPs. This coupled with the lack of MIS for FFC makes it difficult to access necessary information for conduct social audit. Social

audit resource persons also face non-cooperation from block administration. In Jharkhand, middle men (brokers) are also very active in villages and they connive with contractors and beneficiaries and influence people for not presenting the correct picture or retract from their earlier statements. Social audit team has to be dependent on GP for many things including their stay. At times female resource persons find it difficult to stay in the GP as in some places there are no separate toilets and also at times they feel insecure. Lack of a contingency fund and medical emergency fund is also affecting the morale of resource persons.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Recommendations for Government of India: At the national level, a legal framework for social audit of FFC grants may be created on the pattern of MGNREG. Either social audit may be recognised as third party audit recommended by the FFC (now Fifteenth Finance Commission) or findings of social audit may feed into third party audit. Followed by such notification a detailed guidelines (draft of which is already prepared by NIRDPR, Hyderabad) may be jointly issued by the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Panchayati Raj, GoI. Ministry of Panchayati Raj, Govt. of India should also prepare and operationalise an MIS for FFC grants utilisations. Such MIS may have all the relevant information with regard of FFC grants (GP wise number of works, completion status of works, expenditure incurred, Govt. orders, minutes of meetings, sanction orders, release orders, social audit reports etc.) available in public domain and accessible to all. ATR of last round of social audit may also be uploaded on the MIS. Reports from such MIS would be highly useful for the social audit team and also for those villagers who are competent to understand and analyse that.
2. Recommendations for Government of Jharkhand: It is suggested to strengthen the legal basis of social audit by enacting a law through State legislature. Andhra Pradesh and Meghalaya has done so. To enhance autonomy of the SAU, it is suggested that a separate Society for Social Audit in the State may be created with Director, Social Audit as the executive head of the organisation. A longer duration contract (3 to 5 years) may be given to the Director and also social audit resource persons with annual performance assessment. State Government has to notify rules and procedures for follow up actions on the findings of social audit. There should be prescribed norm for imposing fine/penalty for deviations, ways to recover the imposed fine/penalty and an account at the district level for the same. State may also establish a Vigilance Cell within the Department of Panchayati Raj where all ATRs from the district level hearings may be sent for review of actions taken. A few Mukhias have pointed out of

the misuse of authority be social audit team. It is learnt that SAU has its own mechanisms to address the deviant actions by any social audit team members. However, it is advised that an external monitoring team at the district level may be constituted for regular monitoring of social audit exercise and to provide feedback to the SAU for taking corrective measures. In addition, on yearly or biannual basis, an independent sample study of social audit of FFC in the State may be conducted by reputed institutions such as IRMA, TISS, IIPA and NIRD&PR. FFC grants is known as Mukhia fund which undermines the plural nature of the GP and discourages Ward Members. Hence it is advised that State Government should make it mandatory for GPs to share information about FFC grants and works through wall writing and information boards. Similarly Vigilance and Monitoring Committees must also be activated. State Government may also have regular meetings with the Deputy Commissioners, Deputy Development Commissioners and BPROs for review of the follow up actions on findings of social audit. Such follow up actions must also be reported back to the Gram Sabha of respective villages/ GPs through the BRPs/VRPs. It is also suggested that joint meetings of SAU representatives, selected Mukhias/Secretaries and administration be organised at the Divisional level to understand the difficulties being faced by social audit resource persons and GPs in conducting social audit of FFC and how can those difficulties be reduced/mitigated. Funding for social audit exercise in the State may be enhanced and regularised. State Government may also work out a mechanism to get the social audit fee collected from GP through official channel rather than making the SAU itself collect it. Adequate security may be provided to resource persons during the social audit exercise and any person obstructing their work, threatening them or indulging in violence against them must get exemplary punishment. While existing capacities of social audit resource persons is good enough, a more intensive training on technical aspects of works such as understanding technical estimates, knowing technical cost norms, correct measurement of works, correct assessment of quality of works be provided from retired civil and mechanical engineers. GP level public hearing in one block may be held at different dates/ different time enabling the JE and BPRO to attend the hearing. Any changes in formats of social audit should be shared with the district and block administration well in time. Social audit of all works may be conducted within six months of completion of works. At least one week before the visit of Social Audit team, reminder information may be sent to GP so that they keep records ready and officials remain available in the GP. Social audit should not be done during the peak agricultural season as during sowing and reaping time, people do not attend Gram Sabha. Three months prior to social audit no transfer of GP Secretary, GP accountant be allowed. To enable DRPs/BRPs/VRPs facilitate conduct of social audit of FFC grants efficiently and effectively,

GP records, cash book and registers must be provided at the time of entry point meeting in the GP or latest by second day of social audit. Provision of adequate number of trained resource persons, timely payment of honorarium, provision for conveyance (bike) or conveyance allowance for travel within the GP, advance contingency fund with the DRPs and BRPs, reimbursement of medical expenses in case of medical emergency or accidents, provision of adequate stationery, adequate security and safety arrangements are some of the suggestions which will keep the morale and spirit of social audit resource persons high who are working against all odds. Resource persons should be provided with an identity card issued by State Government. Their duties may also be clearly defined in job chart.

CONCLUSION

Social Audit of FFC grants undertaken in 1500 GPs have revealed several deviations. Awareness and people's participation is quite high. Social Audit has been found useful by all the Stakeholders. However, Social Audit resource persons are facing many challenges including resistance from GP and lack of adequate facilities. If Central Government and State Governments take suggested measures, social audit of utilisation of FFC and also Fifteenth Finance Commission grants can be further strengthened.

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INTERGOVERNMENTAL INTERACTIONS IN THE INDIAN FEDERAL STRUCTURE

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Abstract

The paper seeks to review intergovernmental interactions in Indian federation. In India, the working of union-state coordination reveals that informality is still the norm. Intergovernmental interactions have been a rather feeble facet of Indian federalism in absolute as well as relative terms. Many observers in India have found the systems of intergovernmental interactions to be either rarely used or excessively controlled by the central government. In India there are both formal and informal—mostly latter—interactions between the executives of the various dominions that encompass the federation. However, there is no formal cooperation between legislatures.

Keywords: Executive, Federalism, Intergovernmental interactions, Legislature, Union-State coordination

Union-state coordination has been significantly facilitated by two aspects of Indian political system - firstly, a detailed provision in the constitution in itself in matters relating to fiscal federalism to harmonize union-state relations. However, these matters are subject to detailed negotiation between different orders in other federations like Canada. Secondly, legacy of an established administrative procedures for centre-state relations emanating from the British Raj as well as from the early decades of One-Party Dominance after independence. (The Seventh Schedule meticulously provides for allocation, collection and sharing of tax revenues between the union and states.) Besides, under Article 275 of the constitution, there is a periodic review of this arrangement by an autonomous body

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largely consisting of experts called the Finance Commission set up under Article 280 of the Constitution. These are constitutionally mandated federal transfers to the states. There are no strings attached to them and they are non-conditional grants (Saxena, 2006).

In addition, under 282 of the Constitution, there is a provision for discretionary funds transferred to states on the recommendations of non-statutory planning commission set up in 1950 for advising the centre in these matters. Both these bodies were/are unilaterally appointed by the union government but the difference is that Finance Commission is constitutionally entrenched whereas the Planning Commission was (abolished by the Modi government in 2014) a creation of union cabinet, even though it was mostly a body of experts. Presumably due to this reason, the Finance Commission recommendations were considered to be more impartial, objective and carried greater legitimacy than the Planning Commission.

The Sarkaria Commission (1987-88) in its Report recommended to make Finance Commission a permanent body and Planning Commission a constitutional body. Many observers like Kabra (1996) had argued to federate the Planning Commission. Similarly, there were arguments for and against a permanent Finance Commission. Experts argue that on one hand, there has to be an agenda for new and original thinking by every Finance Commission; on the other hand, it is essential to safeguard comprehensive steadiness between Finance Commissions to ensure some degree of assurance in the flow of funds, especially to the states (Das 2019). In this background, the Finance Commissions are a vital part of India's constitution. They permit constant revitalization in how the federal government deals with federal financial questions. The fiscal relations, challenges and situation are highly volatile and so are the national development issues. Hence according to the periodically changing governments representing popular mandate should rightly face a new set of questions with a freshly recruited talent. A permanent commission would become another wing of the permanent bureaucracy which is becoming a source of obduracy and poor responsiveness. (Kabra 2020).

Therefore, making a permanent Finance Commission with a specific set of rules may impede this endeavour. It could strictly weaken the dynamism of federal structure of India. However, the NCRWC (2000) and M.M Punchhi Commissions (2010) also reiterated the same suggestions in their reports. The Fourteenth Finance Commission Report (2015-2020) surpassed the earlier Finance Commission in offering a large increase in the States' share vis-a-vis the Union's in the divisible pool of the national revenue from 32 per cent under the previous dispensation to 42 per cent for the next five years. The Commission also recommended compensation to States for losses due to the forthcoming GST reforms by an autonomous GST Council Fund for five years, besides other reforms. (Report: 2019). However, fiscal experts are critical that the actual increase was much less by nearly 3% as it included

other discretionary plan and non-plan grants received by the states initially. Thus, it was not noticeably profitable for the states (Venu: 2019). Around the same time, the Fifteenth Finance Commission indicated in its Terms of Reference to base its proposals on the 2011 Census population data. This instantly was opposed by states who had accomplished better in terms of population growth control as compared to the other states and saw it as a reprimand for performing. According to Ashish Bose (2000), southern States in India may have to submit over a dozen Lok Sabha seats to the North Indian States if delimitation of Lok Sabha constituencies is done then. Owing to this representational disparity, MPs in a few constituencies represent voters some times bigger than those in slightly populous States. If this anomaly was not corrected pragmatically, it may become a major federal issue of conflict in the future when the delimitation of Lok Sabha constituencies currently frozen until 2026.

The Fifteenth Finance Commission recommendations deserve a significant mention here. Amongst the recommendations, the vertical devolution from centre to state has been reduced from 42% to 41% thus, there would be decline in share of tax revenue that centre shares with the state. All southern states except Tamil Nadu, have their share fallen. Karnataka will be losing the most among others. States which have their fertility rates below the replacement level find their shares increased. They mainly include Maharashtra, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab and Tamil Nadu. However, despite the low fertility rates, the shares of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Karnataka and West Bengal have fallen. The changes in the tax sharing formula accrue to inclusion of demographic performance, forest cover and tax efforts as parameters; to arrive at the states' share in the divisible pool of taxes.

Further, in the current decades, the construction of fiscal federalism and policy paradigm in India have experienced a noteworthy change. In 2005, the general sales tax laws were substituted with value added taxes (VAT) under the VAT Act, 2005 and rules and regulations thereunder. The usually applicable VAT rate was between 12.5 to 14.5 per cent and service tax and cess at the rate of six per cent (i.e., 15 per cent on 40 per cent abated value of food). The goods and services tax (GST), pending for long for lack of consensus among the Union and States, finally got instituted in 2017. This was welcomed as a momentous indirect taxation reform since India's Independence wherein all the VATs and cesses came to be subsumed under the comprehensive GST regime, comprising the Central GST, State GST, and integrated GST. The total amount of indirect tax in the form of GST for any sale/manufacture of goods and rendering of services is proportionally distributed between both Central and State exchequers. The GST Council has included over 1300 goods and 500 services under four tax slabs of 5 per cent, 12 per cent, 18 per cent, and 28 per cent under GST.

A GST Council is constituted under Article 279A of the Constitution by the President of India comprising the Union Finance Minister as the chair and the

Union Minister of State in charge of revenue or finance and the Minister in charge of finance or taxation or any other Minister nominated by each State government as members. The quorum for its meetings is set at one-half of the total number of members. Its decisions must be backed by a majority of not less than three-fourths of weighted votes of the members present and voting in agreement with the following principles:

1. The vote of the Central government shall count for the weightage of one-third of the total votes cast, and
2. The votes of all the State governments taken together shall have a weightage of the two-thirds of the total votes cast (Article 279A, clause 9). Thus, any block with 25 per cent plus (say, 26 per cent or more) votes can block a proposal. The Center alone has one-third voting strength. It virtually amounts to a veto power.

Specialists argue that the GST would help businessmen to do business in India with ease. Further, it would also enlarge the revenues of governments. However, for the consumers, goods would become cheaper, and services, including education and health-care, expensive. The issue is that the inclusion of petroleum products, electricity, real estate and alcohol in the list of exemptions creates a limitation in the scope of the common national market. Besides, a general Trade and Commerce Commission visualized by the founding members of the Constitution has remained a faraway dream.

When Planning started in India, National Development Council (NDC) was set up by a Cabinet Resolution for clearance of Five-Year Plans by State Governments prepared by centrally appointed Planning Commission. Instead of creating it under Article 263, the Nehru government established it by a Cabinet Resolution to make it more amenable for the Centre to manage intergovernmental economic relations. Though the importance of Planning was reduced with growing privatization and globalization, yet the NDC and Planning Commission remained active as public investment instruments and their influence continued to be considerable. Moreover, Planning commission found a new role for itself as a government think tank coordinating economic transition and relationships between government and private sector both national and multinational. However, it was abolished in 2014.

The past tradition of informal intergovernmental forums set up on initiative of the union has stood India in good stead. In addition to NDC, many national councils, and advisory boards have existed in all sectors of policy areas in the past. For instance, Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) chaired by the HRD minister comprising state education ministers, secretaries as well as leading educationists, media, cultural personalities and so on, for example, AICTE, SEBI, NGT etc. (Singh and Saxena 2015). All India council of technical education (AICTE) was established in 1948 as an advisory body to support the central government in

the area of Technical Education at The Post-Secondary Level. This body was made a statutory one under an Act of Parliament in 1988. This is a Central Agency but It has important effects for states also.

Likewise, there are other mechanisms in the area of health for harmonizing union-state relations set up by a cabinet resolution - an executive decision.

All this Explains why Article 263 providing for setting up of an Inter State Council (ISC) was left unused until 1990. Partly because there were functional substitutes for the ISC and partly because Union government thought informal bodies would be more flexible than formal constitutional forum of ISC (Saxena 2006). Further, in one-party dominance phase, intergovernmental conflicts were resolved across party table at Congress party forums like Congress Parliamentary Board, Congress Working Committee, etc. In addition, Prime Minister Nehru used to write fortnightly letters to chief ministers to elicit their opinion on different policy matters.

Furthermore, NDC was constituted in more salient area of fiscal federalism. Though Sarkaria Commission did recommend for constituting the ISC but at the same time, it also suggested for continuation of the NDC as a separate body This meant a more active NDC in more significant area of economic federalism than the ISC in the political domain. With the transformation of party system from one-party dominance to multi-party system, the ISC was finally set up In 1990 when the Janata Dal-led National Front government headed by V. P Singh came to power in 1989. Ironically, it remained inactive. Till date, only twelve meetings of the ISC have taken place.

What explains the monumental failure of ISC to emerge as an important intergovernmental forum? In the multi-party coalition phase, the union Cabinet that represented several regional parties itself became a federal forum to air the grievances of some state governments represented therein. But coalitions are short-lived. Herein lies the importance of the ISC as a continuous forum. The National Commission to Review the working of the Constitution (2000) and the Punchhi Commission (2010) also recommended for activation of ISC in the true spirit of cooperative federalism but these ideas remained at the level of rhetoric.

The reappearance of the one-party majority government at the national level since 2014 has compelled the consolidation of inter-governmental forums for the congruent functioning of the federal structure in India . In this background, there is a huge necessity to give the “ power to institutions like ISC and make them more interactive, inclusive, transparent and accountable. The ISC can work as an effective forum of cooperative federalism” (Saxena, 2016).

After the elimination of the Planning Commission and the NDC in 2014/2015, the BJP-led NDA government under premiership of Narendra Modi replaced them with the NITI Aayog and its Governing Council. Evaluating the influence of the

Planning Commission on center-state relations in India, Swenden and Saxena contend that the Planning Commission had a centralizing effect in executing its role of administration of five year and annual planning and its involvement in scheming and managing Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS), and its contribution in discretionary grant-making. The policy priorities of central government and inter-state deviations averted the Planning Commission from becoming a shared rule institution, capable in countering the centralizing insinuations (Swenden and Saxena 2017).

In this regard, the foremost structural reforms is conversion of Planning commission to NITI Aayog (National Institution for Transforming India), a policy think-tank set up by cabinet resolution. The NITI comprises a civil servant as the Chief Executive Officer, two full-time experts (an economist and a defence research and development expert), six union ministers (three ex-officio and three special invitees), free market economist Arvind Panagariya as deputy chair and the Prime Minister as the chair. The NITI resolves to innovate a 'national agenda' for the Prime Minister and the Chief Ministers to encourage 'cooperative federalism.' The Governing Council of the NITI contains all the Chief Ministers of the states and Lieutenant Governors of the union territories with the Prime Minister again as chair).

The NITI as well as its Governing Council is consigned to a extra amount of informality "as ad hoc deliberative bodies activated by referring a matter to it rather than a regular channel of advice for policy making in the government ". Singh and others argue "thus NITI a far cry from Nehru's Planning Commission and the NDC which was brought into existence for offering guidelines for five-year plans and approval of draft five-year plans." (Singh, Saxena and Bhardwaj 2015).

But NITI is different from the Planning Commission as it has constituted Regional Councils "to address specific contingencies impacting more than one state or a region," convened and chaired by the PM but made up [of a group of] Chief Ministers of the State. (Cabinet resolution January 1, 2015.).

In the first meeting of NITI's Governing Council in February 2015, it set up three such Regional Councils focusing on the rearrangement of CSS (as reported above), skills development and the Swach Bharat Abiyan or the Clean India Mission. It also constituted smaller task forces mainly of the senior civil service with the association of consultants to deliberate on poverty elimination and agricultural development. (*NITI Brief 1. Accessible via www.niti.gov.in accessed on April 2015*). These structural variations in the composition of the NITI were considered as a welcome step by many experts as in their opinion, this would perhaps give a bigger participation of the states at an initial phase in the policy cycle. (*Interview with Indira Rajaraman, March 9, 2015; with Amitabh Pande, March 16, 2015*).

However, Swenden believes that with regard to operating with the states in Team India, and nurturing 'competitive cooperative federalism', the input of the NITI is variegated. The NITI in terms of its organizational structure is a central political institution incorporated under the authority of the prime minister, who is its chairperson. The other members comprise a CEO with the rank of secretary, a vice chairperson appointed by the PM, three fulltime members, four ex-officio members and three special invitees (all belonging to the central ministers). A member of the NITI Aayog stressed that since the NITI reports to the PM, it is rational for the PM to select who will suit to be its members and to lay down its agenda. (Swenden 2019).

Besides, other political mechanisms for union state coordination are sporadic informal conferences of officials, Ministers and finally Prime/Chief Ministers from the two levels of the governments. These conferences are more recurrent than the meetings of NDC and ISC. Additional set of constitutional intergovernmental forums are Zonal Councils which are to a great extent non-functional, except the North-Eastern Zonal Council (NEZC). This is seemingly since the NEZC is entrenched in an region that is maybe the only political region in the country in geographical seclusion and economic interdependence than any other macro-region, e.g. Northwest, Hindi-heartland, South India, etc. The immensity of the nitty-gritty of intergovernmental negotiations and decisions are carried out by informal negotiations.

Yet another area of inter-state dispute has been Inter-State River Water issue. The Parliament passed The Inter-State River Disputes Act was passed by the Parliament in 1956. This Act provides for transfer of such disputes to a tribunal on the request of a State government and the contentment of the Union government that the dispute in question cannot be resolved by administrative or political negotiation. Five such tribunals have been set up so far - Narmada, Krishna, Godavari, Kaveri and Sutlej-Yamuna. Tribunals have also often transferred the matter to a commission chaired by a retired Supreme Court judge. In case both the tribunal and the commission are unsuccessful, lastly the matter go to the Supreme Court. So far Water disputes have been more or less amicably resolved barring the differences relating to Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan, and Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. Though, during drought, the Kaveri dispute has often found the States of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka at odds. The issue was provisionally resolved by the Supreme Court's intervention after the failure of political negotiations. In 2004, the Punjab Congress government turned the heat on the sharing of water from Ravi-Beas-Sutlej and Yamuna by terminating Inter-State agreements between riparian States signed in 1981, 1985 and 1994 by a unanimous resolution of the State Legislature. Recently, an all-party meeting was convened by Amarinder Singh demanding the centre to reassess the availability of water in the state and ensure that Punjab waters are not in any way

transferred from basin to non-basin areas of state's three rivers. They also demanded an amendment to inter-state river water disputes act to set up a tribunal for this purpose. Cauvery tribunal award was presented in 2007 however, both Karnataka and Tamil Nadu continued voicing dissatisfaction, the former more than the latter. The Supreme Court delivered its verdict on Cauvery water dispute on 16 February 2018, allocating more water to the State of Karnataka. The final allocation for a total of 740 TMC is: Karnataka 284.75 TMC and Tamil Nadu 404.25 TMC.

There was a proposal for interlinking all major rivers of India by the NDA government of the then Prime Minister, Atal Bihari Vajpayee which was supported by the UPA regime of the then Prime Minister, Manmohan Singh. The proponents of the project, including NDA Prime Minister, Narendra Modi, argued that it will avoid the paradoxical occurrence of flood and drought simultaneously in various parts of the country by a rational distribution of water resources of the country. The ecologists, however, argue that it will disturb the ecological balance and bring natural calamities in its trail as well as intensify Inter-State disputes and societal conflicts. The project still awaits implementation.

The last way of federal dispute settlement under the Constitution is, of course, the Supreme Court of India under its original jurisdiction (Article 131) and advisory jurisdiction (Article 143). The ruling of the Court has often put greater emphasis on public investment, distributive justice and the planning process, even though the new liberal economic reforms are not likely to be reversed by available indications.

The Interstate River Water Dispute (Amendment) Bill, 2019 was passed by the Lok Sabha on 31 July 2019 to expedite the resolution of long-drawn inter-state water disputes. It would create a single central tribunal instead of several prevailing ones. However, there are concerns that the proposed bill would lead to centralization with regard to appointment of tribunals by the central government advisory. In place of chief justice, it would now be central government making such appointments through a selectin committee comprising prime minister, chief justice, minister of law and justice and Water resources. It is yet to become an Act.

So the reality of union-state coordination suggests that informality is still the norm. Intergovernmental interactions have been a somewhat weak aspect of Indian federalism in unqualified as well as relative terms. Many spectators have found the forms of intergovernmental interactions to be either rarely used or excessively controlled by the Center. Unlike Canada, the Indian panorama seems to be largely informal and un-routinised excepting the constitutionalized Finance Commission, GST Council, unified electoral, and judicial aspects.

As discussed above, in India there are both formal and informal—mostly latter—interactions between the executives of the various dominions that encompass the federation. However, there is no formal cooperation between legislatures. The

only informal inter-legislative medium is occasional conferences of Speakers or Presiding Officers of the legislatures to deliberate upon the issues encountering these institutions and share their experiences in quest of answers. Nevertheless, there are informal conferences of the Secretaries of the government of India and State governments which are most recurrent proceedings where the actual quintessence of intergovernmental interactions are worked out for endorsement by the political class.

CONCLUSION

Indian federalism is at a crossroads. It is the dialectics of competition and collaboration that will explain the course of federalism in India. Though, battle among the states and between the Centre and states has augmented in the era of globalization. The tasks modeled by globalization in diverse regions such as security, social sector, foreign relations necessitate additional collaboration between different tiers of governments. Cooperation at both vertical and horizontal levels is the promise of a federal system.

Such a partnership becomes crucial to meet security threats. These worries may be professed by natural disasters like the COVID-19 Pandemic. It's essential that within the constitutional division of functions and accountability, all the levels of government exert in close harmonization with each other in the spirit of cooperative federalism.

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CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF FDI AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN ETHIOPIA

Manoj Kumar Mishra*

Abstract

Investment is the prime driver of economic growth and development of any country. Foreign direct investment serves as a strong mechanism for the encouragement and spread of business opportunities in developing and industrialized economies thereby enhancing economic development in developing countries. It has been argued in numerous studies that FDI contributes positively to economic development in the host economies. As such, the present study analyzes the impact of FDI on economic growth of Ethiopia. This study is based on secondary data related to investment, FDI, GDP etc. The examination has been done for the period from 1992 to 2019. Data used in the study shows correlation between GDP growth rate, FDI and GCF. GDP growth fluctuates over the time considered, with most noticeable changes in 1985 due to major drought and famine and early 1990s due to civil war in 1990s. It further reveals that there is systematic correlation between GCF and GDP growth before 1991. The present study suggests that the higher the FDI the greater is the economic growth in Ethiopia with more focus on infrastructural development.

Keywords: Economic Growth, FDI, Agriculture, Industry, Service sector, Infrastructure, Ethiopia

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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Foreign direct investment is one of the key economic features of the globalization. In the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development's (UNCTAD) World Investment Report 2014, foreign direct investment (FDI) projects globally could increase to 1.7 trillion USD in 2015 and 1.8 trillion USD in 2016. In 2013, 54 percent (778 USD billion) of the total global FDI flow went to developing countries: Although the developing countries in Asia have been the region of FDI inflow, yet Africa saw a more than four percent increase in FDI inflow. Many developing countries, like Ethiopia, are now actively seeking for promoting FDI by creating a favorable environment for it. Some of the measures taken by these countries include economic and political reforms aiming at macroeconomic and political stability, investment in infrastructure and human capital and liberalization of trade (Haile and Assefa 2006)). Ethiopia carried out major economic reforms in 1992. The country introduced and increased ingenuousness by undertaking trade liberalization and promoting the inflow of FDI. The government's policies play a significant role in determining economic development and FDI inflow in Ethiopia. FDI in Ethiopia has a positive and significant impact on economic growth, but such gains differ across primary, manufacturing, and services sectors.

Problem Statement

The crucial role of FDI in terms of enhancing capital formation, spillover effects, competition, linkage, technology transfer, and thereby curing development problems has led to the development of several theoretical and empirical literature studies. Ethiopia has inadequate infrastructures to attract foreign direct investors. Also, there has not been clear policies and strategies and other incentives like tax incentives, credit facilities and other economic incentives for FDI.

Objectives

The major objective of the study is to analyze the impact of FDI on economic growth of Ethiopia. Under this main objective, the specific points of enquiries are: the development effects of FDI, the trends of FDI and factors leading to attract FDI investors to Ethiopian economy.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The FDI plays an important role for economic growth of one country (Geda (2005)). However, in 1975 the Ethiopian regime had nationalized major industries.

This step scared the foreign private investors with adverse impact on the country's economy (UNCTAD: 2002)). In addition, the problem of political instability, insecurity and the nationalization of major industrialization severely discourage FDI inflow in to the country in these periods. Realizing the importance of FDI, in 1983, Derg attempted the Joint Venture Proclamation (JVP). In the post-1991 period when the Ethiopian People Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) came into power, things changed a lot. In contrast to the previous policy regime of hard and command control, EPRDF initiated a wide range of reforms that covered the exchange rate, interest rates, liberalization of trade, domestic production and distribution, devaluation of currency, eliminating structural distortion, improving the country's human capital and infrastructure as well as poverty reduction. The main objectives of the government were increasing the role of the private sector in the economy and the privatization program was started in February in 1994. Since then, Ethiopian Privatization Agency (EPA) has become the lead agency in carrying out the process of privatization of public enterprises. One of the objectives of the EPA is to promote the country's economy development through encouraging the expansion of the private sector and the transferring of the state owned enterprises to the private ownership. According to Privatization and Public Enterprises Supervising Authority (PPESA) report, 14 enterprises were privatized in 2007 in sector such as tourism, mining industry and agro-industry by bringing the total number of public enterprises privatized to 247. The promotion of small and micro finance enterprises is also critical to private sector development. The government has been providing support to such enterprises in several areas such as training, business skill, development, micro credit and information and marketing, (AFDB/OECD, 2008).

To maintain economic growth and transform rapidly, the country has implemented the five year Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) for the period 2010/11-2014/15. It is directed towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Ethiopia's long term vision and sustaining economic growth. The dominant development agenda of the GTP is to sustain rapid, broad-based and equitable economic growth path witnessed during the past several years and eventually end poverty.

During 2010/11, the country has registered 11.4% real GDP growth rate surpassing the GTP target of 11 percent. Particularly, the agriculture and industry sectors have registered growth rates above their targets set for the year. Manufacturing sector is a leading and significant sector for the country growth. This indicates that the openness of FDI for the sectors have a positive impact for the country's growth. These can be by increasing employment, standard of living and poverty reduction.

Kevin panel data analysis indicates the effect of FDI on economic growth in 47 African countries over the last two decades (1980–2000) and shows FDI exerts a positive impact on growth in Africa. He also explained the causes for the flow of FDI in host countries like: trained human capital and an attractive investment climate stemming from a developed infrastructure, lower country risk and stable macro environment in countries. These results confirm his hypothesis that foreign aid as well as domestic and foreign investment is effective and growth enhancing only in a good policy environment. But, because Africa receives only a small portion of FDI, foreign aid and domestic investment still account for a greater effect on growth (Lumbila (2005)). Regression results reveal that corruption does not matter in the case of FDI: countries where corruption is perceived to be high still benefit from a positive impact of FDI on growth. FDI inflows are more strongly positively related to improvement in human development when FDI policy restricts foreign investors from entering some economic sectors and when it discriminates against foreign investors relative to domestic investors. The relationship between FDI and improvement in human development is also more strongly positive when corruption is low (Reiter and Kevin (2010)).

Lumbila (2005) argued also the amount of FDI directed to Sub-Saharan Africa (hereafter, Africa) also increased significantly, reaching US\$148 billion in the year 2000 against only US\$32 billion in 1980

Admas (2009) analyze by his study on impact of foreign direct investment (FDI) and domestic investment (DI) on economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa for the period 1990–2003 that DI positively and significantly correlated with Economic growth. His study also found that FDI initially has negative effect on DI and subsequently positive effect in the latter periods for the countries studied. He concluded that the determinants of the FDI have the net crowding out effect. The review of the literature and findings of the study indicate that the continent needs a targeted approach to FDI, increase absorption capacity of local firms, and cooperation between government and multinational enterprise (MNE) to promote their mutual benefit.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The section focused on the research methodology set to answer the research question. It informs the readers about the approaches use to collect data, including what types of data were collected and why this was considered appropriate.

Data Collection

The study would make use of quantitative time series data for answering the research question to register quantifiable change. To complement this approach,

qualitative interviews were conducted. Data collection started as a desk-based research, gathering both primary and secondary data to answer a number of strategic questions. Empirical data was collected through independent research and through personal visit of government institutions in Ethiopia.

Data Source

The data set has been collected mainly from World Bank, United Nations Conference for Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and National Bank of Ethiopia. The databank from World Bank offers various data arrangement tools, as a result required data can be arranged in desired format and direct excel file can be downloaded. Frequency of dataset is annual and covers the time period of 1992-2019. All data used in the estimation are in real terms at constant 2005 price and manipulated for use in terms of levels or growth rates in empirical and descriptive analysis. Data inconsistency across sources was the major challenge faced in the study, but maximum effort has been made. The data from UNCTAD and World Bank have nearly similar data sets.

Method of Empirical Analysis

The methods of the empirical analysis employed in this paper are both descriptive and inferential analysis based on log-log regression model, correlation and causality analysis. Descriptive analysis helps describe, show, or summarize data in a meaningful ways that patterns from data might emerge between dependent and independent variables.

Strengths, Weaknesses and Limitation of Research Design

The methodology and research design paradigm do not well explain all aspects of the subject of FDI impact in Ethiopian economic development.

Furthermore, a quantitative analysis will analyze variables the researcher selects, whereas using qualitative interviews means that the interviewees may raise new issues that the researcher has not considered which can lead the research into a different direction. Furthermore, quantitative analyses would not answer how individual companies respond to the institutional reforms/policy changes and how it guides their decision process. Similarly, relying solely on the qualitative interviews is unsatisfactory. This is because there exist no definitive criteria to judge the “truth” of a particular version of explanation uncovered during the interviews.

The assessment of FDI impacts depends on many factors, conditions and determinants of FDI.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Economic Analysis

In this section the study bring more understanding on the empirical interaction of FDI with economic growth in the Ethiopian economy. The empirical measures of the extent and direction of linkages between FDI and economic growth generate mixed results of positive, negative, or neutral effect of FDI on economic growth, as their methods, cases and conditions of analysis differ. The study use econometric tools of time series data analysis. Therefore, in this section, first, the researcher specify the basic and detailed models that will help to look the interactions between different variables and the data used in this analysis followed by the estimation and explanation of the models specified and results will be explaining.

Model Proposed

As noted in the previous chapters, the relationship between FDI and host country economic growth has been explored empirically and theoretically by several researchers. The model mainly use similar with Agrawal and Khan (2011). In macroeconomics aggregate production functions are estimated to create a framework in which to distinguish how much economic growth to attribute to change in the factor allocation and advancing technology. This section start from the standard production function and extend it by including different variables of interest in order to test by what extent FDI explains growth in Ethiopia (FDI-Growth linkage hypothesis). The importance of productivity factor A (which is a technology or any other factor which affect long run growth in addition to Labor and Capital) is augmented in the production function. The model was started with the basic production function by augmenting A and the production technology to determine the growth in the economy.

$$Y = f(L, K, A) \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Where, Y denotes the levels of output produced (i.e. GDP). K denotes the input of fixed, physical capital and L Denotes the input of labor force in the economy. A in the production function is a productivity factor representing technological or organizational changes and other factors that can raise output for given levels of K and L. A can increase the output that can be made with unchanged inputs of labor and capital. A is not directly observable. It is sometimes called the residual factor in growth. FDI may rise A, and raise output by bringing better technology or organizational improvements. The challenge is to distinguish the effects of FDI from the effects of other sources of improved efficiency in production. For this we need to control for other variables that can affect A. It seems reasonable to assume

that FDI in period t may have a positive effect on output in all future periods, but that the effect on the rate of growth

FDI affect economic growth through A (productivity factor) then the rate of change of productivity given by:

$$\frac{A_t - A_{t-1}}{A_{t-1}} = g(FDI_{t-1})$$

This shows that the lagged growth rate of productivity when FDI is lagged. These helps one to see the long run effect of FDI in the long run productivity. The impact of FDI for economic growth cannot be immediately perceived it might take time to realize the effect. K represents the fixed capital that has been accumulated through past investments in fixed capital. FDI is one of the many possible sources for financing investment in fixed capital. Hence, it may have an immediate effect on investment in fixed capital, especially if the supply of capital from other sources is low.

$$K_t - K_{t-1} = h(FDI_t, FDI \times LIB, DWD)$$

GFCF $_t$ is a proxy measure of investment at time t . $FDI \times LIB$ denotes the interaction of FDI with liberalization and DWD is dummy variable for Drought and War.

Measurements of Data

Y = Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP): Data are in constant 2005 U.S. dollars GDP at purchaser's prices is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products. Please refer in the appendix to see the growth rate during the study period.

LF = Labor force total: is the total supply of labor available for producing goods and services in an economy during a specified period. According to the WB definition, Total labor force comprises people ages 15 and older who meet the International Labor Organization definition of the economically active population: all people who supply labor for the production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes people who are currently employed and people who are unemployed but seeking work as well as first-time job-seekers. Not everyone who works is included, however. Unpaid workers, family workers, and students are often omitted, and some countries do not count members of the armed forces

GFCF= Gross Fixed Capital Formation (% of GDP): WB defines Gross fixed capital formation (formerly gross fixed domestic investment) consists of expenses on additions to the fixed assets of the economy plus net changes in the level of

inventories. Fixed assets include land improvements (fences, ditches, drains, and so on); plant, machinery, and equipment purchases; and the construction of roads, railways, and the like, including schools, offices, hospitals, private residential dwellings, and commercial and industrial buildings. Inventories are stocks of goods held by firms to meet temporary or unexpected fluctuations in production or sales, and “work in progress.”

The study covers the period 1974-2011 and thus variables discussed have constituted time series information. FDI affects economic growth both through fixed capital formation and through increased productivity growth. The above the production function takes the following general basic model form:

$$\ln GDPGR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\ln FDI_t) + \beta_2(\ln GFCF_t) + \beta_3(\ln GRLF_t) + \beta_4(\ln GRX_t) + \beta_5(\ln GRM_t) + U_t \dots\dots (2)$$

The coefficients are the parameters of the econometric model, and they describe the directions and strengths of the relationship between GDP and the factors used to determine in the model (called Explanatory Variables) is the major coefficient of interest that tells the percentage response in GDP growth for a percentage change in FDI (% GDP and U is error term.

In Equation (3), I further modified the model by introducing more variables. Growth in Ethiopia is susceptible to shocks like war and drought, and thus to control for these shocks I introduce a natural log of the dummy variable of war and drought (lnDWD). I also introduced a lagged dependent variable that captures the effect of correlation between the previous and subsequent values of growth and helps for short run auto regression of the dependent variable. It was first converted into natural log and then into growth rates and is denoted by lnGDPGRt-1 in the model. In addition, one of the objectives of my empirical investigation is to examine the effect of FDI on GDP growth conditional on the economic liberalization that Ethiopia encounters in early 1990s. To take account of the effect of the interaction variable between LIB and FDI in to my model, whose natural log form is denoted by lnFDI*LIB in the model. Thus, Equation (3) adds more variables (lnDWD, lnGDPGRt-1 and lnFDI*LIB) into Equation (2) as specified below:

$$\ln GDPGR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\ln FDI_t) + \beta_2(\ln GFCF_t) + \beta_3(\ln GRLF_t) + \beta_4(\ln GRX_t) + \beta_5(\ln GRM_t) + \beta_6(\ln GDPGR_{t-1}) + \beta_7(\ln FDI \times LIB)_t + \beta_8(\ln DWD) + U_t \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

The effect of FDI on growth is given by first derivative of GDPGR with respect to FDI. In Equation (3), the effect of change in FDI on GDP growth depends both on FDI and LIB. Thus, the major parameters in my model are the estimated values of β_1 and β_7 . We expect these determinants of GDP growth to be positive and statistically significant.

Unit Root

Before making any econometric estimation, it is necessary to conduct a unit root test to check the stationary of variables in my model. This helps to avoid the problem of spurious regression and make meaningful estimations. I use Augmented Dicky Fuller test to check for unit root or non-stationary of the variables. The study applied on differencing if variables are found non-stationary. GDPGRt and GDPGRt-1 are stationary, whilst all other explanatory variables were first differenced to make them stationary.

Augmented Dicky Fuller/ADF/ unit root test result for differenced variables

Table 4.1: Unit Root

Variables Differenced	Computed ADF test at lag length		Critical values(lag0)		Critical values(lag1)	
	0	1	1%	5%	1%	5%
DFDI	-8.697	-5.207	-3.696	-2.978	-3.702	-2.980
DGFCF	-9.048	-4.078	-3.696	-2.978	-3.702	-2.980
DLF	-13.507	-6.206	-3.730	-2.992	-3.736	-2.994
DX	-8.9.	-7.856	-3.696	-2.978	-3.702	-2.980
DM	-17.239	-7.038	-3.696	-2.978	-3.702	-2.980
DFDI*LIB	-8.869	-5.349	-3.696	-2.978	-3.702	-2.980

Source: Own computation using STATA and note that 'D' before each variable represents 'first difference'.

Model Results

Data used in the study shows correlation between GDP growth rate, FDI and GCF. GDP growth fluctuates over the time considered, with most noticeable changes in 1985 due to major drought and famine and early 1990s due to civil war in 1990s. As shown in the same graph, there are positive correlation between GDP growth and FDI starting from 1991. It is further shown that there is systematic correlation between GCF and GDP growth before 1991. However, once FDI kicked in 1992, they became less related to each other.

We then consider econometric models to further study the relationship between GDP growth and FDI, controlling for any variables that affect GDP growth. Table 5.1 below provides information on each model used in the regression and intensions behind each model specifications.

Table 4.2: Type of model specifications tested

<i>Model Number</i>	<i>Added Variable</i>	<i>Rationale for the specification</i>
Model-1	Basic regression(BR)	Modeling for FDI-growth interaction test
Model-2	BR (+) FDI per GDP - 1	To capture one year lagged effect of FDI(%GDP) on growth rate
Model-3	BR (+) FDI per GDP - 2	To capture two year lagged effect of on growth rate

The estimation of the growth model is undertaken both with unit root problem (non-stationary variables) and without unit root problem (differenced variables) to control for non-stationary variable estimation problem.

Model 1 Table 4.2 shows GCF, export and dummy for war and drought (DWD) are positive and significant at 1%, 5% and 1% level respectively, while import remains negative and insignificant in all specifications. Negative impact of import is expected and could be acceptable because of the fact that the country is suffering from terms of trade disadvantage and negative trade balance, among major economic challenges of the country, are resultant effects of such huge import. Export shows positive and significant results in all models of specification. It is significant at 1% in model (3). This shows export is the higher determinants of GDP and the degree of export orientation of the economy is more important for foreign investors who trend to locate in the export sector.

Ethiopian economy is mainly agrarian, thus DWD has a positive long term impact on economic growth in the country. Agriculture heavily depends on rainfall condition and results in poor performance of the agricultural sectors which affects the whole economy adversely.

Model 2 introduces one-year lagged FDI to the basic model and claim positive growth effect on the economy but remain insignificant. By contrast, the third model with a two-year lag of FDI shows a positive effect between lagged FDI and growth at a 5% level of significance. Therefore, the empirical finding supports the positive interaction of FDI on economic growth but it takes time to materialize and significantly affect the growth process in Ethiopia. Adding new areas of involvement, FDI leads to more investment in fixed capital and some of these goods are produced domestically, then FDI have a short run demand effect on output. But, still the case is open for further research. Two major differences of this model are notable: first, differenced regression assures the positive and significant effect of last year GDPGR for the next year, which is explained to be negative or insignificant in the level regression. Second, the effect of labor force is positive but not significant. The result is acceptable in large populated country. In Ethiopia with high unemployment and under-employment population, implying the marginal productivity of labor is much lower as explained by low wage rates.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

FDI affects economic growth of developing countries positively through transfer of capital, know-how, and technology. It increases activity not only in FDI beneficiary firms but also the effect can spread to other firms in the country and sectors through technology spillover, human and capital formation and increasing competition, thus raising productivity for the whole economy.

Agriculture is the backbone of the Ethiopian economy and major sources of employment for about 80% of the population. The econometric analysis focused on the relationship between FDI and growth, and the interaction of FDI with liberalization and growth. The lagged effect of FDI on the Ethiopian economy could be an indication that foreign investors need time to build infrastructure and invest in human capital by giving training and some workshop activities to meet there requirements before undertaking meaningful full production. Therefore, Ethiopia needs to increase the improved infrastructure and developed human capital through investment in education .The growth model has also provided important intuitions on the possible crowding out effect on domestic investment. The government should give more attention on the potential crowding out effect on domestic investment by creating competitive advantage and benefit from spillover effect. The econometrics analysis also focused on the interaction of FDI with trade liberalization and the impact on economic growth. Liberalization with interaction of FDI has positive effect on the economic growth but not significant.

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BUDGETING FOR CHILDREN IN INDIA

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Abstract

India is the second most populous country in the world, where 39 percent of its population lie in the age bracket of 0-18 years as per Census 2011. The development of child ensures that children do not lose their childhood, because of work, disease, and anguish. For this, the country should safeguard the rights of all children, including those who do not face adverse circumstances. Successful integration of survival, development, protection and participation policies are the core to overall wellbeing of the child. In order to satisfy all these needs, the process of child budgeting was initiated in India in 2008-09. Between 2008-09 and 2019-20, the overall allocation for children has increased at an annual rate of 7.68 percent. The present article tries to understand the pattern of child budgeting in India in the last 11 years. It is crystal clear that investment on children will help the nation to develop in a healthy country with efficient demographic dividend. Thus, the article highlights the allocation pattern to highlight the fluctuations over the period which the policy makers should address to meet the growing needs of a child.

Keywords: Budget, Public Finance Management, Expenditure, Allocation, India, Education, and Nutrition;

Journal of Economic Literature (JEL): E62

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INTRODUCTION

The Child Budget (CB) is not a separate budget but it is an effort to disaggregate the allocations made specifically for programmes that benefit children from the overall budget. While the union government has launched some major child related programmes, the largest being the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) and Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA), many programmes for child development are run directly by state governments. There are direct and indirect implemented initiatives or programmes related to child budgeting to ensure basic human rights for children. These initiatives are universally defined by the United Nations and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

CHILD RELATED EXPENDITURES: EXPERIENCES FROM OTHER COUNTRIES

- a. In Mozambique and Ecuador, in Child Budgeting exercise the local government officials, international, national consultants and civil societies play an important role. Alike India, in these countries also the children's budget is a sectoral analysis, which takes key sectors with clear relevance for children's survival, development and protection.
- b. In Brazil however, 'Bolsa Familia' (a Portuguese word meaning Family Allowance) is a social welfare programme of the Government of Brazil formed by amalgamation of four cash transfer schemes. Bolsa Familia provides financial aid to the poor families on condition that the families must ensure that their children are attending school and are getting vaccinated. Also, if children exceed the total of permitted school absences, the families are dropped from the programme and their funds are deferred. This programme attempts to help the society in multiple ways – a) to reduce short-term poverty by direct cash transfers to the concerned families, b) to fight long-term poverty by increasing human capital among those poor families through conditional cash transfers and c) to provide free education to children whose parents cannot afford to send them to school.
- c. In Mexico, the flagship poverty reduction programme 'Progresá' (meaning Programme for Education, Health and Nutrition) was started in 1997 and later renamed as 'Programa de Desarrollo Humano Oportunidades' in 2002 and again in 2014, it became 'Prospera' Social Inclusion Programme. This programme offers small cash payments to impoverished families and has two major impacts – a) the parents have to ensure to send their children to school and b) to attend workshops on nutrition, hygiene and family planning. This contributes to the steep decline in child labour, improves educational level in society, an overall reduction in poverty and also enhances living standards.

From the experiences of these four countries, it could be inferred that instead of child budgeting, conditional cash transfer programmes targeting vaccination, nutrition, health and education among children can lead to better outcomes. So even if budgeting is done, transfer of funds should be conditional to get desired outcome.

ALLOCATION FOR CHILDREN: CHILD BUDGETING IN INDIA

According to policy-makers, children deserve the best in investment for their survival, good health, developmental opportunities, social securities and a dignified life. Whatever is being done for them today will determine their character in future. The child budget work was started by Government of India along with Centre for Child Rights in 2000, taking account of the decadal analysis of the child perspective in Union Budget. Though such initiatives in budget analysis were already being undertaken in the country at state level with respect to Dalits, tribal and rural development etc., the focus on children were missing from any such analysis. Following, the Centre for Child Rights' report, the Government of India in 2005, announced that it would be undertaking child budget work in the Centre as well as the States.

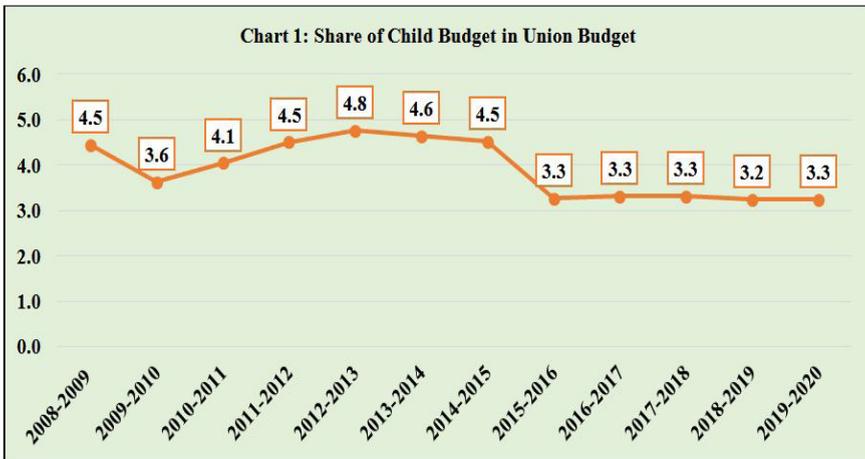
A statement of 'Child Budgeting' was introduced in Expenditure Budget, Volume I of the Union Budget from 2008-09 as Statement 22 which became Statement 12 from 2017-18 onwards. The Table-1 below, provides a summary of the Union Budget and Child Budget of the country over the last twelve years from 2008-09 to 2019-20. During the period, the share of child budget in main budget has shown a decline of 1.20 percentage points. From 4.5 % in 2008-09, it declined to 3.3% in 2019-20. The decline of allocation share for 37% of the country's population which is under 18 years of age is a grave concern. Overall, while calculating compound annual growth rate, it is seen that the Union Budget grew at a rate of 10.97% between 2008-09 to 2019-20 compared to 7.68% for CB.

Table 1: Total Outlays for Child Specific Schemes as Percentage of Total Union Budget (Rs. crore)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Union Budget (BE)</i>	<i>Child Budget (BE)</i>	<i>Share of Child in Union Budget (%)</i>
2008-2009	750884.0	33433.8	4.45
2009-2010	1020838.0	37148.6	3.64
2010-2011	1108749.0	44961.4	4.06
2011-2012	1257729.0	56748.6	4.51
2012-2013	1490925.0	71028.1	4.76
2013-2014	1665297.0	77236.0	4.64
2014-2015	1794892.0	81075.3	4.52

2015-2016	1777477.0	58016.7	3.26
2016-2017	1978060.0	65758.5	3.32
2017-2018	2146735.0	71305.4	3.32
2018-2019	2442213.0	79090.4	3.24
2019-2020	2784200.0	90594.3	3.25
CAGR (%)	10.97	7.68	-

Source: Various Union Budgets , GoI



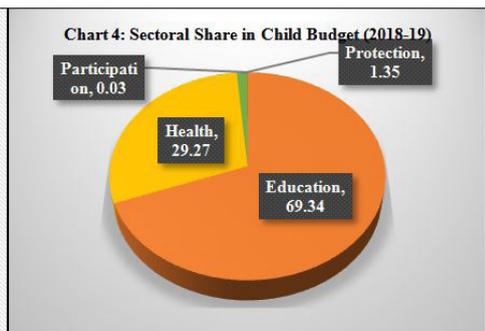
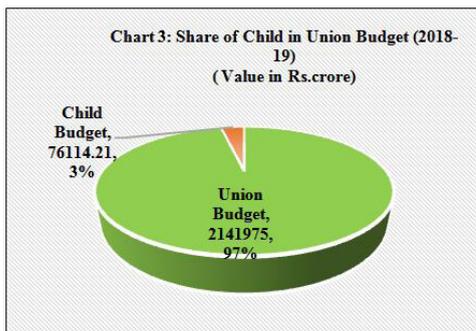
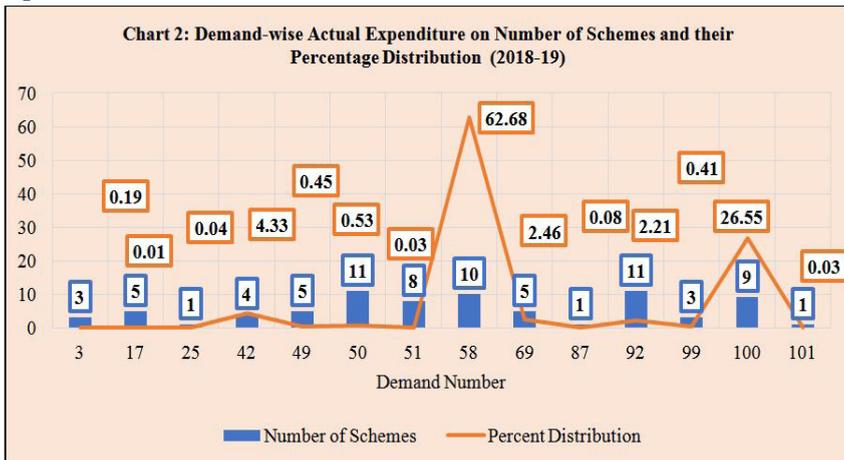
PATTERN OF ALLOCATION

The very first thing in designing a budget for children is figuring out the needs of children. To capture such needs, both the demand and supply side requires to be consulted and to find out actual allocation, the distribution should be segregated into four key priority areas of child development¹, which are: a) Survival, Health and Nutrition, b) Education and Development, c) Protection and d) Participation. However, understanding the demand side, meaning the children themselves, for need assessment is vital. As children are unable to express their demands and are immature to give opinion, it is the responsibility of the Government to identify their age-specific needs. So, the total need of the children may require a resource demand differently, may be higher, in some sector like health and education compared to others. So the sector-wise allocations under child budget has been accordingly planned to holistically meet the requirement of a child in different stages.

¹ As per National Action Plan for Children, 2016

The distribution of actual expenditure on child related schemes for the year 2018-19 is presented in Chart-2. It shows that out of the 24 ministries/departments², the major share is only of two demand numbers i.e. 58³ (for Rs. 47709.74 crore that comprises 62.68% of the total CB⁴) and 100⁵ (for Rs. 20206.54 crore that comprises 26.55% of the total CB). The other 22 demands have 77 child specific schemes but their share in total CB is very small.

During the same fiscal year of 2018-19, the total expenditure of India was Rs. 2141975 crore. Amid this, the expenditure on demographic dividend of the country's 37% of population under the age of 18 years was only 3% i.e. Rs. 76114.21 crore (Chart-3). And of this 3.0% of total Union budget which was spent on children, 69.34% was spent on education, 29.27% on health, 1.35% on protection and only 0.03% on participation (Chart-4).



2 The chart below includes only those demand numbers against which has expenditure figures. In totality, there are 24 Demand numbers but only 14 have done actual expenditure in 2018-19.

3 Department of School Education and Literacy, 10 schemes

4 Total CB for 2018-19 was Rs. 76114.21 crore

5 Ministry of Women and Child Development, 9 schemes

The analysis of 13 years in Table-2 shows that though there is an increase in accountability of mainstreaming of the Child Budgeting, the share of CB in the Union Budget is not increasing. The government's commitment towards child is pinpointed through increase in number of schemes and number of departments with slight decrease in the intervening years. Moreover, the inclusion of actual expenditures of 2017-18 in 2019-20's budget is another step in this direction. On an average, the share of CB remains at 3.9% of the total Union Budget, which is even lower than the recommended share as per National Plan of Action for Children 2016.⁶ The investment on children has a positive return, so it is high time now to evaluate the opportunity cost of the child focused budget which can be used as an important economic tool to evaluate the future implications on the economy.

Table 2: Changes over the period

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Schemes</i>	<i>No. of Departments/ Demands No. / Ministries</i>
2008-2009	49	10
2009-2010	84	16
2010-2011	109	21
2011-2012	101	19
2012-2013	96	18
2013-2014	94	18
2014-2015	91	19
2015-2016	86	21
2016-2017	82	18
2017-2018	84	22
2018-2019	89	24
2019-2020	90	24
2020-2021	96	24

Source: Various Union Budgets , GoI

FINANCE COMMISSION AND CHILD PRIORITY

The Finance Commission (FC) is a governmental body under Article 280 of the Indian Constitution and is formulated for every 5 years. It is constituted by the President of India to review the state of finances of the Union and the States and suggest measures for maintaining a stable and sustainable fiscal environment. It also makes recommendations regarding the devolution of taxes between the Centre and the States from the divisible pool which includes all central taxes but excluding

⁶ At least 5 per cent of the Union Budget must be spent on schemes and programmes directly related to children, NPAC,2016

surcharges and cess . For the first time in history, Fifteenth FC has recommended a grant of Rs.7375 crore for nutrition for children aged between six months to six years in 2020-21. This will not be substituted for either state share or union share as it is an “additionality”. It is sure that if implemented, this grant will help in fighting the malnutrition among children of India.

CONCLUSION

The investment on children is the best mean to develop human resources. This developmental target can only be attained when proper consideration is given to children. Return of investment in early stage of life is much higher than the later life investments. About 47.21 crore population of India are children. Our collective future will depend on nourishing these children equitably in a just and discrimination-free environment. The enabling factors of child development, again, will depend on the policies and strategies of the country and its financial management system.

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RETURNS TO EDUCATION IN INDIA: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS USING IHDS DATA

Amrendra Kumar Singh* and Yogesh Malhotra**

Abstract

The present study estimates the rates of return to education in India using nationally representative IHDS (Indian Human Development Survey) dataset 2011-12. The wage equation and participation equation is estimated using OLS and Heckman two-step procedure to account for the chances of problem of sample selection bias. The results indicate that the returns to education increase at higher level of studies. It is predicted that a greater number of number of children and non-labour income increases the likelihood of being wage worker. The computer ability and English-speaking skills also create the wage differentials among individuals. It is recommended that government should improve the quality of education to ensure convex relationship between earnings and returns to education.

Keywords: Returns to Education, Heckman Procedure, Wage Differentials, IHDS, India

JEL Classification: C20, I26, J24, J31

INTRODUCTION

Return to education depends on the argument of human capital theory which asserts that individual would invest in education if the present value of expected

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benefits is more than expected costs (Becker 1964)¹. The benefits from investment in human capital depends on the labour input of individuals which in turn depends on the quantity and quality of schooling (Agrawal 2012). The benefits attached with the schooling is an important aspect for an individual to invest in education for their own productivity enhancement. The private rates of returns to education helps in explaining individual's behaviour towards investing in more years of education while social rates of return to education on the other hand, guides government in policy formations for the future educational investments. The social rates of return include the social cost that society spends on education that is the direct costs incurred by government and forgone earnings of students. The social return which excludes the non-monetary benefits and these benefits are attached with the development of overall society. The non-monetary benefits of education lead to various advantages for the society like decrease in population through decline in fertility rates and improved sanitation conditions which is achieved through rise in proportion of educated women in society and education would increase the productivity of farmers through making them more innovative and technological efficient (Chadha 2003). These benefits are difficult to measure in monetary terms hence neglected in estimation of social rate of returns to education. Since the social costs are higher in comparison to private costs in calculation of rates of returns to education thus making social rates of return to education lower than private rates of return (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos 2018).

The monetary benefits of education are generally measured with the help of wage earnings-education relationship. There is existence of vast literature on returns to education both in developed and developing countries. The previous studies showed that developed countries exhibit higher returns to tertiary education while returns to primary and secondary levels of education was higher in less developed countries. The rates of return to education are higher for women than males through rising their productivity. It was observed that investment in education generates the opportunity for individuals to increase their income through increase in productivity and society to reduce inequality and if this investment in education is low than the demand for it then inequality can be increased in economy. The rise in returns since 2000 is the result of increase in price of education despite the rise in supply (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos 2018).

The trends of higher returns to primary and secondary education level is present in Indian economy as well. The work of Duraisamy confirms that returns to education increases till the secondary level of education and then starts falling despite the higher returns in absolute terms than primary level of education (Duraisamy

¹ The work of (Mincer 1974) and (Schultz 1961) explained the importance of returns to education though there is also another point of view of Credentialism which asserts that education signals persistence and underlying abilities rather than raises productivity from schooling.

2002). It has also been seen that the returns for female education is more than males at middle, secondary and higher secondary level. In India, the private rates of returns to secondary education have been increasing over time which creates rationale for household investment in secondary education. The girls have higher marginal returns at secondary as well as tertiary education level and reason behind this is size of earning differentials between males and females at different levels of education. The difference in earnings between upper primary and secondary levels of education for girls is much more than males as it reflects a selection bias as girls who complete secondary education tend to be more able and motivated and come from better socio-economic background than general population of girls. This bias will be removed as more girls attend secondary schooling (World Bank 2009).

Recent trends show that returns to tertiary education for tertiary education and diploma courses have been rising. Studies of (Dutta 2006) and (Singhari and Madheswaran 2016) using National Sample Survey Office (NSSO) dataset for calculation of returns to education for regular and casual workers have observed higher rate of returns to diploma and graduate & above educational levels contradicting lower returns at these levels in earlier studies². The returns to education differ across the wage distribution where returns at bottom quantile are lower and higher at upper quantiles (Agrawal 2012). The inverted-U shape pattern of returns to education and above educational level was observed across the quantiles of wage distribution (Singhari and Madheswaran 2016). In India, this pattern of falling returns to primary education contradict the observation made by (Psacharopoulos 1994) that in developing countries returns to education at primary levels are high. It means that shape of returns to education is changing from concave to convex where workers with higher education are gaining more terms of higher wages. This paper tries to estimate the rates of returns to education at all India level using Mincerian earnings equation and see whether investment in education is beneficial or not. Next section discusses data and methodology used in study and section 3, analyses the results in detail based on Heckman procedure then last section concludes the paper.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The present study uses the data from the India Human Development Survey (IHDS-II) 2011-12. The survey is conducted by the National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER) and the University of Maryland, focussing on the multiple issues related to social and economic indicators of human development. The IHDS is a nationally representative survey of 42,152 households which are spread across

² Similar pattern was observed using IHDS dataset as well in studies of (Agrawal 2012) and (Rani 2014) where ability controls are also included in calculation of returns to education at different levels of education.

the country covering 33 states and union territories and these states include 384 districts, 1420 villages and 1042 urban blocks in 276 towns and cities across India except Andaman and Nicobar Islands, and Lakshadweep. These households include 2,04,754 individuals. The rural sample was drawn using stratified random sampling and the urban sample was a stratified sample of towns and cities within states (or groups of states) selected by probability proportional to population (PPP) (Desai, Dubey and Vanneman 2015).

The survey collected information on household and individual characteristics including household residence (rural or urban), household size, membership of a social group, and religion, age, education (number of standard years completed), gender, marital status and relation to the household head. It also collects the data related to individuals' occupation, industry, number of hours work in a usual day and wages and salaries of individuals, and the principal source of income for the household. The different sources of income of household like income from pension, rent and other sources is also added in the dataset. A household belongs to one of the following social groups: Scheduled Caste (SCs), Scheduled Tribe (STs), Other Backward Classes (OBCs) and Others. The education variable is numerated in number of years completed but for augmented mincer equation it is converted into the different categories of educational attainment. The ability of individuals is also observed through the information collected on English ability and computer knowledge. The description of variables included in the model is given in Table 1 in appendix 1. The dataset is trimmed by 0.1% at the top and bottom tails of the distribution to eliminate the possibilities of outliers and shown in appendix 2 with the help of boxplot.

The returns to education in most of the studies is calculated with the help of Mincerian earnings function. Although (Psacharopoulos 1994) discussed in detail the method of calculating rates of return to education that is Elaborate method. This method calculates the internal rate of return to education and take cost of education into consideration while calculating rates of return to education. The information on cost of education is difficult to get in national representative data sets like NSSO and IHDS thus standard mincer (1974) model is used in many studies. The basic Mincer model (Mincer 1974) includes the experience and education years into consideration and augmented mincer model is of following form:

$$Inw_i = \alpha_0 + \beta_p S_{pi} + \alpha_1 Exp_i + \alpha_2 Exp_i^2 + u_i \quad p = 1, 2, \dots, 5$$

$$i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where Inw_i is the natural logarithm of hourly wages in rupees, S_{pi} is the different levels of education dummies, Exp_i is potential experience which is taken as proxy for actual experience and Exp_i^2 is experience squared. It is included in the model to capture the existence of non-linear relationship and concavity between earnings and experience.

The model estimates the returns to education for those who are part of workforce that is sub-sample of population who earns wages. This sub-sample creates the problem of sample selection bias because this sub-sample may not be random sample from adult population. In the model, to tackle this problem, Heckman two step procedure is used (Heckman 1979). This procedure involves two stages where in first stage work participation (selection) equation is estimated to know the probability of working and second stage estimates wage (outcome) equation. In the estimation of first stage the following participating equation is used:

$$y_i = x_i + \epsilon_i \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N \quad \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

Where the dependent variable y_i takes the value of 1 if an individual is part of workforce and if one does not participate in work, x_i is set of human capital, demographic and identifying variables and $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2)$. It is important to include a list of identifying variables which will affect the individual's participation in workforce but not the wage equation in second stage. The identifying variables used in the literature include household size, number of dependent members in the family including children below the age of 15 and elderly persons, land ownership and non-labour income of individuals. This study includes the household size, number of children below the age of 15 and non-labour income of labour income of individual as the exclusion restrictions. The impact of household size and non-labour income expected to be negative on the participation while sign of variable number of dependents (number of children) would be positive. The estimation of first stage Probit model gives the selection correction bias term (λ) or inverse mills ratio which is used as explanatory variable in the wage equation in second stage.

The second stage estimates the wage equation by OLS method with the inclusion of human capital, demographic & family background and selection correction bias term or inverse mills ratio as independent variables. The equation (1) is modified and can be written as following:

$$Inw_i = \alpha_0 + \beta_p S_{pi} + \alpha_1 Exp_i + \alpha_2 Exp_i^2 + \alpha_3 z_i + \delta \hat{\lambda}_i + u_i \quad p = 1, 2, \dots, 5$$

$$i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$$

..... (3)

Where z_i is set of those demographic family background variables which affect the wage earnings of individuals, $\hat{\lambda}_i$ is inverse mills ratio and $u_i \sim (0, \sigma_u^2)$. This estimation of wage equation includes only uncensored observations that is only for those who are actually part of workforce (participate in wage work). The set of demographic and family background variables includes marital status and social groups with individual abilities in the form English speaking language and Computer knowledge.

The private rates of return to education can be calculated after estimating the wage equation by comparing the adjacent dummy variable coefficients. The returns to education for each educational level is obtained by following equation:

$$r_p = \frac{\beta_p - \beta_{p-1}}{Y_p - Y_{p-1}} \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Where β_p is the coefficient of pth education level, β_{p-1} is the coefficient of the previous education level. Y_p is the number of years of schooling at the pth level. The rate of return at middle level will be:

$$r_{middle} = \frac{\beta_{middle} - \beta_{primary}}{Y_{middle} - Y_{primary}}$$

It is assumed that individual spends 5 years at primary level of schooling additional years of schooling over the primary education is 3 for middle level, 2 for secondary, 2 for higher secondary and 3 for graduation above.

RESULTS

The wage profile of workers with descriptive statistics of demographic and family background variables is reported in Table 2. The sample of wage earners is limited to the age group of 15-65 years which is mainly considered as the working life of individuals in India.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics (Mean and Percentage Share)

<i>Variable Name</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>
Log Hourly wages	2.94	0.73
Hourly wages	25.79	27.50
Participate	38.6%	0.49
Experience	24.06	16.68
Experience Square	857.29	935.18
Rural (Base Category - Urban)		
Rural	66.3%	0.47
Social Group (Base Category - Others)		
OBC	42.3%	0.49
SC	21.5%	0.41
ST	8.0%	0.27
Computer Ability (Reference Category: No)		
Yes	9.1%	0.29
Sex (Reference Category: Male)		

Female	51.1%	0.49
Marital Status (Reference Category: Never Married)		
Married	74.6%	0.43
English Ability (Base Category - No)		
Yes	30.2%	0.46
Education Categories (Base Category – Illiterate & Below Primary)		
Primary	7.6%	0.26
Middle	25.4%	0.43
Secondary	13.8%	0.34
Higher secondary	10.3%	0.30
Graduate & above	8.0%	0.27
Total No. of Children (Below 15 age)	1.45	1.54
Non labour Income (Reference Category: No)		
Yes	10.7%	0.31
Total Members of household	5.64	2.67

Source: Author's Calculation based on IHDS-II Dataset

The estimates of wage work participation and wage equation using OLS and Heckman procedure are shown in Table 3 and 4 respectively. It is predicted that work participation is more likely to increase with gain in potential experience though education of different levels is negatively related to the participation in wage work. The knowledge of computer work increases the likelihood of being wage worker but English language skill is reducing the probability of participating in wage work. Females are less likely to participate in work than males as the probability of females to participate in labour force is 97% lower than that of males. The chances of rural persons to participate in wage work increases by 8.95% relative to urban workers. People among various social groups OBCs, SCs, STs are more likely to participate in work than those who belong to 'others' category. This might be due to less opportunity available and credit constraints among those groups for starting a business or being self-employed than those who come from 'forward' social groups (Kingdon and Theopold 2008). Following the condition of *ceteris paribus*, married persons are more likely to be involved in wage work than unmarried persons as marriage rises the financial responsibility of family especially on males.

The excluding restrictions included in model are significant and have expected signs. Household size and non-labour income of household reduces the likelihood of being wage worker as having non-labour source of income in household and more adult members in household lessens the pressure on individual to earn on a regular basis. The total number of dependent children below the age of 15 years

would increase the likelihood of participation in wage work since individuals tend to seek wage work with more number of children in household (Agrawal 2012). All the variables of selection equation are significant at 95% level of significance. The inverse mills ratio is positive and significant indicating the need for sample selection in the model is justified.

The result of augmented miner function is given in Table 4 where all the variables including ability and demographic variables are statistically significant at 5% level of significance. The coefficient of experience is positive and square of experience coefficient is negative which is consistent with the human capital theory. An additional year of experience tends to increase wage by 4% and it would fall overtime with increase in experience. The maximum wages could be earned at 40 years of experience³.

Table 3: Participation Equation

<i>Select</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>
Experience	0.071	0.001
Experience square	-0.001	0.00002
<i>Education Categories (Base Category – Illiterate & Below Primary)</i>		
Primary	-0.226	0.015
Middle	-0.314	0.012
Secondary	-0.465	0.015
Higher Secondary	-0.391	0.018
Graduate & above	-0.006	0.021
<i>English ability (Base Category - No)</i>		
Yes	-0.113	0.011
<i>New marital status Marital Status (Reference Category: Never Married)</i>		
Married	0.105	0.014
<i>Computer Ability</i>		
Yes1	0.092	0.016
<i>Sex (Reference Category: Male)</i>		
Female	-0.98	0.008
<i>Social Group (Base Category - Others)</i>		
OBC	0.235	0.009
Sc	0.606	0.011
ST	0.662	0.015
<i>Rural (Base Category - Urban)</i>		
Rural	0.091	0.009

3 This can be computed with the help of Table 3 and equation 3 as $\frac{\alpha_1}{-2\alpha_2} = \frac{0.04}{-2} \times -0.005$

Total children	0.052	0.004
Non labour Income (Reference Category: No)		
Yes	-0.297	0.013
NPerson	-0.083	0.002
Cons	-0.229	0.023

Table 4: OLS and Heckman Estimates of Wage Equation

<i>Variable Name</i>	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Heckman Coefficient</i>
Experience	0.040 (0.001)	0.040 (0.001)
Experience square	-0.0004 (0.00001)	-0.0005 (0.0000232)
Education categories		
Primary	0.215 (0.011)	0.130 (0.011)
Middle	0.333 (0.008)	0.212 (0.009)
Secondary	0.468 (0.011)	0.330 (0.013)
Higher secondary	0.554 (0.014)	0.428 (0.014)
Graduate & above	0.936 (0.015)	0.845 (0.015)
Rural		
Rural	-0.213 (0.006)	-0.196 (0.006)
English ability		
Yes	0.164 (0.009)	0.152 (0.009)
Marital status		
Married	-0.084 (0.009)	-0.023 (0.009)
Computer Ability		
Yes	0.315 (0.013)	0.324 (0.013)
Social group		
OBC	-0.088 (0.008)	-0.063 (0.008)
SC	-0.020 (0.008)	0.019 (0.011)

ST	-0.132 (0.010)	-0.072 (0.013)
Sex		
Female	-	-0.416 (0.015)
Cons	2.307 (0.015)	2.38 (0.032)

The coefficients of all education dummies are positive and significant which increase at each educational level. It means that there exists a convex-shaped relationship between log hourly wages and educational level and it also reflects that there exists a difference between earnings among people with different educational levels. Individual with graduation and above earns about 132% more than a person who is illiterate or having less than primary level education⁴. Similarly, there is a substantial wage difference between males and females as females earn 52 % less than males. This wage differential is also observed among different social group categories as STs and OBCs tend to earn 7.4%, 6.5 % respectively less than 'others' category. This might be due to the discrimination in labour market (Agrawal 2012).

Married persons tend to earn 2.3 % less than unmarried individuals and persons with computer ability tend to earn 38.26 % more relative to those who don't have the knowledge of computer. The coefficients of wage equation are used to calculate the private rates of return to education and presented in Table 5. It is found that the rates of return to education are 4.3% and 13.9% at primary and graduate above levels⁵. It means that an extra year of schooling after being illiterate or study below primary level would increase wages at 4.3% for those who have finished primary schooling level. The trends show that investment in education is profitable till secondary level but after that rates of return decline for higher secondary level despite being highest for graduate and above educational level. It reflects that high rates of return at graduate level might be due to structural change and technical skills and this has increased demand for skill workers but the quality of schooling at secondary and higher secondary level resulted in lower rates of return of education at these levels. The participation in schooling also get affected by these lower rates of return with supply and demand side barriers. These barriers include the list of factors like lack of supply of nearby secondary schools, absenteeism of teachers, poor infrastructure in schools for girls, parents' perceived futility of educating girls as many families adhere to traditional gender roles and do not envisage girls' participation in labour market (G. G. Kingdon 2007).

4 The dependent variable is in logarithmic form and interpretation of dummy variable coefficient is done in the form of $e^{\text{coefficient}} - 1$.

5 These are estimated using equation 4 and it is suggested by (Psacharopoulos 1994) that primary school children don't forgo their earnings during study time so it is better to assign 3 years instead of 5 years for primary schooling.

Table 5: Returns to Education

<i>Educational Level</i>	<i>OLS</i>	<i>Heckman</i>
Primary	4.3	2.6
Middle	3.9	2.73
Secondary	6.75	5.9
Higher Secondary	4.3	4.9
Graduate and Above	12.73	13.9

Source: Based on Table 4 and Equation 4

CONCLUSION

This study estimates the rate of return to education for different educational levels using augmented mincer earnings equation adjusted for sample selection bias. It is found that the rates of return to education at higher secondary level falls but again rise at the graduate and above level. The technical skill knowledge and English language skills create a significant wage differential between workers. The low rates of return at primary level is matter of concern and it is necessary to check the quality of education at primary and secondary levels of education. Since this study is about one time period cross-sectional data and at all India level only thus making it difficult to have comparisons on the basis of region or gender. The factors like poor infrastructure at schools especially for Girl students create difficulty to continue after secondary levels as their parents fear for their safety. To increase the returns at primary and middle levels of education, the government have to provide good quality schools with proper infrastructure facility and teachers at these levels. This can ensure the increase in the enrolment in schools and less dropouts.

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APPENDIX 1

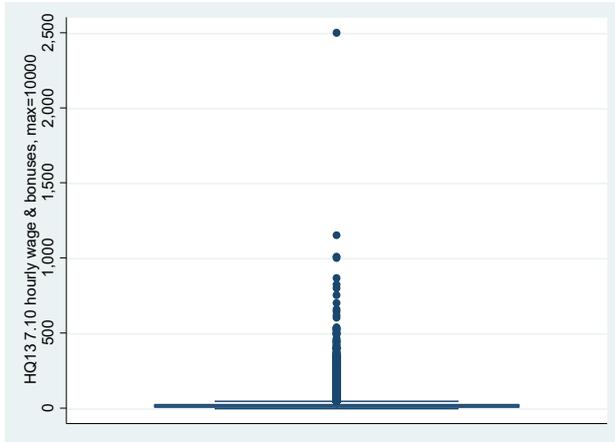
Table 1: Description of Variables

<i>Variable Name</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Nature of Variable</i>
Log Hourly Wages	This is Natural logarithm of Hourly wages in Rupees in wage equation.	Continuous Variable.
Work Participation	This is used in probit model and attain value 1 if an individual is part of workforce and 0 if one is not part of workforce.	It is a variable used in the participation equation and discrete in nature.
Household Size	The size of sample household is the total number of persons in household.	continuous variable and it is restriction variable.
Experience	Potential Experience which is considered as proxy of market experience and calculated as Age – Education years - 5.	It is a continuous variable and subtracted 5 years because it is considered that children start getting education at 5 years of age.

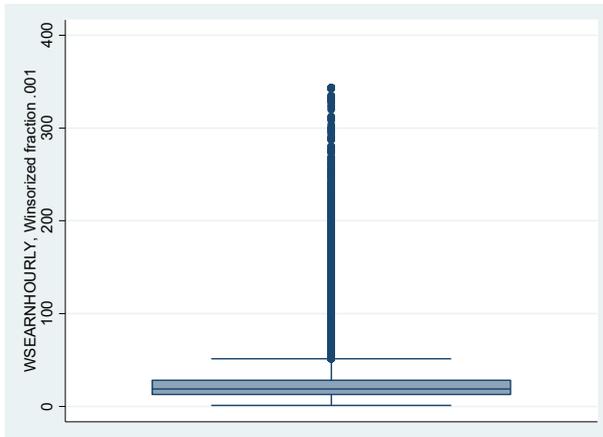
Experience Squared	It is a square of experience variable which is measured in years.	It is continuous variable.
Marital Status	Marital status of persons which is categorised as never married, currently married, widowed and divorced.	This is discrete variable which is transformed into two categories namely never married which is reference category and married category.
Sex	The sex of individuals is categorized in two parts that is male and female.	Discrete variable and 'Male' is reference category.
Social Group	The social group has four categories namely Scheduled Tribe, Scheduled Caste, Other Backward Classes and Others Category.	The variable is discrete in nature where 'others' category is taken as reference category.
Education Levels	Educational category of individuals is transformed into different categories of education as below on the basis of completed years of education Educational category Years Not Literate & BP 00 Primary 05 Middle 08 Secondary 10 Higher Secondary 12 Graduate & Above 15	It is a discrete variable and Not Literate and Below Primary (BP) is base category and graduate and above category is clubbed into one category.
Computer Ability	It is showing that whether an individual knows about computer or not.	It is a categorical variable where No Computer knowledge is base category.
English Ability	This variable depicts whether individual is able to speak English language or not. It is transformed into two categories as little and fluent English-speaking categories are merged into one category.	It is discrete variable and Not able to speak English is the reference category.
Rural	It is divided into two categories Rural (1) and Urban (0)	It is a categorical variable with Urban being reference category
Non-Labour Income	It includes income from rent, pension and other non-labour income sources.	It is categorical variable where individuals not having non-labour income is taken as base category.

Total members of household	It includes total members of the household.	It is continuous variable.
Number of Children	Number of children below the age of 15 years in household	Continuous Variable

APPENDIX 2



Graph 1: Hourly wages with Outliers



Graph 2: Trimmed Hourly Wages with no outliers



CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF LAWS RELATING TO NOISE POLLUTION IN INDIA

Shamsher Singh*

Abstract

The immense governmental efforts for environmental protection in world have facilitated the emergence of 'environmental Jurisprudence'. In India over 200 laws and several rules are in operation for trial of the violators and redressal of the environment related grievances by the judicial courts including superior judiciary and tribunals. One aspect of these laws is related to noise pollution and control. The present paper intends to underline constitutional provisions, laws and rules, judicial endeavours and governmental efforts to curb the menace of noise pollution. Further, the causes and harmful environmental effects of the noise pollution have also been highlighted. On the basis of the examination of above, the present paper renders suggestions for policy makers in order to make a noise pollution free society in Indian conditions. It will be helpful in developing the future plans and optimum control over the noise pollution.

Keywords: Environment, Noise pollution, Laws & Rules, Judiciary, Health-hazards, India

INTRODUCTION

The advancement of science and technology have added to the human comforts by providing us automobiles, electric appliances, supersonic jets, spacecrafts, inventions for medicines, sound amplifiers, musical enjoyment parties etc. but on the other side, the adverse impact of these comforts that has caused various environmental problems and noise pollution is one of such major problems¹. As the

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major objective of the present paper is to analyze the laws including constitutional provisions, legislations and attitude of judiciary in curbing the menace of noise pollution, it attempts to highlight the causes and harmful environmental effects of the noise pollution and renders suggestions to improve the situation in consonance with the Indian conditions. These suggestions may also be helpful to stop violations of environment protection laws particularly the Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Rules, 2000.

WHAT IS NOISE?

Noise means an unwanted sound. Unwanted sound refers to the lack of the agreeable volume and quality. It is also a kind of air pollution with adverse impact on human health. It causes pollution when effects of sound become undesirable². As far as the dictionary meaning of term noise is concerned *noise* is a sound, especially one is loud, unpleasant, or disturbing³. In so far as the statutory meaning of ‘noise’ is concerned, the term noise pollution has not been defined in the legislative. The *Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act*, 1981 was amended in 1987 to include ‘noise pollution’ in the definition of ‘*air pollutant*’. *Air pollution* means ‘the presence in the atmosphere of any air pollutant’⁴. The term *air pollutant*⁵ means “any solid, liquid or gaseous substance (including noise) present in the atmosphere in such concentration as may be or tend to be injurious to human beings or other living creatures or plants or property or environment”.

CAUSES OF NOISE POLLUTION

<i>Causes</i>	<i>Noise pollution</i>
Natural Causes	<i>The natural causes of noise pollution are</i> air noise, volcanoes, seas, rivers, waterfalls, thundering sound and lighting in the sky, and exchanging voices of living organisms including man and animals ⁶ .
Man-made causes	<i>Man-made causes of noise pollution includes</i> industry, road traffic, rail traffic, air traffic, construction and public works, indoor sources (air conditioners, air coolers, radio, television and other home appliances) etc. In Indian conditions, indiscriminate use of public address system and DG sets, has given a new dimension to the noise pollution problem. Moreover, use of crackers during diwali, dusshera, etc. and use of DJ’s, amplifiers and loudspeakers during processions like Nagar-Kiratn, Jagrats etc. also creates noise pollution.

IMPACT OF NOISE POLLUTION

The following concept table provides the adverse impact in brief:

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Noise Pollution</i>	<i>Environmental effects</i>
1.	Effects on marine life	Noise from shipping traffic, seismic surveys, military sonar and other man-made sources can afflict marine life with a lethal condition commonly known as 'the Bends' and poses a significant long-term threats to whales, dolphins, fish and other marine species from individual animal's well being, right through to its reproduction, communication, migration and even survival of the species ⁷ .
2.	Effects on Birds	It can be easily observed by a reasonable man that the population and diversity of birds are continuously declining because of noise created from man-made sources.
3.	Effect on Animals	The ill effects of excessive noise on animals begin at home. Pets react more aggressively in households where there is a constant noise ⁸ .
4.	Effects on flora and fauna	According to the studies some plants do worse in noisy areas, while other seem to do better, depending upon how the community of creatures around them changes ⁹ .
5.	Global warming	Some researchers suggest that sound pollution to some extent is caused due to global warming. When icebergs hit the warm water they start to crack which produces a large amount of noise which disturbs the marine life. Many researches suggest that the sound produces by breaking of an iceberg is similar to the sound produced by hundred supertankers ¹⁰ .
6.	Effects on Human Health	Hearing loss, sleep disorder, displeasure, diabetes, cholesterol, increased blood pressure, harmful effects on psychological health etc. are injurious consequences of noise pollution on human health.

CONSTITUTIONAL MEASURES

The Constitution of India¹¹ embodies in itself a greater national commitment to preserve and protect the clean and healthy environment. It guarantees right to life and personal liberty. Life under Article 21 means dignified life, which cannot be possible in noisy environment. Following Indian constitutional provisions are

backed by the concept of environment preservation hence noise pollution free society:

Article 19(I) (a): Freedom of Speech and Expression

Freedom of speech and expression is prerequisite in democracy. Article 19(1) (a) of the Constitution guarantees to all citizens, the right to freedom of speech and expression subject to reasonable restrictions conceptualized in it. With the progress of society, *“new means of communication have been developed, which can be used for the purpose of speech and expression. Law prohibits us, to use these means violently, because public health demands control of the use of such appliance as produces loud noise by day or by night”*.

Article 19(I) (g): Right to practice any profession, occupation, trade or business

As far as Article 19(I) (g) of Indian Constitution is concerned, it confers right upon the citizens to practice any profession or to carry any occupation, trade or business. This right to carry on any occupation, trade or business is subject to reasonable restrictions which may be imposed in the public interest as provided under Article 19(6)¹² of the constitution. One cannot carry on any trade or business in any manner by which such activity becomes health hazardous to the society. By virtue of various decisions of Hon'ble Supreme Court as well as the High Courts, now it is well settled that though a person has a right to carry on any business of his choice, but there is no right to carry on any business inherently dangerous to society, because the interest of society are to be balanced with the interests of citizens to carry on business¹³. In 1998, Calcutta High Court¹⁴ held that *“Article 19 (1) (g) of the Constitution of India does not guarantee the fundamental right to carry on trade or business which creates pollution or which take away that communities safety, heath and peace. A citizen or people cannot be made a captive listener whose fundamental rights guaranteed under Article 19(1) (a) and other provisions of the Constitution are taken away, suspended and made meaningless”*.

Article 21: Right to Life and Personal Liberty except according to Procedure established by Law

Article 21 emphasizes that every citizen has a right to live with human dignity. The right to clean and noise free environment is a fundamental right as well as a human right simply because it is the basic need for the survival of the human race. The contaminated environment will kill human beings. Thus, right to pure and decent environment underlies the right to life supporting ecosystem which sustains life¹⁵.

Article 26: Freedom to Manage Religious Affairs¹⁶

India is a secular country and all religions have equal protection. Everyone is free to manage its religious matters. But no religion allows us to spoil the decent environment on the name of God. Judiciary interpreted the above Article in its own way by keeping in view the sustainable development concept¹⁷.

LEGISLATIVE MEASURES

Right to live in peaceful environment is one of the fundamental rights guaranteed by Constitution of India¹⁸. Keeping in view this constitutional mandate, Parliament of India has enacted the *Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Rules, 2000*¹⁹. It is adopted by Indian judiciary too.

The Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Rules, 2000²⁰ (herein after 'Principal Rules')

The problem of noise handled under different laws such as Law of Crimes²¹, Criminal Procedure Code²², Law of Torts and other special laws such as the Air Craft Acts, 1934, Factories Act, 1948, Police Act, 1861, Air (Prevention and Control) Act, 1981 etc.

In exercise of the powers conferred by clause (ii) of the Sub-section (2) of Section 3, sub-section (1) and clause (b) of sub-section (2) Section 6 and 25 of the Environment (protection) Act, 1986 read with Rule 5 of the Environment (Protection) Act, 1986, the Central Government hereby makes rules for the regulation and control of noise producing and generating sources. According to the Rules, the State Government shall categorize the area into industrial, commercial, residential or silence areas (zones) for the purpose of implementation of noise standards for different area²³. State government shall also take measures for abatement of noise including the noise emanating from vehicular movements and ensure that the existing noise levels don't exceed the ambient air quality standards specified under these rules²⁴. Apart from that all the development authorities, local bodies and other concerned authorities while planning developmental activity or carrying out functions relating to town and country planning shall take into consideration all aspects of noise pollution as a parameter of quality of life to avoid noise menace and to achieve the objective of maintaining the ambient air quality standards in respect of noise²⁵. Rules prohibit the use of loud-speaker or a public address system except by obtaining permission from the authority²⁶. A loudspeaker and public address system shall not be used between 10.00 p.m. to 6.00 a.m. except in closed premises for communication within, e.g., auditoria, conference rooms, community halls and banquet halls²⁷. These Rules were further amended in 2002²⁸, lay down such terms and conditions as are necessary to reduce noise

pollution, permit use of loud speakers or public addresses systems during night hours (between 10 P.M to 12:00 Midnight) on or during any cultural or religious festive occasion. The intensity of noise is measured in decibels. Standard for noise in ambient air is given as under²⁹.

Table : Standard of Noise in Air30

Area Code	Category of Area/Zone	Limits in dB (A) in Leq*	
		Day Time	Night Time
A	Industrial Area	75	70
B	Commercial Area	65	55
C	Residential Area	55	45
D	Silence Zone	50	40

Note: 1. Day time reckoned in between 6 a.m. and 9.00 p.m

1. Night time is reckoned in between 9.00 p.m. and 6.00. a.m.

*dB(A) Leq denotes the time weighted average of the level of sound in decibels on scale A which is relatable to human hearing Sounds up to 80 db are safe for human ears. Noises above this range have often led to biological changes in man. Even the wildlife, forest, birds and marine life suffer.

Discrepancies of the Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Rules, 2000

Undoubtedly, Noise Pollution Rules are positive endeavours to create a right balance between ecology and good quality of life, one of the objectives of sustainable development. But some discrepancies are still apparent in the rules, which are discussed below:

- The penalties for the violation of noise pollution rules are specified under Section 6, which provides that whoever, in any place covered under the silence zone/area commits any of the following offence shall be liable for (damages) penalties under the provisions of the Act:-
 - i) whoever, plays any music or uses any amplifiers, or
 - ii) whoever, beats a drum or tom-tom or blows horn either musical or pressure, or trumpet or beats or sounds any instrument, or
 - iii) whoever exhibits any mimetic, musical or other performances of a nature to attract crowd.

No doubt, Section 6 of the Rule is a preventive measure for the abatement of noise pollution but it is inadequate. Damages in terms of money is not appropriate relief for the sufferer, therefore, it is submitted that an injunction or extinguishment of cause may prove an effective and preventive remedy.

Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Amendment Rules, 2017 (herein after called Amended Rules)

For effective implementation of Principal Rules, 2000, powers are conferred to Government under Sections 3, 6 and 25 of the Environment (Protection) Act to further amend the Principal Rules. Following points may be useful to realize the amended Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Amendment Rules, 2017.

- *Rule 3 (5) of Principal Rules, 2000* states that “an area comprising not less than 100 meters around hospitals, educational institutions and courts **may be declared** as silence area / zone for the purpose of these rules”.

According to **Amended Rules 2017** the words “**may be declared**” has been replaced with words “**by the State Government**”. It means Amended Rules conferred Powers to State Government to pronounce silence area/zone which is less than 100 meters around hospitals, educational institutions and courts.

- Under **the Principal Rule, 2000** the term ‘festive occasion’ used under Rule 5 (3) was not explained but under the **Amended Rules 2017** the expression “**festive occasion**” has been widely elaborated. Now as per Amended Rules the word “*Festive Occasion*” contains:
 - i. *any National function or State function as notified by the Central Government or State Government; and*
 - ii. *National function or State function shall include-*
 - (a) Republic Day;
 - (b) Independence Day;
 - (c) State Day; or
 - (d) such other day as notified by the Central Government or the State Government.

The Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act 1981

The Air Act was enacted to provide for the preservation, control and abatement of air pollution and for the establishment of Central and State Pollution Control Boards. This Act was amended in 1987³¹ to include *noise pollution*. Under this Act, where an offence has been committed by any company³² shall compel every person who were involved in it or were in charge of it and were responsible to the company for the conduct of the business of the company, as well as the company shall be deemed to be guilty of the offence. However, if the person liable to be punished proves that the offence was committed without his knowledge or that he exercised all due diligence to prevent the commission of such offence, he will not be made liable for any punishment under the Act³³.

Nature of Judicial Interventions

Indian judiciary has set certain principles to try the environmental cases viz. 'polluters must pay', 'public trust' 'precaution', 'absolute liability', 'protection of citizens' rights' 'sustainable development' and so on³⁴. Here we shall look into some decisions of higher judiciary under these principles. Taking note of the adverse effect upon the environment and ecology of the State, the Supreme Court of India in *M.C. Mehta v. Union of India and Others*³⁵, held that vehicular pollution creates smoke, noise etc. with a view to protect the health of the present and future generations, that this court, for the first time, on 23rd September, 1986, directed to the Delhi Administration to file an affidavit specifying steps taken by it for controlling pollution emission of smoke, noise, etc. from vehicles plying in Delhi³⁶.

Kerala High Court in the case of *P.A. Jacob v. Superintendent of Police, Kottayam*³⁷ the Court has also made it very clear that operation of mechanical sound amplifying devices conflict with quite enjoyment of men in park and freedom of speech does not involve freedom to use sound amplifiers to draw out natural speech of others. Moreover, in *Church of God (full gospel) in India v. KKR majestic colony*³⁸, Court observed that excessive noise would not be permissible on the name of religious activities. Further, in *Haddon v. Lynch*³⁹, Court held that the ringing of a church bell in the early morning hours of Sundays and public holidays was held to be a legal nuisance if it disturbs persons residing in the neighbourhood. In another case, court held that during the religious ceremonies normal sound may not be nuisance but if an attempt is made to play a band either with or without a compliment of singing it may cause nuisance⁴⁰.

In addition of above, Apex Court held in the case of *State of Rajasthan v. C. Chawla*⁴¹ that the use of word 'environment' in the Article 21 is crucial. It covers all factors affecting life- air, water, dust, sound, vibration, gas and temperature. the Supreme Court further held the State Legislature in India, in the existence of their power under entry 6 List II, 'Public health and sanitation' have right to control loud noises when the right of such user, by disregard of the comfort and obligation to others emerges, as a manifest nuisance to them.

In *Appa Rao, M.S. v. Govt. of T.N.*,⁴² the Madras High Court taking a note of serious health hazard and disturbance to public order and tranquility caused by the uncontrolled noise pollution prevailing in the State, issued a writ of mandamus for directing State govt. to impose strict conditions for issue of license for the use of amplifiers and loudspeakers and for directing Director-General, Police (law and Order) to impose total ban on use of horn type loudspeakers and amplifiers and air horns of automobiles.

In *Re: Noise Pollution-Implementation of the Laws for restricting Use of Loudspeakers and High Volume Producing Sound System*⁴³ Apex Court held that

“those who make noise often take shelter behind Article 19(1)(a) pleading freedom of speech and right to expression. Undoubtedly, the freedom of speech and right to expression are fundamental rights but the rights are not absolute.. While one has a right to speech, others have a right to listen or decline to listen. If anyone increases his volume of speech and that too with the assistance of artificial devices so as to compulsorily expose unwilling persons to hear a noise raised to unpleasant or obnoxious levels then the person speaking is violating the right of others to a peaceful, comfortable and pollution-free life guaranteed by Article 21. Article 19 (1) (a) cannot be pressed into service for defeating the fundamental right guaranteed by Article 21”.

Relying on the decision of *Anirudh Kumar v. MCD*⁴⁴, Court once again in the case of *Ajay Marathe v. Union of India (FB)*⁴⁵ makes it clear that “Article 21 of the Indian Constitution guarantees life and personal liberty to all persons. Anyone who wishes to live in peace, comfort and quiet within his house has a right to prevent the noise as a pollutant reaching him. Nobody can compel to listen and nobody can claim that he has right to make his voice trespass into the ears or mind of others.

In the case of *Mazdoor Kisan Shakti Sangathan v. Union of India and another*⁴⁶

“National Green Tribunal (NGT) entirely banning protests at Jantar Mantar on the ground of nuisance and causing air and noise pollution to residents of area. NGT mentioned that said holding of protest on Jantar Mantar road had become regular feature, where protests were being held on continuous basis. Protestors had affixed loud speakers at various places in area. Use of these loudspeakers at all times including odd times and night hours, was creating noise pollution. It was causing extreme inconvenience to residents and in particular, senior citizens and small children’s. Traffic jams in area were common phenomenon⁴⁷. Keeping in view the pollution of air and noise and right of the protestors, Apex Court directs Commissioner of Police, New Delhi in consultation with other concerned agencies to devise proper mechanism for limited use of area etc. are regulated in such manner that these don’t cause any disturbance to residents of Jantar Mantar road or offices situated there”⁴⁸.

CONCLUSION & SUGGESTIONS

From the above discussions, it is very much clear that unplanned urban planning, agricultural activities, industrialization, air, land & sea traffic, construction work, household appliances, religion, lack of public awareness, lack of administrative alertness are some of the reasons behind the intolerable level of noise pollution. Statutes like Air Act, 1981, Noise Pollution (Regulation and Control) Rules, 2000 and various Indian judicial pronouncements have probed that the role of Indian legislature and judiciary in context of prevention of noise pollution is very praiseworthy.

On the other hand, rising level of noise pollution in metropolitan cities, anti-sustainable methods of industrialists are the dark side of the above said fact.

Keeping in view the harsh effects of noise pollution on health and environment, certain suggestions are rendered as follows:

- It is perceived that consequences of noise pollution are more harmful than other heinous offences like murder and theft as these crimes affects individuals but noise affects the society as whole. As such noise polluters must be dealt strictly with adequate punishments.
- The unplanned industrial activity which causes noise pollution must be regularly monitored by pollution control agencies like Pollution Control Boards and heavy fines should also be imposed on violators.
- The administration, particularly the field level bureaucracy should be strict, prompt and citizen-centric for which specific provisions for surveillance of the higher echelons of administration should be made.
- At the society level, the parents should be held responsible to inculcate the positive habits (to control noise pollution) among their children's regarding the harmful effects of excessive noise.
- Undoubtedly, environmental study is one of the mandatory parts of the school, colleges and university curriculum, despite of these efforts; the problem is still the same. Thus, it is urgent imperative of time that the Government and law makers have to analyze the reasons which are responsible for the non-implementation of Supreme Court directions and noise pollution rules.
- It is suggestible that media should also come forward to tackle with this issue; therefore media must initiate a campaign regarding harmful consequences of noise pollution.
- The authorities who are responsible for the implementation of the Noise Pollution Rules must be trained and well-equipped, so that the menace of excessive noise can be stopped. Moreover, orientation programmes and periodical training of these officials is need of the time.
- To preserve the marine life from the harmful effects of unwanted sound, the equipments used in ships must be noise free.

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- 8 Retrieved from <http://www.conserve-energy-future.com/causes-and-effects-of-noise-pollution.php>, accessed on 22-02-2020.
- 9 Retrieved from nbcnews.com, accessed on 07-03-2020.
- 10 naturetalkies.com, visited on 07-03-2020.
- 11 The Indian Constitution contains specific provisions regarding environmental protection. The Directive Principles of State Policy has imposed certain fundamental obligations on the State to protect the environment (Part-IV) and (Part-IV A) Fundamental Duties on every citizen of India to protect and improve the natural environment. Further this constitutional mandate is strengthened by creative judicial interpretations.
- 12 Noting in sub-clause (g) shall affect the operation of any existing law in so far as it relates to, or prevent the state from making any law relating to:-
the professional or technical qualification necessary for practicing any profession or carrying on any occupation, trade or business, or
the carrying on by a corporation owned or controlled by the State, or any trade, business, industry or source, whether to the exclusion, complete or partial, of citizens or otherwise.
- 13 *Abhilash Textile v. Rajkot Municipal Corporation*, AIR1988 Guj. 57
- 14 *Burrabazar Fireworks Dealers Association v. Commissioner of Police, Calcutta*, AIR 1998 Cal 121. See; *Re: Noise Pollution-Implementation of the Laws for restricting Use of Loudspeakers and High Volume Producing Sound System*, AIR 2005 SC 3136 Para. 107)
- 15 Gurdip Singh, *Environmental Law in India*, Macmillan India Ltd., 2003, p. 60.
- 16 Article 26 of the Constitution states that: “Subject to public order, morality and health, every religious denomination or any section thereof shall have the right-
to establish and maintain institutions for religious and charitable purposes;
to manage its own affairs in matters of religion;
to own and acquire moveable and immovable property and
to administer such property in accordance with law”.
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- 36 AIR 2002 SC Para 2.
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- 40 *Soletan v. De Held*, 61ER 291.
- 41 AIR 1959 SC 544
- 42 (1995) 1 LW 319 (Mad). (See; *Re: Noise Pollution-Implementation of the Laws for restricting Use of Loudspeakers and High Volume Producing Sound System*, AIR 2005 SC 3136 Para. 108)
- 43 AIR 2005 SC 3136, Para 9 and 10.
- 44 (2015) 7 SCC 779: AIR 2015 SC (Supp) 1455
- 45 AIR 2018 BOMBAY 117.
- 46 AIR 2018 SC 3476
- 47 *Ibid.*, Para 7.
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ROLE OF MICRO-FINANCE INSTITUTIONS IN POVERTY REDUCTION

Abhishek Kumar Singh*

Abstract

Micro-finance acquires great significance in a growing economy like India, particularly in terms of improving employability. The present paper intends to underline the impact of micro finance on economic upliftment of the poor. As such the trends and purpose of borrowings and its impact of economic conditions of the poor have been examined. Further, a comparison between participants and non-participants SHGs (microfinance users) has been done to mark the impact. It was found that improvement was greater among participants in comparison to non-participants. Further, these micro-finance institutions created jobs and income for the poor particularly the women. On the contrary, it was also noticed that it did not have adequate impact on education and health conditions of the participants of micro finance. There is chasm between degree of success of rural and urban areas. It can easily be concluded that there is need of a public policy of strict regulation for the micro financial institution and non-governmental organisations working in the field of micro-credit.

Keywords: Micro-finance, Impact on Poverty, Borrowing, Income, SDGs, SHGs, India

INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, different development approaches have been applied by policymakers, global bodies, non-governmental organisations, and others, focused on poverty reduction in developing countries. One of these has been progressively well known since the mid 1990s, includes microfinance plans, which offer financial

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assistance as reserve funds and credit chances to the working poor, commonly known as Self Help Groups (SHGs). As indicated by the World Bank, India falls under the category of low income country, the second most populous country on the planet. 70 percent of its populace is rural. 60% of individuals rely upon non-assured employment. Rural people have low access to organized credit. Since 1990s, poverty reduction has gained priority of by both the national government and international organisations. Inside this system, different activities have been taken by government. Microfinance Institution has grabbed the eye as a compelling device for poverty reduction and financial development. Henceforth Microfinance can assume a crucial job for improving the way of life of poor.

Microfinance Institution is the arrangement that gives access to different financial administrations, for example, credit, investment funds, micro insurance, remittances, lending to low-income clients including purchasers and the independently employed, who traditionally need access to banking and related agencies. Its primary target is to give a perpetual access to suitable financial products including insurance, term deposits, and investments. It is somewhat a significant apparatus for fighting out the poverty. Micro finance proper governmental support and protection. Microfinance Institutions must include the beneficiaries and other stake holders in management and making arrangements in the event that it is to be sustainable with those upon whom development is focused on.

The current micro-financing has its origin from the 1970s when institutions, like Grameen Banks, that flourished also in Bangladesh with the microfinance. In the Indian setting, genuine extension of financial administrations in India began with the nationalization of the banks in the nation in 1969. This was reinforced with the formation of Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) in 1976. The microfinance in India became the genuine driving force with the foundation of the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) in 1982. It has become into a multi-billion dollar industry, with bodies, for example, the Small Industries Development Bank of India and the NABARD committing noteworthy financial assets to microfinance. Today, the best five private segment MFIs arrive at in excess of 20 million clients in almost every state in India.

The components of poverty comprises of unawareness, lack of wellbeing, unemployment, low income and consumption levels with all the social miseries like, insecurity, inequality, social avoidance, gender and natural incongruities. The most exceedingly terrible generally sort of poverty is when individuals don't avail the fundamental necessities of life like to meet their physical needs. Visconti (2012) expressed that poverty takes birth when there is an inconsistent conveyance of riches, constrained access to cash, the presence of mediators, restraining infrastructures and absence of majority rules system. The definition of poverty varies with variations of political regimes but the recent UN declaration of SDGs

defines poverty in comprehensive way, encompassing factors like low levels of income, equality, education and health services.

Poverty eradication is one of the most significant component of Sustainable development Goals (SDG) of United Nation (UN). Financing micro-business visionaries for employment generation and enhancing income has been most suitable to the developing countries. Since the 1990s, reducing the incidence of poverty has been among the main concerns of global development, as one fifth of the world populaces are living in outrageous poverty. For example, about 2.5 billion individuals live on income below \$2 every day.

There are several studies on the subject, few of them deserves reference. Kumar (2015) finds that the SHG's and MFI's are assuming an essential job in conveyance of microfinance administrations which drives development of poor and low income individuals in India. Sharif (2018) argues that micro-finance is viewed as a helpful apparatus for financial up-liftment in a developing nation like India by creating opportunities for employability. Mohapatra (2009) analyzes the effect of microfinance on income and work when all is said in done, and on socially disservice gathering (SC and ST) specifically. The investigation basically dependent on the field study led by the creators in two locale of Orissa. The two participants and non-participants are mulled over for better comprehension of the effect of microfinance. Comparison discovered that non-participants are the most helpless and are off guard position than their partners. Bhatia (2016) underlines that Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) in India exist under different legitimate structures, for example, NGOs, Section 25 organizations and Non-Banking Financial Companies (NBFCs). The financial arrangement of the nation including commercial Banks and Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) and different sources, for example, helpful social orders and other huge loan specialists have assumed a significant job in the development of the area by giving refinance facility to MFIs. Mahanta (2012) laments that in India it micro finance was a neglected sector till 1994. The reasons might be numerous, for example, inability to arrive at the objective groups, escape clauses in the framework, developing a strong instrument to give some examples. However, he marks some advancement in such manner after dynamic pretended by NABARD and development of SHGs. Various NGOs and MFIs have additionally got involved into the business.

In view of the above situation the present paper intends to underline the impact of micro finance on poverty reduction. The present study is based on secondary sources of data collection and has used the statistical principles in analyzing the data.

RURAL-URBAN VARIATIONS OF IMPACT

Customer outreach in different states is reproduced in Table 1. Out of all out customer's base of 295 lakh in 2019, Karnataka state contributed most noteworthy number of clients base (23.16%) trailed by Tamil Nadu (10.93 %), Uttar Pradesh (10.11%), Odisha (7.78%), Bihar (7.65%), West Bengal (7.17%), M.P. (6.96%) and so forth. The commitment of Chandigarh, Jammu and Kashmir and Andaman was least (0.01%).

Comparison of customer's base of various states/UTs in 2018 with 2019 has declined, aside from Assam, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Jammu and Kashmir and Andaman. The most noteworthy increment was in Andaman (267%) trailed by Jammu and Kashmir (17 %), Assam (13%), Nagaland (10 %), and Arunachal Pradesh (9%). The most elevated decrease was in Andhra Pradesh (86%) trailed by Chandigarh (82%), Pondicherry (78%) and Gujarat (64%), and so forth. The least decrease was in Odisha (2%). Rejection of six little finance banks (SFBs) is the explanation behind the diminishing in customer outreach in the majority of the states.

Table 1: Rural and Urban Share of MFI Borrowers

<i>Year</i>	<i>Rural</i>	<i>Urban</i>	<i>Total</i>
	184	91	275
2015	(67)	(33)	(100)
	185	145	330
2016	(56)	(44)	(100)
	122	249	371
2017	(33)	(67)	(100)
	152	247	399
2018	(38)	(62)	(100)
	180	115	295
2019	(61)	(39)	(100)

Source: Bharat Micro Finance Report 2018-19

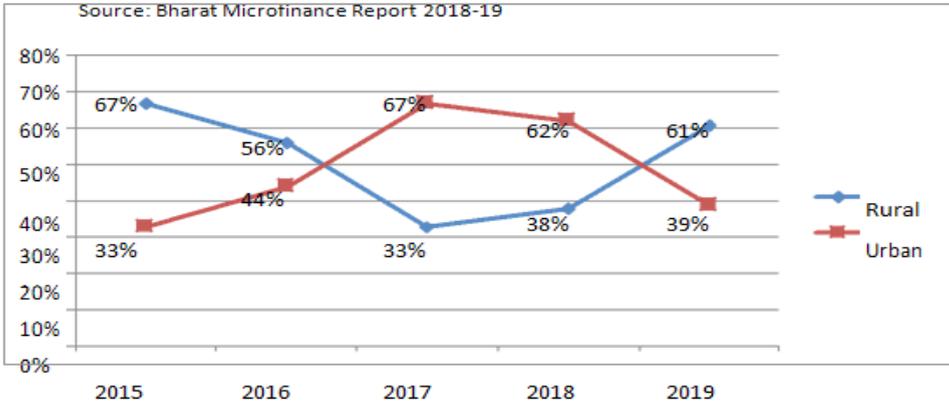


Figure 1: Trends in Rural and Urban Share of MFI Borrowers

Indian microfinance was basically considered as a rural miracle. The part of rural segment was 67 percent in 2017 which decreased to 56 percent in 2016 and has drastically reduced to 33 % in 2015. During the year for instance in 2018 the part of rural client marginally increased to 38 percent. It is first time that urban client base outpaced rural client base. In any case, in the year for instance in the year 2019, significant improvement was found in the part of rural client which increased to 61 percent. In 2019, the pattern of rural to urban is the reverse of pattern of 2019 because of exclusion of 6 SFBs. One of the key finding from this assessment shows that little evaluated of MFIs are rural driven.

PURPOSES OF LOAN

Traditionally, MFIs have been loaning for both consumption and gainful purposes. It is accepted that needy individuals utilize their advances for their emergency and consumption needs more than for occupations. In 2015, RBI guideline stipulated that a minimum of half of the MFI advances are to be sent for income creating exercises.

Table 2: Income generation loans and non- income generation loans (Rs crore)

Year	Income generation loan	Non income generation loan	Total
	23474.36	2321.64	25796
2015	(91)	(9)	(100)
	30846.4	7711.6	38558
2016	(80)	(20)	(100)
	47129.6	11782.4	58912

2017	(80)	(20)	(100)
	68004.3	4340.7	72345
2018	(94)	(6)	(100)
	44579.95	7867.05	52447
2019	(85)	(15)	(100)

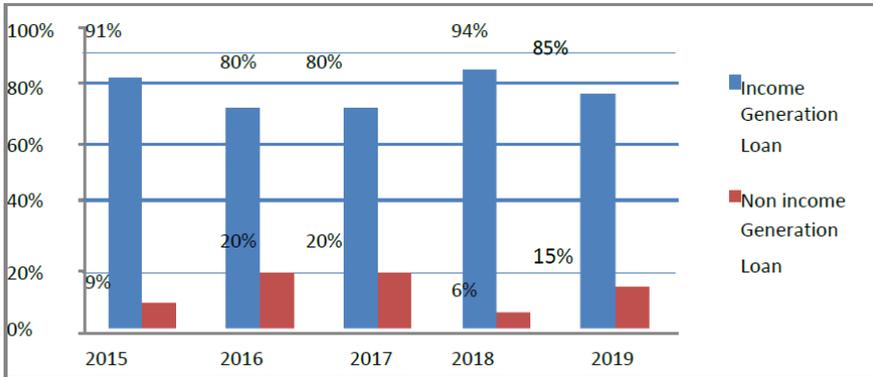


Figure 2: Income generation loans and non- income generation loans

Table 2 and figure 2 shows that the proportion of income generation credit was 91 percent during the year 2015 which decreased to 80 percent during the year 2016. The proportion of income generation credit stayed same during the following year for example 2015. During the year 2018 it increased up to 94 percent. In the year 2019 the proportion of income generation advance to non-income generation advance is 85:15. Agribusiness, creature farming and trading are significant sub-segments where income generation loans are conveyed. Non-income generation loans are utilized for consumption, lodging, education, water and sanitation, wellbeing, and so on. As high as 31 percent of the absolute income producing advance was disbursed for trading and private company followed by horticulture 30 percent and creature cultivation (22 %). The remainder of the proportion of income producing credit was disbursed to move, house, handiwork and different exercises.

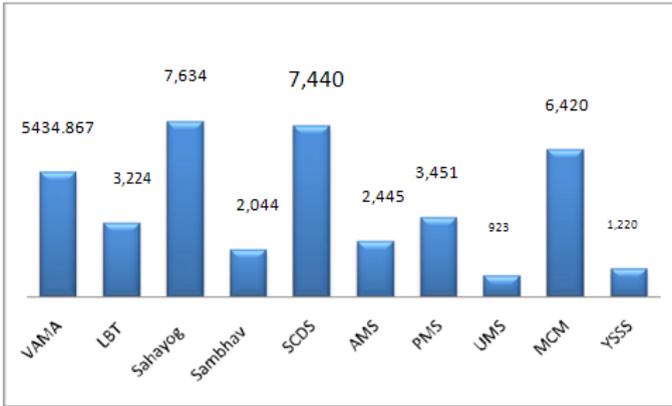
Hypothesis 1- Active Borrower have significant positive relationship with the operational performance of MFIs

Microfinance area is commanded by hardly any enormous MFIs as far as customer effort and portfolio size. Presents the growth trends of gross loan portfolio for the particular microfinance institutions remembered for the examination. The loan portfolio of the institutions has exhibited a rising trend regardless of varieties between the institutions. As can be found in the table , for VAMA the loan portfolio expanded by more than twice (from 590102 Rs. Crore in 2012 to 2234867 Rs. Crore in 2018) ; three – overlap for LBT (from 518210 Rs. Crore in 2012 to 3,020205

Rs. Crore in 2018). The Microfinance suppliers like SCDS, Sahayog additionally indicated the expanding trend from 2012 to 2018 in net loan portfolio. All in all the MFIs loan portfolio increases till 2014 and shows an abrupt decline in 2015 because of emergency in microfinance area. In year 2016 and 2017 gives an indication of recuperation by picking up unmistakable quality through extensive loan portfolio growth.

Table 3: Gross Loan Portfolio by MFIs

Year	VAMA	LBT	Sahayog	Samb- hav	SCDS	AMS	PMS	UMS	MCM	YSS
2012	590,102	518210	2,635,398	384005	410,506	286,000	658,648	518,3000	1,500,000	251,700
2013	623,994	710369	2,508,558	530240	590001	847500	611869	530660	31000000	314000
2014	1,114,734	919220	4769582	751960	641422	1195200	555441	816977	3246231	352000
2015	2,181,937	1691661	6041190	1026526	816977	1604100	574343	427230	2569632	547600
2016	1,186,151	1004831	6726360	1478323	5296858	2207000	653381	2569632	4523567	645670
2017	2,186,486	2103500	6653446	1659123	6226858	2512003	1606440	641422	5282593	786650
2018	1414561.29	3,020,205	7654340	1845234	11440132	3616162	2604340	882630	5450450	1048129



This hypothesis is (acknowledged) according to figuring done in above table which appeared a positive coefficient(1.402E-7) and it is statistically irrelevant variable with the p esteem 0.288 more than .05 . Likewise according to which depends on the correlation between Number of Active Borrower and Operational self – adequacy, the correlation is sure between these 2 elements, so this hypothesis is(accepted).

Table 4: Descriptive study

	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
ACTB	43491	2.00E+07	1.82E+06	3.91E+07
CAR	-1	2	0.58	0.77
YEILD	0	2	1.27	0.481
DER	0	143	40.68	49.087
ROA	-74	61	0.95	38.634
ROE	-9	60	19.24	22.708
OSS	6	14	7.54	1.909
EFFICIENCY	0	4	7.54	0.871
ABCO	1059	4796	1.17	945.674
ASSETS	1	635657	2669.75	2.14E+06
PAR>30	0	6	3.11E+05	1.631
Valid N	20			

The operational exhibition of institutions which is estimated by Operational Self-Sufficiency has maximum estimation of 14.00 and least estimation of 6.00. The perceptions show the OSS averagely incentive to be 7.54 during the examination time of (2012-2018). According to the Capital to assets proportion variable the base worth is - 1.0 and maximum worth shows 2.10. The mean worth outcomes recommend that about 58% of the all out assets of the example MFIs were financed

by shareholders reserves while the remaining was financed by store liabilities. The quantity of active borrowers assumes a significant job to know the effort and position of the MFIs in the market. The mean an incentive in the genuine type of the variable is 1.82E6 while the maximum and least qualities are 43491 and 2.E7 individually with the standard deviation to be 3.92E7. In the event of Yield on net loan portfolio the average mean worth is 1.27 with the maximum estimation of 2.14 and least worth shows 0.36 between the MFIs .The standard deviation between the MFIs in regards to Yield on loan portfolio is 48%, this plainly demonstrates a portion of the MFIs have extremely low yield on portfolio bringing about low operational execution.

Table 5: ANOVA

	<i>Model</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
1	Regression	62.136	9	6.904	9.705	.000 ^a
	Residual	7.114	10	0.711		
	Total	69.25	19			
a. Predictors: (Constant), ACTB, EFFICENCY, ROE, ROA, YEILD, ASSETS, CAR, DER, PAR>30						
b. Dependent Variable: OSS						

The estimation of balanced R square clarifies that 80 % of the variety in the needy variable for example Operational Self Sufficiency (operational execution) is because of varieties in independent factors taken together in particular Number of Active Borrowers, Capital/Assets Ratio, Yield on net loan portfolio, Debt/Equity Ratio, operational productivity, Portfolio Quality, Size and ROA mutually. In this way these factors all things considered, are the incredible logical factors of the operational exhibition MFIs in Madhya Pradesh. The staying 20 % of progress is clarified by different components which are excluded from the model. Estimation of R is huge by p-esteem (0.000) of F measurements appeared in ANOVA shows solid factual importance. Every factor is portrayed in detail under the accompanying areas.

IMPACT ON POVERTY REDUCTION

Table 2 above presents results from the PSM model that was assessed for comparison purposes with the treatment impact model outcomes. Three matching estimators, the backwards likelihood loads, the closest neighbor and the inclination score matching calculations were utilized for full scale come factors as strength checks. The three estimators result shows that microfinance significantly affects the income of clients. Participants got all the more month to month income when contrasted with non-participants. In this regard, the distinction among participants and nonparticipants in complete month to month income is significant at 1% significant level. ATT consequences of these calculations show that interest in the microfinance

program increased income of the family unit by birr 493.31, birr 461.63 and birr 465.49 for reverse likelihood loads, closest neighborhood and inclination score matching separately. The normal income evaluated utilizing the converse likelihood loads matching calculation is higher than that of the other two matching calculations. Also, there is a slight contrast in the normal month to month income distinction of member and their counter factual between the consequences of these calculations and aftereffect of simple t-test going from birr 19.04 to birr 50.72 for backwards likelihood loads and closest neighborhood matching calculations. This show, the distinction uncovered with these calculations is the main contrast with cooperation to microfinance or not and the contrast between the consequence of these calculations and the aftereffect of t-test is the distinction with un noticeable factors. Looking at the outcomes over the diverse matching strategies demonstrate that the assessed microfinance sway is vigorous.

IMPACT ON SAVING LEVEL OF BENEFICIARIES

Table 2 shows that participants spare more when contrasted with non-participants. The ATT consequence of the over three calculations uncovered that participants' sparing status is significant at 1% significant level. Results show that cooperation in the microfinance program increased the measure of sparing of the non-member by birr 155.06, birr 143.895 and birr 144.66 dependent on the ATT consequences of Inverse-probability loads, Nearest Neighborhood and Propensity-score matching calculations separately. This implies the measure of sparing of treatment customer is higher with these figures contrasted with control clients. These figures are littler contrasted with the distinction of sparing among member and non-member simple t-test which is 161.19. This shows the robustness of the PSM strategy and this is the motivation behind why the scientist decisions this technique.

IMPACT ON HEALTH EXPENDITURE

Table 2 shows that participants' consumption on wellbeing is higher when contrasted with nonparticipants. This shows participants have an entrance to get wellbeing treatment for his/her family part. In this regard, the contrast among participants and non-participants is significant at 1% probability level. Results show that participation in the microfinance program increased consumption on soundness of the family unit by birr 80.398, birr 82.49 and birr 78.8 utilizing ATT aftereffects of Inverse-probability loads, Nearest Neighborhood and Propensity-score matching calculations individually. The contrasts between these outcomes and t-test result ranges from 15.66 to 19.35 for Propensity-score matching and Nearest Neighborhood separately. Showing the most robustness of Propensity-score matching calculation contrasted with different techniques and conservativeness

of t-test. This distinction originates from the effects of un perceptible factors to the scientist. Thus, the contrast among member and non-member in view of microfinance participation is the consequence of these calculations with the best one is the aftereffect of Propensity-score matching calculation.

IMPACT ON CHILDREN'S EDUCATION EXPENDITURE

Table 2 uncovers that participants consume more for education when contrasted with non-participants. In this regard, the contrast among participants and nonparticipants is significant at 1% probability level. Results show that participation in the program increased consumption on education of the family unit by birr 161.112, birr 135.77 and birr 166.63 for ATT consequences of Inverse-probability loads, Nearest Neighborhood and Propensity-score matching calculations individually. From these outcomes, aftereffects of inclination score matching is higher demonstrating its conservativeness contrasted with other two.

Table 6: Impact of microfinance

<i>Outcome Variable</i>	<i>Matching Method</i>	<i>ATT</i>	<i>Std. Err</i>	<i>z-value</i>
Income of Clients	Inverse-probability weights	493.31***	116.53	4.23
	Nearest Neighborhood	461.63***	115.33	4.00
	Propensity-score matching	465.49***	117.34	3.97
Savings of Clients	Inverse-probability weights	155.06***	38.93	3.98
	Nearest Neighborhood	143.06***	38.57	3.73
	Propensity-score matching	144.66***	39.06	3.70
Expenditure on Health	Inverse-probability weights	80.40***	8.31	9.68
	Nearest Neighborhood	82.49***	9.86	8.37
	Propensity-score matching	78.80***	1080	7.29
Expenditure on Children education	Inverse-probability weights	161.11***	16.39	9.83
	Nearest Neighborhood	135.77***	29.10	4.67
	Propensity-score matching	166.33***	19.20	8.66

Significant at 1% probability level Source: Authors' survey result (2017)

CONCLUSION

The present study applied ongoing advances in penchant score matching strategies to evaluate the effect of microfinance on poverty reduction. For comparison the investigation gave assessed results treatment and control bunches independently. There are a few alluring highlights related with affinity score matching, including the possibility to take into account heterogeneous effects, while ideally weighting watched attributes while developing a comparison gathering. We found that

microfinance has been proved to be the most grounded apparatus accessible to fight out poverty and inspire a huge number of Indians to a quality of life. With in excess of 10 million young Indians joining the workforce consistently, microfinance can be of huge use to give beneficial work to them. Financial consideration and financial proficiency through computerized means can change the manner in which rural India banks. The programmes like Jan Dhan yojana and other insurance schemes by present Indian Government attempted to boost to the rural economy however the whole endeavors of the corporates, banks and the legislature ought to be together defeated the purpose. But micro finance has shown promise, particularly in all-round empowerment of women and weaker sections of our society.

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SEZs AS A NEO-LIBERAL STRATEGY IN INDIA: A CRITICAL REFLECTION

Varsha Maheshwari*

Abstract

The present paper explores a critique of affirmative objectives of Special Economic Zones (SEZs) in India, in context of- Investment, Employment and Exports. We have presented an absolute and relative picture of the aforementioned independent variables regarding SEZs to explain its performance through descriptive analysis. A brief illustration has been done on account of economic reforms undertaken during planning period with respect to export-oriented growth strategies to promote industrialization to attain a long-term objective of export promotion, foreign investment and employment generation in India. The analysis exhibits that, the purposeful establishment of zones does not realize its determined objectives. The level of employment in the zones hasn't reached even half the amount of investment in and exports from zones. And also, there is fall in employment elasticity irrespective of the rising numbers of SEZs in India over the years. Thus, SEZs as a development scheme for increasing investment, employment generation and exports has not performed or achieved its mission for development in India as it was dreamed about.

Keywords: Neoliberalism, Development, Labour, Export Processing Zones (EPZs) and Special Economic Zones (SEZs)

THE BACKDROP

In the 20th century the World experienced two major wars. The basic component of the post-world war II was the revival of growth in concern with economic progress of the nonindustrial economies (Ranis, 1968). As Rapley, 2002 analyzed that

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after World War II the newly independent countries had three main options for industrialization and growth. These were firstly, autarky; secondly accessing foreign capital to build industrial sector and using the state as an institution/ authority to accumulate and thirdly, exercise control over necessary resources. Out of the three, the developing countries opted for blend of last two, what became to be known as strategy of Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI) (cited in Engel, 2010). Both Latin America and Asian countries used Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI) at first. However, during 1950s and 1960s the Asian countries like Taiwan and South Korea started focusing on outward-oriented policies like export-led growth but Latin American continued with ISI. Thus, Industrialization expanded its scope and due to the success of export-led growth, it was considered to be the 'best strategy' to promote development (Devi, 2014).

During 1950s to 1970s, many transition economy like Japan, South Korea and Taiwan adopted the policy of 'export-oriented' growth strategies to promote industrialization through custom-free manufacturing which led to the establishment of Export Processing Zones (Omar & Stoever 2008).

According to World Bank (1992), "an export processing zones is fenced-in industrial estate of 10 to 300 hectares specializing in manufacturing for exports that offers firms free trade conditions and a liberal regulatory environment." Establishing EPZs as a key instrument was not only for export promotion and foreign exchange earnings but also to encourage growth through 'additional investment'; 'technological transfers' and 'employment generation' (Aggarwal 2007, 2012); Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Export Zones as a strategy was also used as 'experimental laboratories' for free market, where China is a classic example by setting up SEZs in 1979 under a socialist regime (Madani, 1999).

EPZs as an industrialization strategy used as a striking development tool by various countries shows an immense increase in the number of countries with EPZs. From the table 1, it is evident that, in 1975, 29 countries had established a total of 79 operational EPZs which increased to 3500 in 2006 with respective increase in the number of countries with EPZs to 130. However, the proportionate increase in employment is not much as compared to increase in number of operational EPZs in the time frame.

Table 1: The development of Export Processing Zones, 1975-2006

	1975	1986	1995	1997	2002	2006
No. of countries with EPZs	29	47	73	93	116	130
No. of EPZs	79	176	500	845	3000	3500
Employment (millions)	NA	NA	NA	22.5	43	66

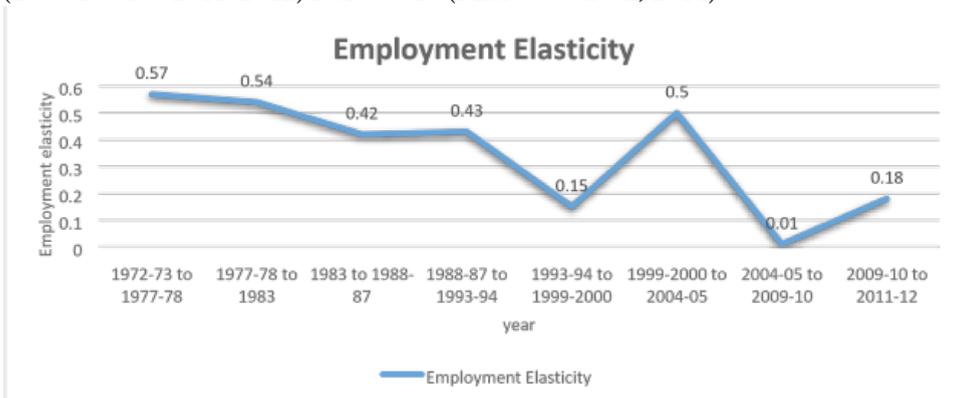
Source: (ILO, 2008)

INDIA THROUGH DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

Historically, India's industrialization was preoccupied more with 'import-substitution' as a development strategy to maximize exports. (Paul, 1969). India in between 1951- 1961 adopted the Harrod-Domar Model and Mahalanobis Model as a strategy for rapid industrialization which gave emphasis on public sector, heavy and basic industries, closely resembled Feldman's model developed in the USSR in 1920s (Ray, 2015). During this period, India's industrialization based development strategy did not perceived employment as a major concern, as public sector facilitated good quality employment (Papola & Sahu, 2012).

During 1960s, under the strategy of 'export-promotion' during Import-substitution Industrialization (ISI) regime, the government set up an Export processing Zones (EPZs) in Kandla in 1965 and became the first Asian country to adopt this model. In 1988, the Ministry of Commerce clarified the objectives behind the establishment of EPZs in India. To increase foreign exchange earnings, develop export-oriented industries, stimulate domestic and foreign investment and generate employment opportunities (Mansingh, Eluri and Sreejesh, 2012). The first EPZs was set up in Kandla (Gujrat) in 1965. It was followed by the Santa Cruz EPZs (Mumbai) which came in operation in 1973. Later on in 1980s Government set up 5 more EPZs at Noida (Uttar Pradesh), Falta (West Bengal), Cochin (Kerela), Chennai (Tamil Nadu) and Vishakhapatnam (Andhra Pradesh).

From 1970s to 1990s onwards, employment was a major concern. There was disbalance between economic activities and demographic performance of the economy. From the figure 2.1 below, we can see a continuous fall in the employment elasticity from 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. The employment elasticity from post-reform (1993-1994 to 2011-2012) fell to 0.18 (Misra & Suresh, 2014).



Source: Misra & Suresh, RBI Working Paper series 6/2014

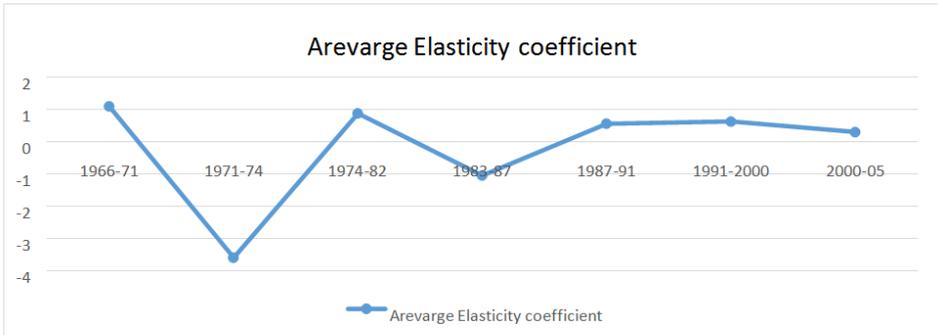
Figure: 2.1: Employment elasticity: CAGR Approach

The advocates of reforms gave assured statements as growth will lead to higher employment, on the contrary, critics of reforms stated that liberalization will bring more capital-intensive technology or labour-saving techniques which will increase unemployment. Labour reforms will be made liberal and flexible. They added, that higher growth rate will not lead to higher growth of employment (Papola & Sahu, 2012).

The IMF-World Bank procedure, in India has been in operation since mid-70s, quickened in 80s and thus accelerated in 90s (Minocha, 1991). After 1990s there was extensive modification in the process of opening up of the economy. It may be noted that the Industrial policy since 1991, has been drastically modified and changed from 'inward-looking import substitution to outward looking export policy' (Bhat, 2014). The government made major changes in its policy on trade, foreign investment, tariffs and taxes under the name of 'New Economic Reforms' which strengthen market forces and reduced state interventions (Pradhan, 1997). The main focus of this reform was Liberalization, openness and export promotion activity (Kumari & Malhotra, 2014).

In the Industrial sector the 'delicensing' and 'dereservation' policy were adopted for the private players to participate in the high-priority industries. The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act was diluted in favor of the capitalist giants. One more point to 'bear in mind' that these strategies were not inevitable rather they were done by the political choice, and also predefined as which group of the society will bear the burden (Chandrashekhar & Ghosh, 2006). Thus, India moved from planned framework to Market-oriented strategy.

During the time when EPZs was flourishing in the Asian countries, India was far behind in the strategy of EPZs, the reason given was poor implementation of strategies, multiplicity of controls and clearances, the absence of the world-class infrastructure, unstable fiscal regime. Most authors address that the success of EPZs depends on the integrated national Industrialization strategy (Amirahmadi and Wu, 1995) which India needed. India used EPZs as a trade strategy instead to be used as a tool. The EPZs lacked in forward-backward linkages and technology transfers, because lack of high quality of input reduces backward linkages. The forward linkage was not possible because the products had to be exported (Jayanthakumaran, 2002). Thus, analysis of Zones in context of employment elasticity during various phases of expansion has been shown in the figure 2.2 below:



Source: Aradhana Aggrawal, ICRIER, Working Paper, 194 (2007).

Figure 2.2: Employment Elasticity of SEZs during various phases of Zone expansion

“Employment generating potential of SEZs as reflected in the employment elasticity of exports is directly linked with their expansions (Aggarwal, 2007).” [This is so because SEZs was a strategy under export-led growth. So, employment elasticity is calculated with respect to exports].

From the figure 2.2 : the employment elasticity reduced from 1.09 to -3.59 from 1966-1971 to 1971-1974, the reason for positive employment elasticity (1.09) was the establishment of Kandla Zone in 1965, this expansion led to increase in exports and providing employment and the reason for negative employment elasticity (-3.59) was that during 1971-1974 there was no expansion in zones. Later in 1987-1991 the employment elasticity increased to 0.55, as 4 new zones were setup.

In 2000, Union Commerce and Industry Minister Mr. Murasoli Maran while announcing the New Exim Policy on March 31, 2000, came up with a new concept of Special Economic Zones (SEZs) merging both Free Trade Zones (FTZs) and Export Processing Zones (EPZs), we emulated China’s SEZs success (Raman and Diwan, 2002). This year showed a positive increase in employment elasticity from 0.55 to 0.62, as SEZs investment expanded, leading to increase in exports and employment. The EXIM Policy (2002-2007) laid emphasis on the concept of SEZs. Based on the dismal performance of export in 2001-02 it directed a fall in the employment elasticity from 0.62 in 1991-2000 to 0.295 in 2000-2005. The EXIM policy was made ‘ambitious and innovative’, new initiatives were given like-removal of export quantitative restrictions (QRs); facilities to SEZs as sale from DTA to SEZs as deemed exports; providing Offshore Banking Units (OBUs) was a path breaking measure (Mukhopadhyay, 2002). Commerce and Industry Minister Arun Jaitley has provided several incentives for making SEZs as a ‘trouble-free’, ‘investment-friendly environment’ for both Indian and foreign units working under these zones to manufacture at a global competitive prices. On the contrary,

Jaitley concedes that most of the projects are still ‘bogged down’ due to delays in land acquisitions (EPW eds, 2003).

With the announcement of SEZs scheme, three existing EPZs were converted into SEZs (Kandla, Santa Cruz and Cochin) from November 1, 2000. Later from January 1, 2003 Noida EPZ; Falta EPZ, Madras EPZ and Vishakhapatnam EPZs were converted into SEZs. This is shown in the table 2 below:

Table 2: Central Government SEZs set up prior to enactment of SEZs Act, 2005

<i>Sr. No.</i>	<i>Name of SEZ</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Type of SEZ</i>	<i>EPZ to SEZ (Year)</i>	<i>Jurisdiction</i>
1.	Kandla EPZ	Kandla, Gujarat	Multi-product	1965 to 2000	Gujarat
2.	Santa Cruz EPZ	Mumbai, Maharashtra	Gems and Jewellery and electronics	1973 to 2000	Maharashtra, Goa
3.	Noida EPZ	Uttar Pradesh	Multi-Product	1985 to 2003	UP, Rajasthan, Haryana, Uttaranchal, Punjab, Delhi, J & K, Himachal Pradesh, Chandigarh
4.	Madras EPZ	Chennai, Tamil Nadu	Multi-Product	1984 to 2003	Tamil Nadu & Lakshadweep
5.	Cochin EPZ	Cochin, Kerala	Multi-Product	1985 to 2003	Kerala, Karnataka & Lakshadweep
6.	Falta EPZ	Falta, West Bengal	Multi-Product	1984 to 2003	All eastern and north eastern states
7.	Vishakhapatnam EPZ	Vishakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh	Multi-Product	1989 to 2003	Andhra Pradesh

Source: MoCI; SEZ.nic. Retrieved on July 7, 2018

ESTABLISHMENT OF SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONE (SEZ)

According to the World Bank (2008), the modern day Special Economic Zone typically includes a “geographically limited area, usually physically secured (fenced-in); single management/ administration; eligibility for benefits based upon physical location with the zone; separate customs area (duty-free benefits) and streamlined procedures.” Special economic zone are those industrial zone which

have been set up by government of India to attract foreign companies to invest in the country (World Bank 2008). “The SEZ Act, 2005 supported by SEZ Rules, came into effect on February 10, 2006. It envisioned that the SEZs would attract a large flow of foreign and domestic investment in infrastructure and productive capacity leading to generation of additional economic activity and creating of employment opportunities” (MoCI 2010).

Objectives of SEZs Act are: Generation of additional economic activity; Promotion of export of goods and services; Promotion of investment from domestic and foreign sources; Creation of employment opportunities; Development of infrastructure facilities and Maintenance of sovereignty and integrity of India, the security of the state and friendly relations with foreign states.

CONTESTING SEZS

SEZs frenzy have been in debates time and again. After the SEZs Act was passed in the year 2005, there was a speedy establishments of SEZs by different states by wooing the investors with lucrative incentives, tax concessions, custom facilitation and other regulatory concessions. But has underwent criticism on the context of misuse of land by real estate development; displacement of farmers; revenue loss and uneven growth leading to rise in inequalities (Aggrawal 2006; Ranjan 2006). Chief Economist, Raghuram Rajan questioned the rationale of the SEZ policy, stating that the tax holidays or fiscal concessions will result in losses in revenue which the government can't afford. (Frontline 2006). But the state carried upon the carnage on the name of 'development via growth via export'. From the last decade, we have come across mammoth array concerning SEZs which has shown a picture both in favor and against the class-divided society. Thus, in this connection, we are intrigued to examine its well-defined objectives of export promotion, investment from foreign and domestic sources and increased employment opportunities.

NON-PERFORMANCE OF SEZS

SEZs in India are an enhanced versions of EPZs on the lines of 'China's SEZs'. But we differ from China in many ways, first and foremost China's SEZs is a people's SEZs on the contrary India's SEZs is more furbished form of capitalist's SEZs with regard to export promotion and increased investment and shows a socialistic picture through employment generation in SEZs.

After the implementation of SEZs Act, 2005- SEZs has increased in numbers, total investment has gone up and total employment has also increased. The status of SEZs in context of number of approved SEZs, investment and employment from 2016 to 2018 can be depicted from the table 3 below:

Table 3: Fact Sheet of SEZs from 2016 to 2020

	2016 (as on 2.9.2016)	2017 (as on 7.9.2017)	2018 (as on 4.6.2018)	2019 (as on 30.09.2019)	2020 (as on 30.06.2020)
Number of Formal Approval	408	424	419	417	423
Number of notified SEZs	328	354	355	349	357
Operational SEZs	204	222	223	238	255
Units Approved	4,166	4643	5146	5168	5476

	Investment (in Rs. crore)				
	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Central Govt. SEZ	15,178	15,974	18,878.32	19,441.24	20,761
State/ Pvt. SEZs Setup before 2006	10,169	11,478	13,015.31	13,433.15	14,386
SEZs notified under the Act	3,51,147	4,05,690	4,43,023.74	4,88,757.05	5,45,874
TOTAL	3,76,494	4,33,142	4,74,917.37	5,21,631.44	5,81,021

	Employment (in persons)				
	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Central Govt. SEZ	2,38,382	2,34,861	2,36,271	2,27,108	1,83,687
State/ Pvt. SEZs Setup before 2006	84,004	95,970	99,039	1,06,162	1,06,441
SEZs notified under the Act	12,68,995	12,48,020	16,41,906	18,61,2020	19,24,926
TOTAL	15,91,381	17,78,851	19,77,216	21,94,472	22,15,054

Source: SEZs Factsheet various years (sez.nic.in). Retrieved on August, 2020.

From the table 3, we see that, the number of notified and approved SEZs has increased over the years. Total Investment from Central Govt. SEZs has increased from Rs. 15,178 crores to Rs. 20,761 in 2016 and 2020 respectively. But total employment from Central Govt. SEZs has reduced from 2, 38,382 persons to 1, 83,687 persons in 2016 and 2020 respectively. Thus, we can see a 29.77% (negative) fall in the level of total employment in persons from 2016 to 2020. On the contrary, total investment and total employment from State/Pvt. SEZs has increased from Rs.

10,169 crores to 14,386 crores and 84,004 persons to 1,06,441 persons in 2016 and 2020 respectively.

EXPORTS

Export from a country is an important economic indicator of GDP and the status of export decides the trend for employment. The status SEZs in India in context of growth in exports over the years can be shown from figure 3.1.



Source: Ministry of Commerce, Government of India

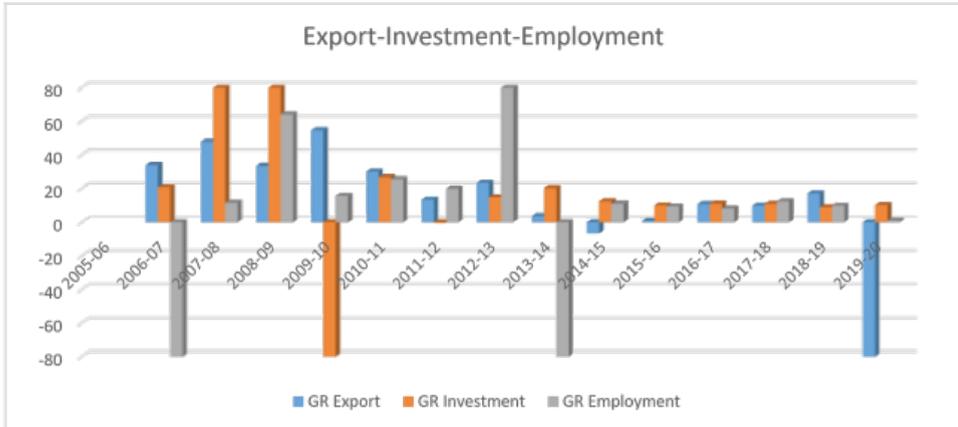
Figure: 3.1: Growth in Exports in SEZs from 2001-02 to 2018-2019

In figure 3.1, the percent increase in exports in SEZs shows an erratic trend. During 2013-2014 the growth in export was 3.6% corresponding to the revenue earned through exports was Rs. 4,94,077crores, the growth in exports fell to -6.5% with a fall in revenue earned through exports to Rs. 4,63,770 crores in 2014-2015. In 2015-2016, the growth of exports increased to 0.76% with an increase in the revenue earned through exports to Rs. 4,67,337 crores (MoCI, various years). SEZs in India shows a positive picture of export values through its percentage share contributing in the total exports of the country. The percentage share of SEZs exports increased from 19.60% to 23.70% from 2012-2013 to 2015-2016 respectively. Thus, it shows a decisive trend, in context that more investment should be done to facilitate exports from SEZs which may lead to more employment in the economy. Thus, from the table 3 and figure 3.1, we could infer that the level of investment, employment and exports has been increasing from year-on-year on an absolute terms, but we need to look closely and relatively the effect of one upon another.

INVESTMENT-EMPLOYMENT-EXPORT

We need to examine the aforementioned objectives of SEZs for export promotion, investment from foreign and domestic sources and increased employment opportunities.

Thus, the performance of investment made, employment generated and exports from SEZs during the financial years from 2005-06 to 2019- 2020 (upto June 30, 2020) has shown in the figure 3.3 below.



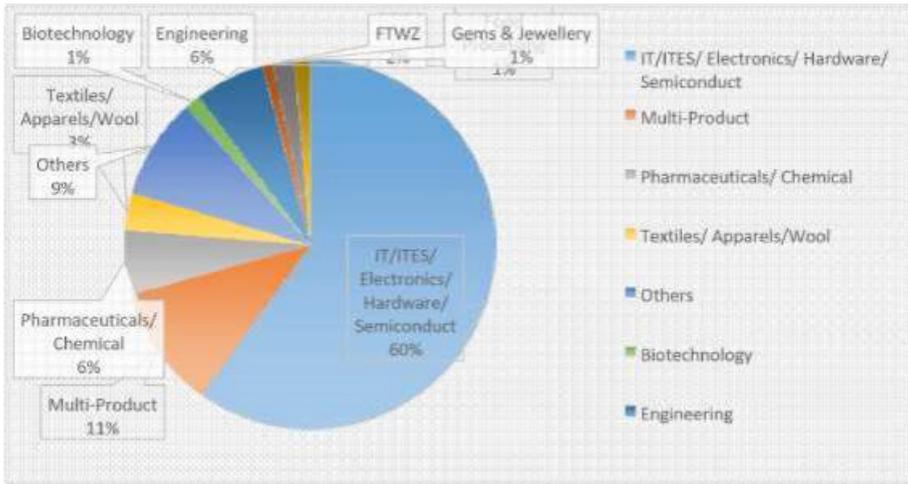
Source: Ministry of Commerce, Government of India

Figure 3.3: Performance of Export-Investment-Employment in SEZs (2005-06 to 2019-2020)

The figure 3.3, gives a clear picture of the performance of SEZs in India in context of Export, Investment and Employment from 2005-2006 to 2019-2020 (upto June 30, 2020). Growth rate of exports from SEZs shows a positive average of 13.50% as compared to investment and employment. Exports from SEZs has shown an increasing trend except recently due to pandemic. There is a 97% increase in exports and 99% increase in investment since 2005-06 till date but it failed to push up employment in SEZs which was one of the prime reasons to establish the zones. Employment in SEZs has meagerly increased by 45% since 2005-06 which isn't half of its exports or investment made. Thus, it is clear from the facts that the growth of employment (in persons) in SEZs are not symmetric with the rising trends of exports (in Rs. Crores) and investment (in Rs. Crores) made in SEZs.

PATTERN OF SKEWNESS

The government promises for employment opportunities in these zones. But the data reveals that the maximum number of zones are distributed in highly skilled sectors like IT/ITeS, which requires a lot of skill and training. This can be seen from the following diagram.



Source: sez.nic.in. Retrieved on June 24, 2018

Diagram 1: Sector-wise Distribution of SEZs in India (as on 01.12.2017)

The diagram 1 clears that's 60% of the SEZs are located in IT/ITES which requires only 10 hectares of land. On the contrary, 11% of SEZs is multi-product where the land requirement has been reduced to 500 hectares from 1000 hectares of land according to the amendment made on the SEZs Rule 2006 (amendment in 2013). This is prominent transpose from export-oriented manufacturing to building residential complexes, commercial malls, hotels etc. making huge profits (Ranjan 2006). Thus, SEZs in India has contributed more in the area of IT/ITES than in manufacturing sector. According to the CAG Report 2014 emphasis that in India 56.64% of SEZs cater to IT/ITES sector and only 9.6% to the multi-product manufacturing sector. This is a lopsided picture of distribution of SEZs. (Sahoo, 2015). Increasing number of sector-specific zone especially IT/ITES is forming a viable business option for the developers. As it evades land disputes and unrest because it requires minimum land of 10 hectares to build. On the contrary, with more IT/ITES sector-specific SEZs, huge property development is involved due to the nature of proportion of processing and nonprocessing areas. Thus, it will boost real estate activities which shows a negative impact of SEZs (Lakshmanan, 2009). The analysis displayed shift of manufacturing oriented SEZs to IT/ITES zones which has decreased the land acquirement and setting new goals for earning returns from IT as it reduces unrest from labour and cost of land.

With this, the employment in India has increased of 'technically efficient skilled-labour' who are fewer in numbers and the ones who are greater in numbers are unskilled labour who pays the cost in terms of livelihood.

CONCLUSION

This paper uses descriptive analysis to explore the objectives of SEZs in context of Investment, Employment and Exports. After the SEZs Act was passed in the year 2005, there was speedy establishments of SEZs by different states by encouraging investors with lucrative incentives, tax concessions, custom facilitation and other regulatory concessions. But this strategy has undergone heavy criticism on the context of misuse of land by real estate development; displacement of farmers; revenue loss and uneven growth leading to rise in inequalities. Though regardless of these denunciations, the State carried upon the carnage on the name of 'development via growth via export'.

Liberalization brought labour-saving machineries or more capital-intensive technologies which increased the level of unemployment in India contrary to the objectives specified by the development strategies. The blatant schemes of the private players to provide increasing growth leading to increasing employment opportunities was futile in nature. These private business houses demanded for congenial environment for investment and production in the form of flexible labour reforms. To meet the objectives of the development schemes for increasing foreign and domestic earnings and investment, the government made major labour reforms. These reforms had an adverse impact with regard to the working conditions of labour. More and more downsizing and retrenchment process began by the private players. Changing quality and structure of employment made the labour more vulnerable. The quality of employment reduced, which was once the strength of the public sector during 1950s. We can infer from the above analysis that, the state driven employment was better than the market-driven employment. Thus, liberalization was unsuccessful to accomplish the outcomes expected out of it. However, India successfully achieved its 'capitalist agenda' of Foreign and domestic investment and export promotion through SEZs but somewhere it failed to fulfill its 'socialist' agenda of employment generation.

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ONLINE AND DIGITAL EDUCATION: ISSUES AND CONCERNS FOR INDIA

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Abstract

Worldwide lockdown to stop the spread of COVID-19 prevented the execution of economic and non-economic activities, resulting in unrest all-around. Although several sectors were likely to face severe consequences in post lockdown scenario, nevertheless it was also not possible to ignore the guidelines of Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) and Ministry of Education (MoE) as well as World Health Organization (WHO) as lockdown was considered as an effective means to prevent the spread of Coronavirus. Thus, it was a crucial time for education sector as there was separation among teachers and learners. More importantly, School Board examinations across the country were on final phase of its completion and new academic session was set to commence from early April, were kept on hold. Similarly, university and colleges were preparing for undertaking annual examination. Even after completion of board examination students were all set to appear in the entrance examination such as JEE, NEETS and such other entrance examinations, but this could not happen due to this crisis.

Due to sudden lockdown, there was complete disconnect among the learners and learning institutions as a result there was anxiety and unrest all around. In order to establish communication with the learners to sustain their interest, several initiatives were taken by the cross section of people including educational administrators, teaching and non-teaching staff at pre- school, school, college and university level so that the unrest among the learners could be addressed and minimized and they

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may be engaged in the learning activities. Therefore, online platform such as Zoom, Google Meet, WebEx, Microsoft Team, Global GoToMeeting etc. were used, besides establishing communication with the learners through FB live, WhatsApp groups, email and SMSs. Thus, there was a surge in so called online and digital education platforms which couldn't be digested by experts and advocates of philosophy of Open and Distance Learning (ODL) and Online and Digital Education (ODE) and they simply negated this efforts and called it Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT) which will not be remembered once situation returns to normalcy (Toquer, 2020, Bozkurt and Sharma, 2020, Lynch, 2020). These authors further argued that that the pandemic has brought tremendous pressure particularly on developing countries as they were not ready forth is immediate paradigm shift from conventional learning to online and digital education.

Therefore, Hodges et al. (2020), argued that 'well planned online learning experiences are meaningfully different from the courses offered online in response to a crisis'. Moreover, sudden shift from conventional mode of learning to online without understanding the gambit of the system was another disaster mainly the institutions of all size and types engaged their teaching staff to deliver online classes without realizing the availability of required infrastructure and competency to handle the same at the receiving end, particularly for the parents of kindergarten kids it was an additional burden besides undertaking day to day care of there economic and household activities. The education institutions ignored the availability of electronic devices and internet data plan and more than meeting the teaching requirement of the learners it was also to address the commercial interest particularly by the private institutions. Thus, this was the birth to another crisis as kids from kindergarten(pre-primary) to matured learners of universities and colleges were forced to be online irrespective of availability of required infrastructure in terms of electronic devices and data plan. It has also been argued that 'abrupt migration to online learning has caused disruptions to student, staff, and faculty lives' (Bozkurt and Sharma 2020). Considering the geo-physical and socio-economic conditions of the country like India the students may not cope up with sudden shift to online education and this aspect was completely ignored by the education administrators and academics while delivering the online course during COVID-19 crisis. Thus, in the present research paper an attempt has been made to assess the issues pertaining to online and digital education based on the perception of stakeholders.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Thus, in the backdrop of COVID-19 a research study was conducted to assess the various steps for the implementation of the online and digital education in India based on the feedback submitted by respondents who were the faculty of the

university and colleges including faculty of technical education institutions. In this research paper an attempt has been made to critically analyze the pros and cons of the emerging issues for developing a suitable mechanism for implementation of online and digital education. Thus, the present research will seek to analyse the pre-requisites required for successful implementation of the online and digital education in India. Therefore, the research study will address the following objectives:

- Assessment of pre-requisites available to offer online and digital education in India in the context of National Educational Policy 2020 guidelines.
- How implementation of online and digital education could be made effective in varied geo-physical settings.
- To analyze the availability of human and physical infrastructure for effective implementation of online and digital education.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A survey was conducted with help of questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to the faculty respondents of the conventional and technical educational institutions. Thus, the important questions included how to make online and digital education delivery interesting, assessment strategies for assessing the aptitude of the learners using ITC Tools, modification in the curriculum towards holistic development of students, identification of alternative means for delivering content in the low bandwidth areas where internet connectivity is slow, strategies for ensuring the availability of smartphone to the students with poor economic condition and strategies for improving online education and its components such as examination, governance with the help of ITC support.

IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES

Creation of Basic Infrastructure: In order to implement the online and digital education in the country, the need for developing suitable infrastructure has to be assessed and accordingly greater emphasis should be laid on creation of such infrastructures to accomplish the task for providing online and digital education. It has been estimated that only 24% Indians have smartphones (Varun B. Krishnan 2018) which has shown 2% increase over previous and the availability of computers and internet is also pathetic.

The National Education Policy 2020 (NEP20) emphasized on development suitable infrastructure across the length and breadth of the country. It has also been realized that despite, revaluation in information and communication technology, there are a considerable number of populace who are still not having individual

desktop and laptop, therefore in the absence of electronic gadgets at individual and public level the alternatives have to be identified, therefore district libraries and even community information centers(CICs) could be developed as a nodal point for accessing such facilities on the payment of nominal charges and these centres needs to be augmented with required facilities. It has been realized that such facilities can be used by the learners at all level including school going students to the students of the institute of higher learning including universities and colleges of the country.

There may be several arguments on identifying the desired infrastructure, and it is also not possible to ignore that fact that during Covid-19 crisis, during lockdown and after lockdown there was inquisitiveness among the stakeholders for losing their clientele as a result, even nursery kids were forced to establish communication with their teachers. This simply increased the tension among the stakeholders including teachers, students, parents and non-teaching staff. However, in order to have better response from both the sides for instance the creator and the users should have better interface. Before offering online courses the answer to the question – online courses will be offered? From where the learner's particularity from SEDGs will have access to computer and internet facilities and when it will be appropriate to offer these courses? - time schedule. Thus, it has been realized that to begin with a short module be inducted as a compulsory course component so that it could develop the pace for online education and learners not having access to devices and data arrangement for the same may also be made involving various agencies.

Skill Development: To make the initiative successful a comprehensive training module should be developed both for teachers and academics involved in design, development and delivery of programme for school as well as higher education level. It has also been realized that the awareness among the teachers and students should be created so that required competencies could be developed at both the end so that online education could be delivered without any technical hitch. Therefore, it has been realized that proper training manual should be prepared and uploaded on the website of education institutions. In order to make the online education popular efforts should be made to make the teaching community computer savvy and this is possible by imparting proper training to them. It is also imperative that the role of teacher and learners will be different and accordingly teacher will have to focus on developing and assessing new methodology based on online peripheral such as electronic gadgets and internet.

Multi-Media Approach: It has also been realized that programme delivery should not be restricted to one media rather multimedia approach should be adopted such as TV, radio network, telephone and mobile should be integrated with the programme delivery so that it can effectively reach to the wider segment of populace

particularly in the country like India which has diverse ethno-cultural settings. Hence the delivery of programme for school level education and laboratory related practical oriented courses by television can be very easy step to start with. Thus, in order to ensure maximum utilization of TV and Radio network followed by telephone and mobile network effective use of Doordarshan and Vividh Bharati radio channels which are reachable to almost every location of India be utilized optimally so that completely transformed in delivery of education programme is ensured.

Internet connectivity and data usages: On the other hand, the problem of uniform internet accessibility is a major hurdle in divergent geo-physical and socio-economic conditions of a country like India. The intermittent break in internet will jeopardize the objective of the online and digital education as communication will be lost at both ends. Moreover, the issue of poor internet connectivity, particularly in rural areas needs to be strengthened. It has also been reported that only '11% households in the country have any type of computers, which include desktops, laptops, notebooks, palmtops and tablets' (Protibha Kundu 2020). The author has further argued that the NSSO survey conducted in 2017-18 '24% Indian population has access to internet such proportion is only 15% in rural areas. It may also be noted that '8% in the age group 5-24 have both computer and internet. On the other hand, the availability of such facilities is pathetic among the 20% socially and economically disadvantaged groups (SEDGS) as '7% have access to a computer and 8.9% to internet facilities. It is also important that the charges for data usages should be within the reach of the common man so that children from lower middle class can also have access to online education. It has also been realized that the provision of data sharing from one device to another be made by integrating the mobile network and to addressed the data availability issue. It is felt that need for a good infrastructure for accessing of online and digital education by all segments of the society is essential and this would be possible by bridging the existing gap. However, we should not forget that only 16 % Indian households receive 8 hours electricity daily and the spread of online and digital education is a challenge and the issue of digital divide under the prevailing circumstances needs to be addressed effectively so that online and digital education become accessible to have only and remain inaccessible to have-not.

PROGRAMME DELIVERY

The delivery of programme is another important component which needs to be visualized properly for dissemination of online and digital education. Therefore, it is essential that need based programmes should be developed and delivered as per the guidelines suggested in NEP-2020, which envisaged that not only suitable infrastructure should be developed but the programmes should also be conceived

taking the local aspiration and employability into consideration, thus the major thrust should be on vocationalisation of education at all level. Moreover, these programmes should meet the requirement of all the segment of the society including population residing in the rural and remote area and in economically backward segment of the society. Therefore, the focus should be given to ensure equity and accessibility taking socially and Economically Disadvantaged Groups into consideration (SEDGs). The integration of online platform with the priority as envisaged in the NEP2020 for identification and mapping of such areas be given priority considering the interest and inclination of rural masses.

It has also been argued that interactive sessions can always make learning interesting, therefore focus should be given on developing the programme which are interactive. Moreover, the efforts should be made to develop job oriented programmes and so that the benefits to be derived by pursuing such programmes and the publicity and promotion matter of the educational institutions should contain information on expected benefit and possible fields for employability. It has also been realized that the two-way communication always make learning interesting, the peer group interaction further enhances the interest, therefore these factors should also be taken into consideration while designing a programme.

Efforts should also be made to making the admission process interesting by inserting of 5-10 minutes funny, lighter clips or relaxing music should be transmitted for refreshing the mind and breaking the monotony. Efforts should be made to create educational games, videos, and stories through animations for kids at pre-primary level. The teaching tools and presentation styles need to undergo major changes to make the learning enjoyable and to sustain the engagement of learners. Therefore, the session of shorter duration is made available for online education as compared to F2F mode.

It is also challenging to provide effective e-reading material considering the wide variation in language and culture and requirement of need-based education. Therefore, efforts should be made to introduce inclusive teaching-learning approach, skill development, knowledge up-gradation and involvement of local mentors. It would be interesting to incorporate the simulated learning lessons to sustain the interest of the learners. By generating content which can be more in depth and having clarity in terms of visual content e.g. Double Helix structure of DNA can be explained better when its three-dimensional figures are made available.

Several innovative ideas be amalgamated in pedagogy using craft, drama and sound effects. Similarly, the visuals of cinematic effect can be used to present famous drama portion including the famous dramas like that of William Shakespeare. Multimedia approach can also be effective and interesting using still pictures collages and sound clippings. Open discussion among teacher and students be encouraged. On the other hand, group discussion may be organized among students

of different colleges and universities using online platforms. This can be facilitated by adding more graphics, short movie clips, audios and interactive modules similar to e-learning apps like Byju is doing.

ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES

One of the important and challenging tasks to impart online and digital education is to design suitable assessment strategies. NEP20 mainly focuses on formative assessment with paradigm shift from 'memorization to creative and critical thinking'. In order to assess the competencies of the learners the assessment tests should be design as per the requirement and matching with the national and international standard set through Learning Management System (LMS) which has been already applied by many universities which have started online and digital education (Adzharuddin et al 2013). There are many aptitude tests available in theory form and these are being well received by the stakeholders. Efforts should be made to transform to assess aptitude through online platform. It has also been realized that respective board of examination should establish a committee for vetting the online assessment test and also making them user-friendly with the support of IT professional. Efforts should be made to make the online assessment test authentic and reliable; otherwise, the certification of the learners will be put on question. Thus, it is inevitable to make best and effective use of LMS which has all the components of successful completion of a programme including 'pedagogical devices, human interactions, learning content and assessment' (Wahlstedt and Honkaranta, 2007).

It is also important that both learners and teacher's performance on the day to day basis should be continuously monitored. For instance, it is important to know whether the time allotted for a particular online class was actually utilized. Moreover, the learner's response to the online classes should also be taken so that in case of deficiencies necessary correction could be made. The objective for obtaining feedback from the learners on content, interaction and discussion is important from the point of view of administration to understand the usefulness of the programme delivery so that corrective measures could be made to make the content delivery interactive and more attractive. On the other hand, from the point of view of parents this feedback is important particularly at the school level education. In order to make the programme delivery more attractive graded and non-graded assignments, quizzes and the activities to perform offline must be checked to assess the aptitude. The best way for faster assessment is MCQs, it would be better if these are integrated with animations. Emphasis should be given for taking daily assignment with time duration of 1 hour which can be assessed through Google classroom and as well as with various others such online platforms.

Thus, assessment tests will bring qualitative change in the programme delivery and its evaluation. However, there is need to address the linguistic diversity particularly in a country like India which is an important bottle neck for smooth sailing of online and digital education. Similarly, the cognatic standard of the learners will not be uniform, therefore attempt should also be made to deliver the content in such a way that it reaches to all the learners and while assessing their performance no major variation in grades is noticed.

MODIFICATIONS IN THE CURRICULUM

It has been argued that the Indian education system offers broad based knowledge and it is a pertinent question why it should be changed? However, it has been argued (NEP2020) that the 'pattern of interaction can be changed not the curriculum' Therefore, the learners should be given flexibility in selection of courses besides having some compulsory portion of online activity in each course component. Emphasis has also been given on offer of multidisciplinary course content. In order to promote multidisciplinary course content NEP20 has emphasized on establishment of Multidisciplinary Education and Research University (MERU) with more flexibility for credit transfer in case of pursuing online courses.

On the other hand, it has also been realized that statutory approval is essential for launch of the programmes so the uniformity could be maintained. We have to focus more on the skill and practical based teaching rather than traditional approach and students should be given hands on task to inculcate creativity in them. It has also been realized that the curriculum needs to be clearly divided into three parts and in the first-the student could read and understand the content themselves, in second part focus should be given on explaining the topic. On the other hand, human component should be introduced in the third part with the discussion and also focus on peer learning. The e-learning material should contain both theoretical and practical components. Precaution should be made to develop curriculum and major focus be given on addressing social and employment need. It has been realized that cognitive psychomotor and effective domain be considered for making the curriculum more effective. We should also not forget that learning and comprehension of pedagogy including reading writing and producing knowledge should also be promoted.

It has also been realized that while developing the curriculum for online education efforts should be made to make it broad based and accessible to larger segment of the society and also addressing the linguistic issues by giving importance to the local languages. Moreover, various socio-cultural and religious contents should be generated emphasizing on unity and integrity of the country. At the same time the content on environmental studies should not be ignored rather

the importance should be given to the sustenance including health and hygiene and voluntarism so that the learners should also be sensitized on these issues. The curriculum should be based on videos, online study material and articles. ICT based curriculum should also be introduced and courses should be made able to cover vast areas of knowledge rather than digging deep into each topic especially at school and UG levels. However, it is contrary to the spirit of the NEP 2020, while emphasizes on deep understanding of a subject at each level. On the other hand, at PG levels, in depth curriculum can be more useful. More emphasis is to be given on moral, emotional and aesthetic aspect of the learning along with intellectual and social aspects.

INTERNET CONNECTIVITY

Uniform internet connectivity is crucial and essential for imparting online and digital education. In the absence of uniform internet connectivity, it is not possible to impart quality education in varied geo-physical conditions. Therefore, efforts should be made to ensure supply of uniform internet connectivity across the country. In a country like India the disturbance in internet connectivity is expected. As per the recent study, while using broadband, '3 % face cable cut problem, 53% poor connectivity and 32% signal issues', On the other hand while using mobile data poor connectivity and signal issues were reported 40.2% and 46.6% respectively (Kundu 2020). In order to reduce the impact of internet connectivity video and conversation be made available free of costs particularly in remote and rural areas. There are several lectures which are visual based and having more than 70% voice content means no need of visuals. With all such types of programmes focus should be given for voice transmissions by different means. Thus, if the problem of internet connectivity is encountered than it should automatically be connected to the learner as voice call, so they could get continued information and learners' interest is sustained. Nevertheless, government should provide better internet connectivity even in remote areas. It is also possible to upload the recorded lessons different platforms which the students can access after the resumption of connectivity promoting asynchronous learning. At the same time efforts should also be made to promote using community-based resources, besides making accessibility of resources within the family.

Thus, as an alternative option of providing recorded audio-video teaching lessons will be convenient and could be accessed easily. Reading content should also be made available on the websites of institutions and can be made available in pen drive. Face to face education cannot be replaced altogether. Therefore, a detailed strategy should be chalked out to replace face to face education with online and digital education in phased manner. On the other hand, emphasis should also be given on providing link of YouTube lectures as these can address the problem of

low bandwidth to some extent. Efforts should also be made for delivering content through TV, radio, Wi-Fi system which can be provided at even panchayat level.

ELECTRONIC GADGETS TO SOCIALLY ECONOMICALLY BACKWARD GROUPS (SEDGS)

Several studies reveal that the accessibility to electronic gadgets is very poor particularly in the rural areas. It has been revealed that only insignificant proportion of learners (Dimri 2020) were using desktop and laptop for accessing online e-content and online classes organized by IGNOU during Covid-19 Pandemic. Thus, it is imperative to make efforts to provide electronic gadgets to the learners by exploring the possible ways. It has also been suggested that Community Information Centre (CIC) (Dimri et al 2017) may be strengthened further so that the learners particularly in rural area may visit these centres, if faces internet connectivity issue. It has also been suggested that innovative methods of providing electronics devices should be explored thus, the way local libraries are/were providing books on loan, libraries should also provide smartphone, laptop on loan with some deposits. Efforts should also be made to strengthen the village, block and district libraries. The study reveals that '37% Indian households have one room dwelling' and it would be difficult for the learners of such households to manage their study (Krishna 2018). Thus, smartphone must be made available not only to the students from the marginalized section of the society but also for the students from the higher economic level on soft loan basis with easy terms and conditions. This effort will facilitate them to purchase hardware and software to organize the online and digital studies. It has also been suggested that the educational institutions should also provide such devices to the needy learners.

In order to ensure the wide spread promotion of online and education the central as well as state government should made budget provision for research and developmental activities so that *swadeshi* software and hardware are developed and promoted in the society. Therefore, we should gather data of all 12th/HSC/SSC passed school dropout and smartphones / Tablets should be provided them with special sim for getting them connected with education provider through internet and this will certainly help in enhancing the GER. It is also important to develop resource base at the local level so that more low-cost smartphone and laptop should be provided to the learners.

Efforts should also be made to provide budgetary provision for the educational institutions to make efforts at the local level for promotion of online and digital education as envisaged in the NEP20 so that they could meet the requirement of needy learners. Attempt should be made not to expose small kids with electronic devices for the sake of online and digital education. Instead facilities should be

created in the school and they may be exposed to the devices in the presence of the teachers. Low cost tab with sufficient space should be made available to each student entering college level and the cost can be included in their fees after deducting the subsidy and provision for scholarship should be made available for SEDGs incorporating the cost of electronic device in scholarship to ensure that are also not deprived with all these facilities.

ICT SUPPORT EDUCATION/ EXAMINATION/GOVERNANCE

It is also challenging to develop ICT enable evaluation and assessment system. There are urgent needs to develop such software which could easily point out the involvement of learners in the unfair means. It is also essential to obtain an undertaking from the learners indicating that he/she will not indulge in any wrong doings. If found guilty certificate may not be awarded to the students and already awarded certificate may be withdrawn. Therefore, hands on training, making pool of experts who are willing to provide services free of cost irrespective of their parent work should be explored. Moreover, use of young unemployed talents who are willing to translate the available material in local medium should also be explored and these resource persons should be given incentive for undertaking such activities. These resource persons should also be used for making the online courses free for registration and dividing grading into multiple steps. Cloud computing may be a good solution and we can adopt the technology like YouTube etc. By saving the videos in offline mode in cloud memories.

Once we improve the internet connectivity, we can also conduct examination and many more activities through online. Both teacher and taught needs to be oriented for using online teaching appropriately and seriously in long term and not as an adhoc mechanism to meet this lockdown type of situation. It may need generation of fool proof authentic software and platforms which can smoothly run without hiccups. Privacy factor and vulnerability also must be considered in evolving things as teachers are going to be burdened. Online education needs acceptability and it has been observed that parents just rejecting the efficacy of online education and asking of non-payment of fees for the duration of non-attendance of learning institutions by the children. There are many issues which needs to be addressed regarding overall management of the schools and it is not possible to call all unpaid teachers once lockdown is overs and educational institutions resume their activities. Nevertheless, online education has to go long way as far as examination is concerned and in the current form it cannot be considered substitute for conventional education. It is just an alternative means which can be used in different ways to improve our education system. We can use latest technology to improve online education and evaluation system.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In the present research paper, an attempt was made to make critical assessment of various factors of online and digital education based on the feedback received from the stakeholders particularly the academic community. It has been revealed that majority of the stakeholders have strong inclination for the adoption of online and digital education. However, it has been realized that a lot of efforts are required to develop suitable infrastructure for promoting and developing ecosystem for delivery of courses through online platforms. We may also argue that the importance of capacity building cannot be ignored for promoting online education. Considering the geo- physical conditions of the country it is also difficult to provide uniform internet connectivity across the country. India is still lagging in providing basic needs to a larger segment of its populace and the situation of economically backward classes is pathetic thus shift to online education is a marathon task.

Nevertheless, the government should make concentrated efforts to promote online and digital education and the issues raised in this research paper as well as in the NEP20 document are pertinent and also require serious policy frame work, otherwise it would be difficult to provide quality education through online and digital platform across the country. However, the support from the stakeholders such as students, teachers, parents and non-teaching staff and NGOs and philanthropic organization is essential to creating and sustaining the eco-system for online education. The challenges could be mitigated by making concentrated efforts for creating required infrastructures and developing suitable Learning Management System.

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GROUND REALITIES OF COALITION POLITICS IN BIHAR: A STUDY OF PEOPLE'S PERCEPTION

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Abstract

People's perception of political values places greater premium on evolution of certain political culture. India has witnessed the rise of coalition politics at national and state levels, particularly since 1989. Perhaps the national parties' failure to cater to the needs and aspirations of the people of different regions resulted into growth of regional parties, as the champions of regional aspirations. Bihar, with few other states, experienced coalition governments since 1967 but in post 1990 period, coalition in Bihar has become a compulsion. In this context a question arises – how people perceive their political priorities and consent to coalition? The query generates academic interest in ascertaining the people's perceptions on politics and coalitions. As such, the present paper intends to understand the phenomenon of coalition politics from the angle of people's perception for which a micro-level empirical enquiry has been conducted in Bihar. A quick survey was conducted in the selected areas. The survey results reveal that social division is the major factor of persistence of coalition in Bihar.

Keywords: Coalition Politics, Caste, Religion, Parties, Bihar

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of coalition government and politics has become a worldwide phenomenon. Experiences of formulation of association between parties and formulation of coalition governments in many states and at centre confirm that India has also entered into an era of coalition politics. Studies have been conducted

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to explain change in nature of politics and government formation using primary and secondary data analysis. Broadly, it can be said that the heterogeneous fabrics of Indian society in terms of caste, culture, religion, region, language etc. have acted as a catalyst in the development of different dimensions of the coalition politics in the country as whole and in the state. Comparison of India before independence and after independence gives clear picture that how politics has been shaped in the Present India. “The advent of Britishers” in Indian Continent led to unprecedented political unification of modern India (Post-Independence India). It ushered in the concept of “Unity in diversity” in modern India (Khare -1989). The historical background of Indian national movement led to one party “Congress dominated politics” and government in India after independence in almost all states and center as well. But, gradually the needs and aspirations of different fractions like caste, religion, language, region, etc. started finding refuge in alternatives to congress party in different states of India. Thus, the mushrooming of political parties and fractured election results made coalition government inevitable.

Bihar has been center of political discourse in India. In case of coalition government and coalition politics one can find a significant relationship between the formation of coalition government in India and emergence of alternative political structure in state of Bihar (Janata Dal Movement). The Emergency (in 1975 declared by Smt. Indira Gandhi) and Sampoorna Kranti (led by Shri. Jay Prakash Narayan resident of Bihar) have been instrumental in opening new dimensions in the Indian politics and coalition governments in India and states.

It has been widely accepted that Bihar has always been a fertile political ground not only in context of social and cultural diversity like caste and religion but also possess an active political temperament of the people. Given this background, the present study tries to develop an understanding about the emerging dimensions of coalition politics in India taking Bihar as a case study, as emerging dimensions of coalition politics that affects the politics of other states and India as well.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is an array of literature on Coalition politics in India. The studies reflect that despite similarities of history, social texture, culture, economic conditions etc. in almost all states of the country, the basic factor responsible for the rise of coalition in different states differ substantially (Kumar 1999). Coalitions formed in India can be divided into four types, firstly, coalition of trivial parties under one dominant party (Narain, 1974 and Franda 1970). Secondly, coalition of parties having almost equal influence viz. in Kerala as socio economic forces are polarised almost equally between Congress and CPI (M). Thirdly, a front of several like-minded parties forged mainly to keep at bay a perceived fearful common enemy. The non-congress governments after 1967 general election in states are example of this. Fourthly,

National government formed to face an overriding national crisis such as war or invasion by an enemy. After 1989 elections 'hung parliament' plagued Indian democracy, Atal Bihari Vajpayee gave the idea of national government including congress to override the crisis. There is immense literature on Approaches to Study Coalition Politics and Coalition in India (Blarel 2019; Sagarzazu 2017; Druckman 2008 ; Malik 2014). But, very few literature concentrate on the role of social divisions like caste and community as factor of rise of coalition politics in Indian States.

In the post 1989 period the rise of backward caste politics in Bihar was glaring (Kumar 1999; Ankit 2018) and the polity shifted from the monopoly of the party dominated by upper castes to the coalition of parties championing the cause of backward castes. It is within this scenario that the importance of coalitions comes in as parties coalesced and re-coalesced themselves to remain in power. But, there is dearth of literature reflecting the perception of voters, political leaders about coalition government in the states like, Bihar. Thus, examination of people's perception about coalition politics becomes pertinent to analyse the working of Indian democracy.

METHODOLOGY

To understand the ground reality of coalition politics in Bihar, survey of political leaders, activists, voters and other key resource person was required. In the process to identify ground reality of the coalition politics issues, a purposive sampling method was applied. We contacted 120 elected members, voters and social activist of Bihar leaders of political parties of Bihar. But during the analysis, it was found that information provided by twenty of them was erroneous, hence the analysis was confined to hundred respondents only. As we tried to cover the respondents from all the geographical regions of Bihar, three Districts of Bihar, namely Patna (Capital/Central), Buxar (South Bihar) and Darbhanga (North Bihar) were selected for the purpose.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

The different categories of respondents have been considered due to the following factors. Bihar has majority of young voters and their perception of politics is different from older age groups. Similarly, the women have become more politically sensitised in last one and half decades with their specific perception. Different castes and caste groups have their varied interests which decide their political priorities. There has been substantial improvement in educational status of people, particularly since 2011 which influences the people's political priorities. Besides, every occupation has its different interest that guides their political preferences. Lastly the different political affiliations also decide the people's perceptive differences. The following

tables from table numbers 1 to 6 provide the socio-economic profile of our respondents:

Table 1: Age Profile of Households

Age Group (in Years)	Frequency
Below 30	30
30-45	40
Higher than 45	30

Table 2: Gender Profile of Respondents

Gender of Respondents	Percentage
Male	55
Female	45

Table 3: Caste Profile of Respondents

Castes	Percent
Yadav	22
Kurri	8
Rajput	10
Bhumihar	12
Banias	22
Brahmin	15
Chamar	11

Table 4: Educational Profile of Respondents

Level of education	Percent
Literate (as per Census)	12
Primary Level	8
Intermediate level	15
Graduate	18
Post Graduate	14
Technical	7
Others	8
Illiterate	18

Table 5: Occupation Profile of Respondents

Occupation	Percent
Cultivation	33
Business	12
Contractor	5
Government job	15

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Students	20
Politics	15

Table 6: Political alignment of Respondents

<i>Party</i>	<i>Percent</i>
BJP	28
JDU	18
RJD	29
RLSP	4
HAM	3
CONGRESS	6
CPI	12

OPINION ON COALITION

Coalition politics has become the trend of politics in India and Bihar. Almost all states of India have coalition governments. Thus, we asked questions related to the politics of Bihar. The responds were Very positive on the issue of coalition formations in Bihar (See Table 7).

Table 7: Respondents View on Coalition Politics in Bihar

<i>View on Coalition Politics in India</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Positive	70
Negative	26
Neutral	4

Source: Field Survey

Around 70 percent respondents told that this is demand of the hour. Around 30 percent of responds were not very happy with the coalition politics in Bihar. Party wise association and view on coalition shows that supporters of Congress and BJP (National Parties) were not happy with coalition politics of Bihar as their stakes and power was shared with smaller regional parties.

OPINION ON FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR COALITION IN BIHAR

Studies point out the role of different factors in coalition formation in India. The analysis of recent coalitions shows that parties are taking decision on alliance partners based on Power Maximization and they support BJP or Congress or Third front. In most of states parties are taking decision on the coalition based on parties' strength. Caste and religion became important factor in coalition formation in

Bihar in recent elections. Thus, reasons behind coalition in Bihar has been analysed based on opinion of respondents.

Table 8: Reason behind Coalition in Bihar (In Percentage)

<i>Reason Behind Coalition</i>	<i>First Rank</i>	<i>Second Rank</i>	<i>Third Rank</i>	<i>Fourth rank</i>	<i>Fifth rank</i>
Modi factor	48	52	0	0	0
Caste	22	15	60	3	0
Religion	15	20	25	35	5
Regional factors	10	12	15	55	8
Money	5	1	0	7	87

Source: Field Survey

The assessment was done to see that whether caste and religion had played role in coalition formation in Bihar or not. Respondents were asked to rank the reason behind coalition politics in Bihar. Here, analysis is done for five major reasons reported by most of the respondents as responsible factor/factors for coalition in Bihar. Table 8 shows the analysis of five reasons reported by respondents as responsible factor for recent two elections. Most of the respondents reported Modi and caste as responsible factors.

OPINION ON PROBLEMS COALITION POLITICS IN BIHAR

Perception of leaders and voters is very important for any political parties. Success of political parties depends on the perception of voters and party's leaders regarding action taken by political party (headquarter) as an organisation. In recent years it has been seen that some leaders left a particular party due to disagreement with coalitions accepted by their party main leaders. Here, several reasons were reported by the respondents. But for clarity, analysis has been done for major five reasons reported by the respondents. Table 9 shows perception of respondents on the issue of problem faced by parties in coalition. The table shows that most of respondents feel that parties have to face problem related to "free rider problem" and Caste Clashes in Coalition politics.

Table 9 Problem faced by Political Parties in Coalition

<i>Problems</i>	<i>First Rank</i>	<i>Second Rank</i>	<i>Third Rank</i>	<i>Fourth rank</i>	<i>Fifth rank</i>
Free Rider Problem	35	25	15	15	10
Caste Clashes	40	32	26	2	0
Consensus	20	30	15	30	5
low Progress of Party	5	12	30	35	18
Others	0	1	14	18	67

Source: Field Survey

OPINION ON ROLE OF COALITION IN POLITICAL DECISIONS

Does coalition play any important role in political decisions? An analysis of opinion on role of coalition in political decision is done. The various political decisions taken by parties often lead to breaking or formation of coalitions. Here, role of coalition in the political decisions of respondents are analysed and are presented in Table 10. 65 per cent of respondents reported that they feel that nature of coalition, its organisation and functioning affect their political decision.

Table 10: Role of Coalition Politics in Their Political Decision

<i>Does Coalition play role in your political decision</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Yes	65
No	35

Source: Field Survey

OPINION ON ROLE OF CASTE IN COALITION POLITICS

However, analysis shows that Modi factor played important role in formation of coalition politics in last two elections. But it is also true that caste is an important factor that directly or indirectly affects politics and coalition in Bihar. Here, parties also try to join a coalition where both parties receive importance and benefit of caste coalition. Like, there is rivalry between some castes in Bihar (due to several reasons and may not be true for every sense), so some caste based parties also consider such things when they join a coalition in the state. They also consider regional and national dimension of such coalitions. Except Congress, most of the parties are regional in nature, so they consider a coalition in which they get higher share in terms of number of seats in Lok Sabha election/state legislative elections and post of ministers in Centre/state. Thus, an analysis is important to understand what voters or leaders think about role of caste in coalition formation in Bihar. Table 11 shows the analysis of opinion of respondents on role of caste factors. If we exclude Modi factor, most of respondents reported important role of caste in coalition formation in Bihar. This confirms that why political parties analyse caste dimensions in finalising the formula of coalition or inclusion of parties in a particular coalition. During interaction respondents reported that in comparison to Mr. Lalu Prasad the present government based on coalition gives representation of major castes so the present coalition is more sustainable in Bihar.

Table 11: Role of Caste in Coalition Politics

<i>Does Caste play role in your Coalition</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Yes	78
No	22

Source: Field Survey

OPINION ON THE ROLE OF RELIGION IN COALITION POLITICS

There is general perception that religion is also important in deciding perception of voters and political leaders. Significantly in our study we did not find such situations among the respondents. Table 12 shows the perception of respondents regarding role of religion. Around 90 percent of the total respondents were belonging to the opinion that religion does not play any role in shaping the perceptions of voters/leaders/elected members regarding coalition politics in Bihar.

Table 12: Role of Gender in Coalition Politics

<i>Does Religion play role in your Coalition</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Yes	88
No	12

Source: Field Survey

OPINION ON ETHICS OF COALITION POLITICS

An overall score was asked from respondents on the issue of ethical nature of present coalition politics in Bihar. Respondents were asked to give points between ranges of one to ten. Table 13 shows the detail of points given by respondents. It can be seen that most of the respondents gave higher points to the ethical value to the coalition politics.

Table 13: Ranks given by Respondents on the Ethical Nature of Coalition Politics of Bihar

<i>Range of Points given by Respondents</i>	<i>Percentage of Total Respondents</i>
0-2	10
3-6	20
7-8	50
9-10	20

Source: Field survey. Note: Higher points reflect high ethical value.

FINDINGS OF FOCUSED GROUP DISCUSSION (FGD)

Group attitude and perception also play major role in formulation of idea regarding Politics in India and state like Bihar (Known as Chai Par Charcha). Charcha (Discussion) is a famous technique through which political parties try to meld the mindsets in India. To understand the role of group in shaping the political consensus three focused group discussion (FGD) in each district (Patna, Darbhanga and Buxar) (as per convenience and availability of respondents were organised. Following questions were asked.

Q.1. Do you feel that your attitude towards party has changed in recent years?

Q.2.What are major reasons behind the change in such behaviour?

Q.3.Is there any role of caste and religion in change of behaviour?

Q.4.What are the problems of coalition government in recent time?

Findings of FGD 1: It was organised in Patna district, total 15 participants were present in FGD. Before starting discussion an informal training was given to the participants. Here we tried to analyse how they were coming on a consensus on a particular issue related to coalition politics. Most of participants were initially confused on the issue of coalition politics as they were only talking about the party of local elected members or about Chief Minister. After training they participated in FGD in different manner. They replied to queries very systematically. It was noticed that two groups emerged in the process of FGD. One group was supporting RJD and one group was supporting JDU. It was felt that because next state election was due so discussion was centralised around two local parties. Some people were against the present coalition led by Nitish Kumar in Bihar. We felt that it was very difficult to formulate any consensus on the issue of one coalition. Participants were talking about ethical and non-ethical coalition. Most of respondents accepted that caste is an important factor in politics of Bihar. Most of the participants accepted that attitude towards party politics has changed as now people talk about Coalition not Party. Most of participants feel that coalition is good for deprived castes of Bihar.

Findings of FGD 2: It was organised in Darbhanga district, total 15 participants were present in FGD. In the FGD some participants reported that they prefer to give support to those party or leader who is honest. Most of participants were in favour of opinion that caste is important but ultimately it depends on reservation situation of seats. Here, participants were in view that due the present coalition this region has achieved significant growth so they were in favour of opinion that coalition government is better than one party based politics.

Findings of FGD 3: It was organised in Buxar district, total 15 participants were present in FGD. Participants of the FGD in Buxar District were of the opinion that their attitude towards party has changed. Initially they were supporting RJD and BJP but now they are supporting Congress. But they reported that they supported Congress in last state assembly as Congress was in “Mahagathbandhan”. Because Bihar saw change in coalition after election, so they were not happy with the way coalition is working in Bihar. They were in favour that coalition is not bad but it should be based on high ethical value.

CONCLUSION

There were various coalitions formed and broken during the period 2005-19 in Bihar. The coalitions were formed as it was compulsory for them to enter into such

coalition to form the government and capture power. Analysis of opinion of the public, leaders and elected members on the issue of coalition politics in Bihar points out towards some important points. The findings are in the line with theoretical debate and secondary data analysis. The major conclusion that can be drawn from the Field survey is that caste is an important factor in Bihar and people think that coalition is good but it should follow ethical considerations and aspiration of common man.

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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS: A STUDY OF IT COMPANIES OF PUNJAB, CHANDIGARH AND HARIYANA

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Abstract

The Indian IT sector has also built a strong reputation for its high standards of software development ability, service quality and information security in the foreign market- which has been acknowledged globally and has helped enhance buyer confidence. The role of HR in the present scenario has undergone a sea change and its focus is on evolving such functional strategies which enable successful implementation of the major corporate strategies. Today, HR works towards facilitating and improving the performance of the employees by building a conducive work environment and providing maximum opportunities to the employees for participating in organizational planning and decision making process. This study strives to underline the roles of Human Resource Management practices for Organizational Effectiveness and specifically addresses questions like how Human Resource Management practices manage organizational effectiveness of the IT Companies. Human Resource Management (HRM) practices have been taken as independent variable to check their' impact upon Organizational Effectiveness.

Keywords: IT Sector, HRM Practices, Organizational Effectiveness, Employees, Punjab & Hariyana

INTRODUCTION

Human resources are most valuable resources of the organization which facilitate structure and the ability to achieve business goals through proper management of

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existing manpower. HR Managers may carry out more than one essential function out of several disciplines or areas of HR. In absence of committed HR department, efficiency to meet business need and workforce management cannot be imagined. The Indian software and IT industry has shown the rapid growth, showing a nearly 50% compounded annual growth rate over the few recent years. Some qualities i.e. highly educated and intellectual human capital, knowledge based industry, has yielded competitive advantage to the Indian IT companies. The shortage of skilled workforce in numbers and requisite skills is a prime challenge for HR professionals because of global expansions in market in the IT sector increased the requirement of suitable manpower. Now IT Sector provide People to bring to their jobs diversity of skills, needs, goals, and expectations. Employees are being socialized into the organization from their hiring just to begin with, and their uninterrupted performance in the organization. Socialization of employees is edge between the individual and the organization for the issues like Human Resource planning, career development, job analysis, motivation, leadership, the appraisal and reward process and the organizational culture. Selection in organizations is done on the basis of general criteria which are not job related to job such as attractiveness, goal orientation, and interpersonal skills. The whole process of selection has a general lack of concern for value congruence and professional ethics. For identifying and improving on existing performance strategies, the dominant emphasis becomes very universal practice. This practice would require a complete setback where value congruencies and professional ethics should filled as major component while measuring individual competency for selection and training. This is a big question before the HR professional that, on score of existing selection and training process, linkages with the values and ethics of the wider socio-cultural context in India would not be possible to achieve. In order to bring an organizational effectiveness, the values and the ethics of the society and the cultural background should be synthesized with the organization and its operation.

High employee turnover is one of the major issues/ challenge for HR managers in India who are working in IT industries IT enabled services industry i.e. call centers, BPO, IPO, KPO, RPO where employee attrition is the single biggest issue. This industry has provided employment to millions of English speaking, well learned and go-getting youth people as employer and employability of this sector is growing by leap and bound. The point regarding retention of employees is well discussed by Slater (2007), he pointed out the question of retention is much more serious in the high value adding KPO, BPO sector such as R&D activities. The IT industry has one of highest financial turnover around \$40 billion but it has also one of the highest employee attrition rates of around 20 to 25 per cent annually. The services providing BPO and IT industry have the highest employee attrition rates. Most of IT companies are designing & developing innovative incentive packages

for their employees in order to counter this job hopping trend. Now India becomes battlefield of recruitment for the best workers because of highly educated and English speaking youth population. Indian as well as global IT companies and global IT enabled services providers have shifted their recruitment practices remarkably. The whole operational process of an IT company is based on Human Resource management which starts from recruitment and ends to exit interview. The all related shows are managed through Human Resource Practices in order to achieve the organizational objectives.

PRACTICES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

As per study of IT companies situated at Chandigarh, Mohali and Gurugram, the Human Resource Management Practices for organizational effectiveness are a) recruitment of properly qualified candidates as per job requirements, b) safety measures at work place in accordance with Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, c) maintaining harmonious relationship between employee and employer d) provisions of reward, incentives, perks and compensation on basis of performance (Vance, 2006), e) compliance of existing labour laws and resolution of disputes, f) imparting training to both new recruits and old ones in accordance with the needs of organization and organizational development employees (Ruth Mayhew, 2019), g) contributing to budgetary control for competitive and realistic wages, h) maintaining cost affectivity in recruitment and wages i) ensuring employees' job satisfaction j) steps for performance improvement and so on.

ROLES IN ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Human resources develop succession planning for orgnisation through which the future leaders of respective companies are recognized. In Human Resource Planning process companies identify the promising employees having requisite competency to finally transform into leadership roles with the company. This is an important function of HR which ensures the organizational permanence, future stabilities and success.

Human resources give the surety about positive attitude of the workforce towards organizational philosophy, business principles and ethics. In regard of IT companies, building a consistent work environment is very important. Human resources can achieve above surety through prudent hiring decisions that recognize enviable professional qualities, as well as induction and orientation programs (Mayhew, 2019).

Organizational effectiveness is the concept of how effective an organization is in achieving the outcomes the organization intends to produce (Willems, 2015).

There are some primary links among organizational elements that works together in IT companies to bring a well-executed strategy through an engaged workforce, resulting in a great customer experience, high level of performance, and increased profitability: i) A “fit for purpose” structure where people understand expectations and accountabilities, ii) People systems and processes that drive the right behaviors , iii) Capable and credible leadership and iv) A positive work environment. They claim that this attitude of indifference to the labor force is attributable to an archaic view with respect to management. Kahnweiler (2008), also aligns to the

OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

In the light of the above backdrop, the present study focuses on the selected Human Resource Management Practices prevalent in Information Technology Industry in Punjab, Haryana and Chandigarh in order to enhance Organizational Effectiveness. With this broad objective in mind the following are the specific points of enquiry – a) impact of selected Human Resource Management Practices of Information Technology Industry on its Organizational Effectiveness, b) the Factors Affecting Organizational c) tools to maintain Organizational Effectiveness.

The selected Human Resource Management Practices of Information Technology Industry are Recruitment, Training, Compensation & Benefits, Employee Value and Grievance Handling which has been taken for above study. Job Satisfaction, Morale of Employee, Employee Commitment Efficiency & Productivity of Organization as defined as sub variable of Organizational Effectiveness as per Human Resource Point of Views.

In the present paper, the primary data has been collected on independent variables which are prevalent Human Resource Management Practices i.e. Recruitment, Training, Compensation & Benefits, Employee Value and Grievance Handling. Organizational Effectiveness is taken as dependent variable which four sub variables i.e. Job Satisfaction, Morale of Employee, Employee Commitment; Efficiency & Productivity of Organization have been defined to measure the impact of above mentioned four HRM practices on it.

The data was collected through systematic questionnaire from employees of five 20 IT Companies of Punjab, Haryana & Chandigarh. Secondary data has been collected from different Publications like Magazines, Annual reports, Journals & Research Papers.

The universe of the study is employees of IT companies of Punjab & Chandigarh. Stratified sampling method was adopted. As such at the first stage, 20 IT companies were selected on the basis of convenience and availability of time. At the second stage, 400 employees of IT companies were sampled on the basis of convenience / availability sampling techniques For interviewing the sampled respondents, first

of all their consent was obtained and then the interviews were conducted with the help of 'Schedule'. The schedule comprised of 5 Likert scale i.e. strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, Strongly Disagree for attitude measurement. The data was analysed by using SPSS 17.0 software

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive study of Dependent and independent variables:

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
Job Satisfaction	400	16.15	2.34	-0.54	0.79
Morale of Employee	400	15.52	2.72	-0.53	0.28
Efficiency & Productivity	400	40.01	4.18	-0.26	0.53
Employee Commitment	400	37.95	5.02	-0.10	-0.06
Recruitment	400	24.80	2.94	-0.46	0.40
Training	400	28.00	3.90	-0.77	1.32
Compensation & Benefits	400	31.19	4.78	-0.90	1.67
Performance Appraisal	400	32.56	4.30	-0.92	2.11
Employee Value & Grievance handling	400	16.32	2.24	-0.29	0.37

CORRELATIONS

	<i>Job Satisfaction</i>	<i>Morale of Employee</i>	<i>Efficiency & Productivity</i>	<i>Employee Commitment</i>	<i>Recruitment</i>	<i>Training</i>	<i>Compensation & Benefits</i>	<i>Performance Appraisal</i>	<i>Employee Value & Grievance handling</i>
Job Satisfaction	1	.329**	.339**	.325**	.495**	.474**	.484**	.452**	.455**
Morale of Employee		1	.326**	.438**	.415**	.363**	.445**	.445**	.481**
Efficiency & Productivity			1	.476**	.454**	.379**	.408**	.423**	.471**
Employee Commitment				1	.450**	.327**	.486**	.394**	.389**
Recruitment					1	.568**	.600**	.656**	.504**
Training						1	.495**	.524**	.461**

Compensation & Benefits							1	.715**	.562**
Performance Appraisal								1	.568**
Employee Value & Grievance handling									1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

2- tailed ,Correlation among all 8 variables have been analyzed, and found significant correlation at the 0.01 level has been found.

VARIABLE WISE REGRESSION OF ALL 4 DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

<i>Model Summary</i>									
<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>	<i>Change Statistics</i>				
					<i>R Square Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig. F Change</i>
1	0.495	.245	.243	2.03783	.245	128.952	1	398	.000
2	0.549	.302	.298	1.96204	.057	32.340	1	397	.000
3	0.578	.335	.329	1.91767	.033	19.583	1	396	.000
4	0.592	.351	.344	1.89611	.017	10.060	1	395	.002

<i>ANOVA</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
1	Regression	535.506	1	535.506	128.952	.0001**
	Residual	1652.792	398	4.153		
	Total	2188.298	399			
2	Regression	660.002	2	330.001	85.723	.0001**
	Residual	1528.296	397	3.850		
	Total	2188.298	399			
3	Regression	732.019	3	244.006	66.352	.0001**
	Residual	1456.278	396	3.677		
	Total	2188.298	399			

4	Regression	768.187	4	192.047	53.417	.0001**
	Residual	1420.110	395	3.595		
	Total	2188.298	399			

<i>Coefficients</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>	<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	
		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
1	(Constant)	6.363	.868		7.335	.0001**
	Recruitment	.395	.035	.495	11.356	.0001**
2	(Constant)	4.405	.904		4.875	.0001**
	Recruitment	.283	.039	.355	7.316	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.289	.051	.276	5.687	.0001**
3	(Constant)	3.509	.906		3.873	.0001**
	Recruitment	.202	.042	.253	4.796	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.233	.051	.223	4.552	.0001**
	Training	.137	.031	.227	4.425	.0001**
4	(Constant)	3.445	.896		3.845	.0001**
	Recruitment	.152	.045	.190	3.409	.001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.175	.054	.168	3.261	.001**
	Training	.121	.031	.202	3.917	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.086	.027	.176	3.172	.002**

<i>Model</i>		<i>Beta In</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Partial Correlation</i>	<i>Collinearity Statistics Tolerance</i>
1	Training	0.285	5.583	.000	.270	.678
	Compensation & Benefits	0.292	5.569	.000	.269	.640
	Performance Appraisal	0.223	3.929	.000	.193	.569
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	0.276	5.687	.000	.274	.746
2	Training	0.227	4.425	.000	.217	.637
	Compensation & Benefits	0.21	3.773	.000	.186	.550
	Performance Appraisal	0.124	2.095	.037	.105	.494

3	Compensation & Benefits	0.176	3.172	.002	.158	.536
	Performance Appraisal	0.083	1.402	.162	.070	.480
4	Performance Appraisal	0.001	.008	.994	.000	.385

Dependent Variable: Morale of Employee

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.481	.231	.229	2.38561	.231	119.613	1	398	.000
2	0.525	.276	.272	2.31808	.045	24.527	1	397	.000
3	0.538	.290	.284	2.29844	.014	7.813	1	396	.005

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F-value	p-value
1	Regression	680.731	1	680.731	119.613	.0001**
	Residual	2265.067	398	5.691		
	Total	2945.798	399			
2	Regression	812.526	2	406.263	75.605	.0001**
	Residual	2133.271	397	5.373		
	Total	2945.798	399			
3	Regression	853.802	3	284.601	53.873	.0001**
	Residual	2091.996	396	5.283		
	Total	2945.798	399			

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	p-value
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.004	.878		6.834	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.583	.053	.481	10.937	.0001**

2	(Constant)	4.317	.919		4.698	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.409	.063	.337	6.522	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.145	.029	.256	4.952	.0001**
3	(Constant)	2.802	1.060		2.643	.009**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.363	.064	.299	5.658	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.105	.032	.185	3.241	.001**
	Recruitment	.141	.051	.153	2.795	.005**

Excluded Variables

<i>Model</i>		<i>Beta In</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Partial Correlation</i>	<i>Collinearity Statistics Tolerance</i>
1	Recruitment	0.231	4.662	.000	.228	.746
	Training	0.179	3.669	.000	.181	.787
	Compensation & Benefits	0.256	4.952	.000	.241	.684
	Performance Appraisal	0.254	4.899	.000	.239	.678
2	Recruitment	0.153	2.795	.005	.139	.599
	Training	0.114	2.258	.025	.113	.706
	Performance Appraisal	0.158	2.501	.013	.125	.448
3	Training	0.074	1.382	.168	.069	.621
	Performance Appraisal	0.109	1.609	.108	.081	.390

Dependent Variable: Efficiency & Productivity

<i>Model Summary</i>									
<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>	<i>Change Statistics</i>				
					<i>R Square Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig. F Change</i>
1	0.471	.222	.220	3.68973	.222	113.452	1	398	.000
2	0.534	.285	.281	3.54212	.063	34.864	1	397	.000

ANOVA						
	<i>Model</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
1	Regression	1544.549	1	1544.549	113.452	.0001**
	Residual	5418.428	398	13.614		
	Total	6962.978	399			
2	Regression	1981.970	2	990.985	78.984	.0001**
	Residual	4981.007	397	12.547		
	Total	6962.978	399			

Coefficients						
	<i>Model</i>	<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
1	(Constant)	25.669	1.359		18.892	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.879	.082	.471	10.651	.0001**
2	(Constant)	19.886	1.631		12.191	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.605	.092	.325	6.602	.0001**
	Recruitment	.413	.070	.290	5.905	.0001**

Excluded Variables						
	<i>Model</i>	<i>Beta In</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Partial Correlation</i>	<i>Collinearity Statistics Tolerance</i>
1	Recruitment	0.29	5.905	.000	.284	.746
	Training	0.205	4.201	.000	.206	.787
	Compensation & Benefits	0.209	3.988	.000	.196	.684
	Performance Appraisal	0.229	4.359	.000	.214	.678
2	Training	0.101	1.902	.058	.095	.637
	Compensation & Benefits	0.094	1.637	.102	.082	.550
	Performance Appraisal	0.097	1.606	.109	.080	.494

Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

<i>Model Summary</i>									
<i>Model</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R Square</i>	<i>Adjusted R Square</i>	<i>Std. Error of the Estimate</i>	<i>Change Statistics</i>				
					<i>R Square Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig. F Change</i>
1	0.486	.236	.234	4.39683	.236	122.946	1	398	.000
2	0.525	.276	.272	4.28698	.040	21.658	1	397	.000
3	0.533	.284	.279	4.26646	.009	4.830	1	396	.029

<i>ANOVA</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
1	Regression	2376.811	1	2376.811	122.946	.0001**
	Residual	7694.189	398	19.332		
	Total	10071.000	399			
2	Regression	2774.841	2	1387.420	75.493	.0001**
	Residual	7296.159	397	18.378		
	Total	10071.000	399			
3	Regression	2862.754	3	954.251	52.424	.0001**
	Residual	7208.246	396	18.203		
	Total	10071.000	399			

<i>Coefficients</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
		<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
1	(Constant)	22.026	1.453		15.161	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.510	.046	.486	11.088	.0001**
2	(Constant)	16.369	1.867		8.769	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.354	.056	.337	6.309	.0001**
	Recruitment	.425	.091	.248	4.654	.0001**
3	(Constant)	14.940	1.968		7.591	.0001**
	Compensation & Benefits	.304	.060	.289	5.048	.0001**
	Recruitment	.373	.094	.218	3.969	.0001**
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	.262	.119	.117	2.198	.029*

<i>Excluded Variables</i>						
<i>Model</i>		<i>Beta In</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Partial Correlation</i>	<i>Collinearity Statistics Tolerance</i>
1	Recruitment	0.248	4.654	.000	.227	.640
	Training	0.114	2.274	.023	.113	.755
	Performance Appraisal	0.096	1.528	.127	.076	.488
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	0.17	3.248	.001	.161	.684
2	Training	0.029	.551	.582	.028	.640
	Performance Appraisal	-0.024	-.357	.721	-.018	.408
	Employee Value & Grievance handling	0.117	2.198	.029	.110	.640
3	Training	0.009	.172	.863	.009	.621
	Performance Appraisal	-0.057	-.833	.405	-.042	.390

FINDINGS

As per data analysis, Positive Correlation has been found among Human Resource Management Practices i.e. Recruitment, Training, Compensation & Benefits, Employee Value and Grievance Handling and four sub variables i.e. Job Satisfaction, Morale of Employee, Employee Commitment; Efficiency & Productivity of Organization of Organizational Effectiveness.

In analysis of Variable wise Regression of all 4 Dependent Variable of Organizational effectiveness (Job Satisfaction, Morale of Employee, Employee Commitment, Efficiency & Productivity of Organization) have been found positive result with Human Resource Management Practices i.e. Recruitment, Training, Compensation & Benefits, Employee Value and Grievance Handling.

CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, various HR practices have positive impact upon organizational Effectiveness as well as its sub variables and it is concluded that selected Human Resource Management Practices i.e. Recruitment, Training, Compensation & Benefits, Employee Value and Grievance Handling have great impact upon Organizational effectiveness of the IT companies. These HR Practices play vital role to enhance organizational effectiveness in IT companies.

SUGGESTIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

As per finding of research some suggestions has been recommended:

- IT companies should Evolve HR practices in various stages of Organizational growth, Developing Policies and procedures.
- IT companies can cope the various challenges of business as well as Internal Industrial relation dispute by designing Proactive Human Resource Planning, Collaboration with Academics, Employer Branding, involving people with value alignment, involving volunteers and beneficiaries, Fellowship models, Managing geographical challenges, Encouraging gender diversity.
- HR strategies of an IT companies should be focused upon Developing competencies among senior members, Developing skills of employees, Developing effective Performance management system in order to achieve optimum utilization of Available Human Resources.
- Employer should transcend employee's motivational levels through providing non-monetary benefits, Flexibility of working conditions, Inclusive decision making, pleasant work environment.

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CHALLENGES OF OLD AGE AND STATE INTERVENTIONS: AN ANALYSIS OF VIABILITY

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Abstract

Problems of Old age citizens is a global phenomenon, India is not an exception. The senior citizens are basically a depowered section of society owing to their physical and mental inabilities, health problems, poor living conditions, financial paucity and reluctant care in the family. They cannot be left to the mercy of destiny. In such situation, the responsibilities of state become essential to support and facilitate the elders in the society. As such it becomes an urgent imperative to underline the challenges faced by the old age people and state intervention in mitigating their problems. In this context, the present paper endeavours to throw light on the concept of gerontology, nature of challenges faced by them in Indian society and governmental steps taken so far to curb their miseries.

Keywords: Gerontology, Old-age, Challenges, Governmental steps, India

THE STATE OF OLD AGE IN INDIA

The Census 2011 reveals that there are nearly 104 million elderly persons (aged 60 years or above) in India; 53 million females and 51 million males. Both the share and size of elderly population is increasing over time. From 5.6% in 1961 the proportion has increased to 8.6% in 2011. For males it was marginally lower at 8.2%, while for females it was 9.0%. The life expectancy at birth during 2009-13 was 69.3 for females as against 65.8 years for males. At the age of 60 years average remaining length of life was found to be about 18 years (16.9 for males and 19.0 for females) and that at age 70 was less than 12 years (10.9 for males and 12.3 for

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females). A report released by the United Nations Population Fund and HelpAge India suggests that the number of elderly persons is expected to grow to 173 million by 2026. The major reason of growing old age population is reduced death rates. For 2013, the age specific death rate per 1000 population for the age group 60 - 64 years was 19.7 for rural areas and 15.0 for urban areas. Altogether it was 18.4 for the age group 60 - 64 years. As regards, sex - wise, it was 20.7 for males and 16.1 for females. The old - age dependency ratio climbed from 10.9% in 1961 to 14.2% in 2011 for India as a whole. For females and males, the value of the ratio was 14.9 % and 13.6% in 2011. Besides, prevalence of heart diseases among elderly population was much higher in urban areas than in rural parts. Most common disability among the aged persons was locomotor disability and visual disability as per Census 2011 (GoI: 2019).

CONCEPTUAL ASPECTS

“Gerontology” which is the study of the elderly came in the second half of the 20th century, ie around 1950. Therefore, it is said that Gerontology has a long history, but studies on it has a shorter history. According to Ramashubhramanyam (1974), “Geriatrics” is a branch of medical science that studies the elderly related diseases. The word “Geriatrics” has its origin in the Greek word “Geras” which means “old age”. “Geriatrics” deals with medical care of the elderly. Efforts are being made by the society to study the problems of old people in detail so that programs and services can be launched for them so that their problems can be reduced, and due respect can be given to the elderly. Former President of the United States “Hobart A. Humphrey” wrote, “Any civilized society is judged by the way the society treats three classes, the young, the old and the handicapped”. Due to many problems and hurdles, Elderly deserves special care.

As the “aged” population began to increase all over the world, they attracted the attention of social scientists and administrators from all over the world. According to the decision of the United Nations, 1982 was celebrated as the International Year of Older Persons and an attempt was made to address their problems. These old age problems would have been there since the beginning of civilization. Life began since human civilization began to move. The process of growing older played an important role in this (Freedman and Gunter: 1977) Nevertheless, old age exists as a social problem in the society and it is being studied by Social-Scientists for quite some time now.

CHALLENGES OF OLD AGE

Old age is a stage of age in which the human becomes both physically and mentally weak which has an impact on performance of various types of activity. A person

passing through all the three ashrams of Vedic age reaches that stage of life, where, the one who lived in the center of all kinds of activities in the society and family in yesteryears, suddenly, neither can remain in the center of the family nor in the center of the society. Living through all the three stages of life, a person struggles to find a better life in their final stage. In this struggle, sometimes they win, sometimes they lose, sometimes they are happy, sometimes sad but they never give up. When this round of success-failure, defeat-victory suddenly comes to that stage, where he becomes so weak physically, mentally that he runs out of life like a retired player. This condition (old age) is initially an uncomfortable state for human beings. It is such a stage of human life, where on one side they see a lot of youth and on the other hand they see their condition which makes them uncomfortable. Someone who used to enjoy all kind of activities in his past suddenly starts feeling mentally, physically weak and socially isolated. The aim of the research presented is to highlight this change in life and to investigate its problems and the steps taken by the government to get rid of the economic, physical, mental problems related to old age. Humans are social animal. They take birth in the society and end their life in the same society, but from birth to death, they live through a variety of situations. Sometimes, as a child, they get affection from their parents and sometimes they enjoy their youth. Then begins the process of establishing themselves and the struggle along with it, which they sometimes overcome which makes them happy and sometimes they lose, but under both circumstances, the struggle goes on continuously. In the race to establish oneself in life, to get more and more, to achieve more in life, they seldomly realize when the age of puberty ended and family responsibilities fell on them, this transition phase goes unnoticed. Now begins the time to establish themselves as well as to carry out family responsibilities where they must bear the responsibility of two generations. There is an obligation to take care of their parents and to fill the reggae in their one-sided life in old age, and the other responsibility is to live a better life with their child and spouse. While managing these two stages one hardly realizes when the person has reached the last stage of their life, where many types of physical mental weaknesses has taken abode in his life. A person struggling throughout his life, in old age, thinks of himself as helpless and weak. But this weakness, helplessness also makes them feel awkward initially and this situation is further aggravated when their children leave them alone at the last moment of life. In family and society, they are forced to live a life of isolation. Till yesterday, they used to meet the needs of the people around them. Assuming it as their responsibility, They performed all types of family and social activities, considering themselves as the head of the family, but today they have become so weak on the physical, mental level that even the family and society cannot bear their responsibilities. And this situation becomes even more painful when they are left alone by their sons and daughters (Mishra and Rajan: 2017).

Unfavorable social experience gives rise to feelings of frustration, uneasiness, anger and helplessness. Not accepting the changes that occur with aging, trying to keep up with the earlier life, taking intolerable attitudes towards younger people, counting defects in beauty and youth and compensating for thinking of the benefits of old age, continuously thinking that there is no point in trying. Dwelling in the thoughts of past life, thinking about happy, joyous moments of the past, intentionally and regressively thinking about ways to be dependent on others, forgetting conveniently, listening and talking to imaginary partner, victims of confusion, making illusion as one's destiny are the main problems of old age. In other words, in old age, health generally declines due to increasing age and physical decline. Chronic and long-standing disease destroys a person's strength and power. The severity of common diseases also acts as a problem. Living conditions of the elders are also not conducive to their physical status. They reside either at home or at old age homes and face problem of negligence at both the places

Elderly people who are living in an organization or old age homes find their state as miserable, those old women who have lived in unsatisfactory life in previous stages find it even more painful. The standard of living of a person at any age affects his self-respect. When a person is forced to live in such a place, which they do not like or which they think is not suitable for them creates a spontaneous feeling of discord, inferiority, dissatisfaction and discomfort. The presence of such environment changes their mood and causes problems.

With aging, there are physical changes, which decline with growing age. Although it is a normal process of aging, some people still do not pay adequate attention of their health, they do not take care of their growing age, over-eating, consumption of foods which lacks nutrients makes the body further inactive. In addition to these, excessive labor, social discomfort, stress, laziness, imbalance in the activities of the endocrine glands, effect of taking infectious food speeds up the process of getting ill much before the age. Based on physical changes, it is seen that firstly the skin becomes darker and brittle, due to thinning of the skin internal veins becomes visible, the skin becomes dry and other defects like mole and warts gain prominence, wrinkles are formed on cheeks and most of teeth falls. Fake teeth spoil the face structure. Hair falls and become white. The flesh of the arms and legs of the body starts loosening, the shoulders are bent. Fatigue, mental impulse and over exertion make the forearm tremble due to which they remain unhappy. Along with the above changes, there is a lot of internal change as well, such as the weakening of bones, loss of memory and intellectual power, external temperature changes become unbearable, any exertion can cause breathlessness. Apart from this, sleep disturbance or insomnia or breakdown of sleep in short duration bothers them. Digestive disorders affect their daily activities. This physical change gives rise to new problems for old people. It becomes impossible for them to solve physical

problems and it is seen that in the last phase of life, they are found very anxious, upset and complaining to others about their body. Physical changes affect their sociality. With increasing age, the efficiency of the senses of the person starts to decrease which causes a lot of trouble for the person. As the sensitivity decreases the power to differentiate between colors also diminishes, it is often difficult for older people to differentiate between blue and green. Far-sightedness or Short-sightedness is the common problem prevalent in every old age person, as well as hearing loss due to loss of hearing power. Smelling ability, loss of taste is seen. Consequently, the food does not look tasty. Between the age of 60 and 70 years of life, libido also decreases, which arouses the fear of getting old in their mind. Hence many new problems are present in front of them, such as difficulty in concentrating the mind, desire to be alone, ecstasy and irritability, headache, dizziness, mental physical dysfunction, emotional instability, tiredness soon. These problems make them inefficient for social activities.

At the age of 60, average person's hand grip is found to be weak. Also, there is slowness in the movement of a person. As individuals find themselves unable to carry out their functional activities systematically. The reason for this is the lack of speed coordination. Sometimes objects fall from the hands of the person or they themselves fall, they take too much time to work, there is not as much readiness or cleanliness which was there when they were young. Due to the above reasons, both old men and women are forced to remain sad and dependent on the other. For the family members, they become the nitty-gritty of the eye which becomes a formidable problem.

STATE INTERVENTIONS IN MITIGATING OLD AGE PROBLEMS

Senior citizens are given the status of prominent citizens by the central and state governments and semi-governmental organizations for the welfare of the elderly and they have been provided with many special facilities - the government has provided some special facilities for the elderly.

As financial support, governments provide with a separate window for filing of income tax returns for the elderly. According to the current rules, the senior citizen whose income is more than 1,85,000 / - per annum is required to file the returns. Under Section 80D, the general taxpayer gets a rebate of up to 10 thousand rupees on income from the medical insurance premium check. And if the same amount is paid by the senior citizen, then the exemption amount is up to Rs 15 thousand. If the TDS is being deducted on the income, interest, dividend etc. of any senior citizen, no deduction will be deducted on giving Form 5, if certain fixed investments are made under Section 80C, then the amount of investment or 1 lac whichever is less would be deducted from the taxable income. Many Co-operative,

Public and Private level banks give more interest rates to senior citizens on the amount deposited by them. The rate of interest paid on postal deposits has been increased to 7.95. Senior citizens have also been exempted from professional tax in Maharashtra.

Their health care is a big issue that is addressed by state. Central and State Government and some companies also provide Treatment and Medical facilities to their senior employees even after retiring. Senior citizens can get General Insurance up to the age of 80 years. Some hospitals are giving discounts to senior citizens for getting medical checkup and medical treatment at a free or discounted rate. Specialized medical camps are also organized for senior citizens and special counters are being operated for them in the hospital. Also, according to Section 11K, senior citizens are given a discount of up to 60 thousand rupees for treatment of incurable diseases like cancer, AIDS etc.

Respect for elders from their own is a fundamental part of Indian culture. Mothers are given the highest stature amongst elders. Mother's place has been said to be more than heaven. Mother is called Janani. She gives birth to mankind. After childbirth, she serves and sustains their life. Therefore, respect for the elderly mother is paramount. It is the duty of all the persons to take care of the elderly, and specially the family members. Families, generally joint families, create an environment in which the elderly live their lives. In a country like India, many functions in the family are like a branch. In lieu of many economic and social problems in the changing environment, the youth takes care of their old relatives, and the youth should serve their elders in the traditional society.

CONCLUSION

With the development of modernization, industrialization, urbanization, education and individualist philosophy, traditional values are decreasing, due to which the respect of elders among the youth is decreasing. Such concern is being expressed that family support and care for the elderly may become rare in the coming future. Increasing elderly population is a current problem for a developing country like India. It must be watched carefully for social and economic development. Like western countries, modernization and urbanization in India should not adversely affected this tradition. Thus, we can conclude that old age is the stage of human life where they face many good and bad experiences. If properly taken care by the family, society and government, then these experiences will prove to be a legacy for old age and old society. Society and Families can benefit from all their life experiences, but the downside is that in this growing materialistic society if the support of the family, society and government is not provided, it will prove to be a burden, and the last days of old age will be difficult to pass.

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MEETING THE CHALLENGES OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION: AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP APPROACH

M. K. Gautam*

Abstract

This research article is the second part of the previously published article entitled as “Challenges Faced by Higher Educational Leadership & It’s Solutions” which focused on leadership challenge in higher education. Present paper is an attempt to address the leadership challenges of higher education administration. Most of the challenges have been acknowledged by National Educational Policy-2020. Policy has pointed out that leadership position and head of the institution are academically sound but not well equipped with leadership capability with ability to manage complex situations (Ministry of Education, 2020). The present paper suggests three types of leadership approach to meet the challenges, namely, Shared leadership, Faculty members as leaders, Distributed leadership. The present paper does also highlight the ‘individualism’ and ‘idiosyncratic institutional practice’ as well as power and hierarchical structures that may be unable to ‘unfreeze’ their habitual ways of thinking, doing and organising.

Keywords: Leadership Approaches, Shared leadership, Faculty leaders, Distributed leadership, Higher Education

Higher educational institutions need to think differently about the quality and depth of their leadership if they are to respond effectively to the types of challenges and tensions. (Gautam:2020). It is wise for any formal educational leader, such as a Vice-Chancellor, Director, Dean, Head, school principal, to tap into the expertise and wisdom of his/her colleagues when attempting to resolve contentious challenges and tensions.

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According to Kaul (2006) the leaders of Indian higher educational institutions need to understand complexity and challenges, because their operational efficiency is constrained by social, economic and political factors. It is important to devise ways and means of mobilising additional resources without commercialising institutions of higher education and to take the institutions to a high-quality trajectory along with addressing equity concerns. The major challenges faced by the most of Indian higher educational institutions are on the quality front. Unfortunately, institutions of higher education in India are challenged by the serious shortage of faculty and that, in turn, affects teaching-learning severely and adversely. Another challenge to teaching-learning process is the student's diversity in the classrooms (Pant; 2012). We need to deliberate upon ways to strengthen the faculty, enhance their competencies to deal with managing the changed social and technological context of teaching and learning. The work environment has to be conducive so as to promote work culture among the faculty in teaching and research. The constituents of work environment need to be understood in terms of freedom, co-operation, effective communication among faculty members and between academia and administrative agencies. Pant (2012) noticed that an important problem of governance at the institutional level is autonomy. At times, compliance of regulations issued by the government and regulatory councils creates conflicts due to a multiplicity of control under the federal structure. Some of these issues need to be highlighted and discussed to arrive at probable solutions to avoid conflicts and protect the autonomy of universities and institutions. The authorities of universities/institutions have decision-making powers that guide the functioning and determine the directions of development. Mishra (2013) points out that the academic leaders find it difficult to democratise the decision-making processes in view of personal interests and whims of individual members which often hamper smooth governance. To overcome these challenges of Indian higher education we need different leadership styles.

Sharing the responsibility for making decisions in such situations will also help generate greater ownership of the decisions. Surowiecki (2005) conclude that diverse groups of individuals that are "too much alike find it harder to keep learning, because each member is bringing less and less new information to the table . . . and they become progressively less able to investigate alternatives" (p. 31). It would seem essential to listen to diverse viewpoints when attempting to: determine the ethical tensions; clarify the facts; determine possible options and their likely consequences; choose specific solutions, explain and implement them; see the action through, evaluating its impact; and learn from the experience (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001). To enhance leadership of educational institutions, educational leaders and educational communities need to rethink what educational leadership actually means and involves – its definitions, purposes, scopes and processes as well as its practices. What is proposed here is the building of organisational cultures

that promote and support greater sharing and distribution of leadership in higher educational institutions.

SHARING LEADERSHIP APPROACH

Educational leaders need to create sharing cultures where others willingly participate in and are rewarded for the successful performance of their leadership responsibilities. Crowther et al. (2002b) highlighted that such sharing is not merely a matter of splitting or distributing tasks and responsibilities in a task-oriented approach, it requires a mindset shift. It requires a 'letting go', especially by head and dean who have been used to leading from the front. For this to happen, educational leaders need to be secure enough in their own identity to freely share and distribute what were previously 'their' responsibilities. Authenticity and genuinely shared leadership, in turn, provide excellent modelling for students of healthy, communal ways of living (D'Arbon et al., 2003).

According to Pandit (1993) a contemporary view is that leadership in a complex organisation, such as institutions, faculty, or school, requires the energy, commitment and contributions of all who work there. From this perspective, shared leadership is a product of the ongoing processes of interaction and negotiation amongst all higher educational institution members as they construct and reconstruct a reality of working productively and compassionately together each day. Leadership, therefore, can be viewed as a shared communal phenomenon derived from the interactions and relationships of groups. The quality of relationships greatly influences everything else that happens in organisations, including the quality and impact of leadership (Duignan & Bhindi, 1997, p. 201).

Often leadership is equated with formal roles, and this mindset can prove an obstacle to sharing. Dempster et al. (2001) emphasised that in some hierarchical organisations, leaders expect decisions to be accepted because of their role or rank and they are surprised when their colleagues will neither follow a poor decision, nor explain why they think it was not a good decision. Leadership in such circumstances can be seen as based on the authority or power given by position. They further added that this hierarchical view limits an understanding of the need for all members to show leadership, when and where appropriate. Those in formal leadership positions need to let go of the idea that leadership is hierarchically distributed and embrace the idea that it is their responsibility to develop and nurture leadership in others.

Duignan (2005) underlined that a benefit in having depth of leadership in an organisation is that it creates a larger and deeper pool of leaders from which future executives and middle managers can be selected. A first key step in creating this depth of leadership is to share leadership responsibilities with others. Ideally, all

faculty members, including newly arrived faculty, would have a clear picture of their special space in the leadership framework of their institution. If the depth of leadership in the organisation is to be enhanced, they must feel that they are valued as significant contributors to the leadership of their organisation, no matter at what level or in what area. Thus it is high time to make the rhetoric a reality, and create collaborative communities that can embrace uncertainties and paradoxes. A key argument in a shared approach to leadership is that it needs to be widely distributed across key stakeholders, not just faculty members. A number of researchers have explored the nature and structure of what they refer to as 'distributed leadership' (Pearce & Sims, 2002; Harris, 2002; Spillane et. al., 2001; and Elmore, 2000).

For colleges and universities to truly reap the benefits of more collaborative forms of leadership, institutional decision makers should be willing to thoughtfully re-examine their own conceptions of what it means to be a successful leader. If a Vice chancellor or pro- vice chancellor continues to think of leadership as a solitary, heroic pursuit, any efforts to establish shared leadership structures will inevitably prove to be merely lip service and will not create meaningful change (Pannikar & Nair, 2012). Campus leaders are right to couple their external support for shared leadership efforts with internal reflection on how leadership can and should work in an increasingly complex higher educational system. If leaders are willing to experiment with these new approaches, their institutions stand poised to meet these complexities and challenges head-on.

FACULTY MEMBERS AS LEADERS

The concept of 'faculty leaders' has been the subject of increasing research over recent years. In some contexts, it has been linked to the question of whether teaching has gained recognition and acceptance as a profession (Institute for Educational Leadership, 2001, p. 6). Recent research points to the central role of faculty members in influencing student performances and outcomes in schooling (Andrews *et al.* 2000; Crowther *et al.* 2002a & 2002b; Darling- Hammond, 1999). Crowther *et al.* (2002a, p. 25) developed a 'faculty members as leaders' framework that highlights the importance of two key factors: faculty members' values with regard to enhancing teaching and learning; and the capacity of faculty members to create new meanings, especially for students, in the learning process. They make an important distinction between faculty members as leaders in a specialised area such as pedagogies and disciplines (e.g. subject leadership) and leadership that contributes to whole-higher educational institution reforms and improvement. In other words, faculty members should focus, primarily, on leading improvement in pedagogy and curriculum, if this is done as a whole-higher educational institution initiative it will be the best. The deans and Heads are in the best position to ensure that this larger faculty or departmental orientation is achieved (Chesterton &

Duignan, 2004). Philosophy and framework based on the concept of 'parallel leadership, which encourages faculty members to take on leadership responsibilities for curriculum and pedagogy, 'in parallel' with the principal and the executive, but within a whole institution improvement framework (Crowther *et al.* 2002a & 2002b).

For contemporary educational leaders to develop and foster the growth of shared leadership in their educational institution, they need to help faculty members to develop collaborative and shared mental models and meanings that bind them together as a learning community (Harris, 2002). The key emphasis is on learning together, sharing and creating processes and conditions that encourage everyone in the higher educational community to learn, grow, and be creative together. This is, in essence, what is meant by sharing leadership in a higher educational community. Elmore (2000) concluded that sharing leadership, in the context of the institutions as a learning community, involves growing, nurturing and supporting competent and capable faculty members to become key leaders, especially of curriculum and

DISTRIBUTING LEADERSHIP

Pearce and Sims (2002, p. 188) reported on a study that analysed the behaviour of appointed team leaders (vertical leadership) *versus* the distributed influence and effectiveness of those within the team (distributed leadership). Distributed leadership, they concluded, accounted for much of the effectiveness of change management teams. In another research project on leadership in higher educational institutions, which took leadership practice as the unit of analysis, the researchers concluded that a distributed approach to leadership can improve practice by making leadership in the higher educational institution more transparent. It enables the ways in which faculty members and other leaders think and act to change teaching and learning to be seen more clearly. Such an approach to leadership, they suggested, can help faculty members and educational leaders 'identify dimensions of their practice, articulate relations among these dimensions, and think about changing their practice' (Spillane *et al.* 2001, p. 24).

Leadership of higher Education is beyond the capacity of any one person, or of those in formal leadership positions only, and should be distributed to engage the 'contours of expertise' in the higher educational institution community, creating a culture that provides coherence, guidance and direction for teaching, learning and leadership (Elmore, 2000, p. 15). Contours of expertise suggest that there are rich veins of expertise to be found throughout organisations for those who know the organisational terrain well. Gronn (2000) elucidated that distributed leadership is, however, more than collaboration among faculty members. Gronn (2000) further added that collaborative work by faculty members will not by itself

lead to changed faculty members practice and improved learning outcomes. To engage faculty members productively in leadership there must be a whole-higher educational institution focus on change and improvement, a larger purpose than just collaboration for its own sake.

Distributed leadership, therefore, must have a clear purpose and focus to bring about whole-higher educational institution improvement in learning and teaching (Gronn, 2000). In this way, distributing leadership can be an important motivator and a contributor to the quality of teaching and learning in the higher educational institution and in the classroom. Of course, collaboration and teamwork must occur between and among faculty members and these collegial relationships should empower them to make key decisions on pedagogy and learning (Silins & Mulford, 2002) and be grounded in 'mutual trust, support and enquiry' (Harris, 2002, p. 3). However, Gronn (2000) noticed that distributed leadership is not easy to establish and maintain in practice, and consequently is not a predominant characteristic of many contemporary higher educational institution. A traditional emphasis in higher educational institutions on privacy, individualism and 'idiosyncratic institutional practice' makes collective action difficult (Harris, 2002, p. 7). These barriers must be breached if genuine distribution of leadership is to occur. If, as has already been suggested, leadership for higher educational institution improvement cannot be the responsibility of one or even a few people then it seems reasonable to conclude that a key challenge is to find ways of enabling more faculty members to become leaders and supporting them as necessary to change current pedagogical, teaching and learning practices. A new paradigm of the teaching profession is needed, one that recognises both the capacity of the profession to provide desperately needed higher educational institution revitalisation and the striking potential of faculty members to provide new forms of leadership in higher educational institution and communities (Crowther *et al.* 2002b).

While participation of faculty member is a key ingredient of true distributed leadership, the higher educational institution principal has an important role to perform. A recent review of an Australian Federal Government trial of a shared, distributed model of leadership in higher educational institutions identified the principal as a key to its success. The principal has to have the capacity to share leadership, to 'let go' so that faculty members' voices can be heard in key decisions not only on teaching and learning but also on whole-higher educational institution improvement. Principals with traditional views of position, power and hierarchical structures may find themselves unable to 'unfreeze' their habitual ways of thinking, doing and organising. Principals need to develop their leadership capabilities if they are to feel comfortable in engaging fully with faculty members in shared or distributed leadership (Duignan & Marks, 2003).

CONCLUSION

One key way to enhance leadership capacity in higher educational institutions is to rethink what educational leadership actually means and involves – its definition, purpose, scope and processes as well as its content. In many higher educational institutions, there is a need for a shift in the meaning, perspective and scope of educational leadership to promote and support greater sharing and distribution of leadership responsibilities. Ministry of human resource development, Government of India, recognized the need of the hours in leadership of higher education of Indian and launch the Leadership for Academicians Programme (LEAP) for academic leaders like VCs, Pro-VCs, directors, deans, heads, administrators of universities, principals of colleges etc. under the Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya National Mission on Teachers and Teaching (PMMMNTT) Scheme in year 2016-17.

A shared approach to leadership can enhance professional dialogue and create an environment where core educational and pedagogical decisions are seen as a collective professional responsibility. A distributed approach to leadership identifies the contours of expertise within the higher educational institution community and harnesses the talents of all key stakeholders for the purpose of improving the processes, content and outcomes of teaching and learning.

While the need for shared and distributed leadership in higher educational institutions appears to be well understood, the obstacles to its implementation need to be explored and better understood. Educational leaders have the challenge of creating conditions in which the key higher educational institution community stakeholders are willing and able to collaborate, channelling all efforts towards achieving the shared vision and goals of the higher educational community. Faculty members, especially, need to trust and support one another in a shared working environment in order to optimise learning opportunities and outcomes for all students. However, many faculty members may have to overcome a culture of individualism, privacy, professional isolationism and idiosyncratic institutional practices. Research indicates that for faculty members to share in the leadership of curriculum and pedagogy there needs to be a focus on whole higher educational institution improvement in learning and teaching as opposed to piecemeal change in a department or subject area. Engaging faculty members in shared and distributed leadership can be an important motivator and contributor to the quality of teaching and learning throughout the higher educational institution. Collegial collaboration and teamwork among faculty members should empower them to make significant and influential improvements in teaching, pedagogy and learning.

For higher educational institutions with closed professional cultures, shared and distributed leadership will not come about just because literature recommends it or because some higher educational institution stakeholders 'talk it up' as a good idea.

Changes in attitudes and mindsets are necessary before changes in practices can occur. A useful starting point, perhaps a turning point, is to encourage discussion and dialogue about the assumptions that underpin sharing and distributing leadership, as well as the strategies and actions necessary to achieve such change.

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INSOLVENCY AND BANKRUPTCY CODE (IBC) IN INDIA: IMPACT ON RECOVERY OF NPAs BY BANKS

M. S. Gupta* and J. B. Singh**

Abstract

The Insolvency and Bankruptcy Code (May 2016) is a game changer in the resolution of non-performing assets (NPAs) of banks in India because it provides a framework for time-bound insolvency resolution with the objective of promoting entrepreneurship and availability of credit while balancing the interests of all stakeholders. There is a paradigm shift under IBC in which creditors take control of the assets of the defaulting debtors, in contrast to the earlier system in which assets remained in the possession of debtors till resolution or liquidation. The experience so far has been encouraging with IBC regime. India's insolvency resolution score and recovery rate also improved in the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business Index, after the introduction of IBC. Strengthening the infrastructure of insolvency resolution should help reduce the overall time currently being taken for resolution under the IBC.

JEL Classification: G00, G33.

Keywords: Bankruptcy, Insolvency, Liquidation.

INTRODUCTION

A comprehensive bankruptcy system is necessary for having a robust and resilient banking sector as it enables a sound debtor-creditor relationship by protecting the rights of both, by promoting predictability and by ensuring efficient resolution of indebtedness. In this context, the enactment of the Insolvency and Bankruptcy

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Code (IBC) in May 2016 is construed as a major development in India as its existing-legal and institutional system was not found to be effective for dealing with banks' debt default. IBC, thus, becomes the single law that deals with insolvency and bankruptcy by consolidating and amending various laws relating to reorganisation and insolvency resolution. The IBC covers individuals, companies, limited liability partnerships, partnership firms and other legal entities, and is aimed at creating an overarching framework to facilitate the winding up of business or engineering a turnaround or exit. The IBC aims at insolvency resolution in a time-bound manner (maximum 330 days) undertaken by insolvency professionals. The institutional infrastructure under the IBC rests on four pillars: (a) insolvency professionals; (b) information utilities; (c) adjudicating authorities (National Company Law Tribunal (NCLT) and Debt Recovery Tribunal (DRT)); and (d) Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI). Under the provisions of the Code, insolvency resolution can be triggered at the first instance of default and the process of insolvency resolution has to be completed within the stipulated time limit.

On the distribution of proceeds from the sale of assets, the first priority is accorded to the costs of insolvency resolution and liquidation, followed by the secured debt together with workmen's dues for the preceding 24 months. Central and State Governments' dues are ranked lower in priority. The code proposes a paradigm shift from the existing 'debtor in possession' to a 'creditor in control' regime. Priority accorded to secured creditors is advantageous for entities such as banks. When a firm defaults on its debt, control shifts from the shareholders/promoters to a Committee of Creditors to evaluate proposals from various players about reviving the company or taking it into liquidation. This is a complete departure from the experience under the Sick Industrial Companies Act (1985) under which delays led to erosion in the value of the firm.

The key question is whether IBC, which created a conducive institutional environment and an appropriate insolvency system, is an effective tool in India for the recovery of banks' stressed assets unlike the earlier system in place. The paper makes an attempt to find an answer to this question. Against the above backdrop, Section II covers cross-country practices on the subject. Section III provides analysis and findings of the paper. Last section provides conclusion of the paper, along with some policy implications.

CROSS-COUNTRY PRACTICES

Bankruptcy regimes vary across countries, ranging from debtor-friendly ones in France and Italy to creditor-friendly ones in the UK, Sweden and Germany. While reorganisation is generally considered to favour debtors, liquidation primarily protects creditors. The insolvency and the debt resolution regime in the US can

be classified as a hybrid one, with well-defined laws and procedures for both liquidation and restructuring. Reorganisation and insolvency resolutions across a few advanced and emerging market economies provide an interesting backdrop for evaluating the Indian initiative. A brief summary on cross-country experiences on bankruptcy practices is set out below:

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Description</i>
Pre-packaged Rescue	The US and the UK allow pre-packaged rescue in which the debtor company and its creditors conclude an agreement for the sale of the company's business prior to the initiation of formal insolvency proceedings. The actual sale is executed on the commencement of the bankruptcy proceedings. <i>In India such a pre-packaged rescue is not allowed without the involvement of the court or the NCLT.</i>
Initiation of Bankruptcy	The US does not require proof of insolvency for a company to undergo rescue procedures under the Bankruptcy Code. In the UK, if a creditor wants to initiate a bankruptcy proceeding, it needs to produce clear evidence that an undisputed amount is due and a statutory demand has to be filed on the debtor. In some countries like Australia, Canada, Greece, Brazil and Russia, creditors may file only for liquidation. In the US, the UK, France, Germany, South Africa and China, creditors may file for both restructuring and liquidation. <i>In India, a financial creditor, an operational creditor or the corporate debtor itself may initiate the corporate insolvency resolution process on default of Rs.0.1 million and above.</i>
Management of Company	The US follows a debtor-in-possession regime in which the debtor retains management control of the company and has the exclusive right to propose a plan of reorganisation during the first 120 days. In the UK, the administrator takes over the management of the company. The administrator plays a central role in the rescue process and has the power to do anything necessary or expedient for the management of the affairs, business and property of the company. <i>In India, the powers of the board of directors of the corporate debtor are suspended and the Adjudicating Authority (i.e., NCLT) appoints an interim resolution professional. From that date, the management of the affairs of the corporate debtor vests in the interim resolution professional. A Committee of Creditors will approve the appointment of the interim resolution professional within 30 days of his/her appointment by the Adjudicating Authority, and subsequently approved by the Committee of Creditors with a majority vote of not less than 75 per cent of the creditors by value.</i>

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Description</i>
Rehabilitation Scheme	In the US, each class of impaired creditors needs to consent to the resolution plan through a vote of two-thirds of that class in volume. The US Bankruptcy Code also provides for 'cram down' of dissenting creditors. In the UK, acceptance of the proposal requires a simple majority (by value) of the creditors present and voting. In Germany, the plan needs to be approved by each class of creditors. In France, two committees of creditors plus a bond holders' committee are established. One creditor committee consists of all financial institutions that have a claim against the debtor and the second creditors committee consists of all the major suppliers of the debtor. Consent must be given by each committee and requires approval of two-thirds in value of those creditors who exercise their voting rights. <i>In India, the resolution professional constitutes a committee of creditors comprising of financial creditors (excluding those that would classify as related parties to the corporate debtor) after evaluating all claims received against the corporate debtor. All material decisions taken by the resolution professionals such as sale of assets, raising interim funding and creation of security interest have to be approved by the creditors' committee. All decisions of the creditors' committee have to be approved with a majority vote of not less than 75 per cent by value of financial creditors.</i>
Moratorium	In the US, the bankruptcy law provides for an automatic moratorium on the enforcement of claims against the company and its property upon filing of a petition. Similarly, the UK provides for an interim moratorium during the period between the filing of an application to appoint an administrator and the actual appointment. These moratoriums are intended to prevent a race by creditors to collect their claims, which may precipitate liquidation of the company. <i>In India, the IBC provides for an automatic moratorium of 330 days against any debt recovery actions by the creditors. In Singapore and Brazil, the moratorium holds till the entire resolution plan is approved.</i>

Source: Report on Trend and Progress of Banking in India (RTP), 2016-17, RBI.

IMPACT ON RECOVERY OF NPAS BY BANKS IN INDIA

Secondary data on various aspects of IBC and recovery of NPAs by banks in India through various channels have been used, as available in the Quarterly Newsletter of Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI) and the Report on Trend and Progress of Banking in India by RBI, for the analysis and answering the question posed above in section I. Long-time series data are not available for the empirical exercise, in view of the IBC being a recent development in India.

Since IBC came into force effective December 1, 2016, 2,542 Corporate Insolvency Resolution Process (CIRPs) have commenced till end-September 2019 (Table 1). Among stakeholders, who triggered resolution process, operational

creditors (OCs) triggered 48.5 per cent of the CIRPs, followed by 42.7 per cent by financial creditors (FCs) and 8.8 per cent by corporate debtors (CDs).

Among sectoral distribution of corporate debtors under CIRP, manufacturing sector triggered the highest number of CIRPs, followed by real estate, construction, and wholesale & retail trade (Table 2).

As on September 30, 2019, 41.1 per cent of CIRPs have been closed, of which majority (56.2 per cent) have been closed through liquidation process, while only 14.9 per cent of CIRPs were closed through resolution plan (Table 3). Liquidation could be an efficient mode of resolution for debtors in default for long time wherein the scope for revival of the enterprise is low and liquidation value exceeded resolution value. As such, the number of liquidation orders should be seen as a natural step towards efficient reallocation of resources rather than an adverse consequence of IBC itself. Among ongoing CIRPs, 35.7 per cent of them have exceeded 270 days –the upper limit being 330 days under the IBC resolution scheme.

Table 1: Initiation of Corporate Insolvency Resolution Process (CIRP)

Year	Quarter	No. of CIRPs Initiated by			
		Operational Creditors	Financial Creditors	Corporate Debtors	Total
2017	Jan-March	7	8	22	37
2017	Apr-June	58	37	34	129
2017	July-Sept	100	94	39	233
2017	Oct-Dec	67	66	14	147
2018	Jan-March	89	84	22	195
2018	Apr-June	129	99	18	246
2018	July-Sept	132	95	16	243
2018	Oct-Dec	153	106	16	275
2019	Jan-March	166	187	21	374
2019	Apr-June	154	127	13	294
2019	July-Sept	177	183	9	369
	Total	1,232	1,086	224	2,542
		(48.5)	(42.7)	(8.8)	(100.0)

Note: Figures in italics indicated in parentheses are share in total.

Source: Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI), Quarterly Newsletter.

Table 2: Sectoral Distribution of Corporate Debtors (CDs) under CIRP (as on Sept 30, 2019)

<i>Sector</i>	<i>No. of CIRPs</i>		
	<i>Closed</i>	<i>Ongoing</i>	<i>Total</i>
Manufacturing	450	593	1,043
Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities	201	299	500
Construction	88	186	274
Wholesale & Retail Trade	117	133	250
Hotel & Restaurants	27	39	66
Electricity & Others	22	47	69
Transport, storage and Communication	30	42	72
Others	110	158	268
Total	1,045	1,497	2,542
	(41.1)	(58.9)	(100.0)

Note: Figures in italics indicated in parentheses are share in total.

Source: Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI), Quarterly Newsletter.

Around 73 per cent of CIRPs, which ended in liquidation, were earlier with Board of Industrial and Financial Reconstruction (BIFR) and or defunct (Table 4). The economic value in most of these CDs had already eroded before they were admitted into CIRP.

As on end-September 2019, realisation by FCs under resolution plan in comparison to liquidation value was 183.9 per cent, while the realisation value by FCs in comparison to their claims was only 41.5 per cent (Table 5).

Table 3: Status of CIRPs (as on Sept 30, 2019)

<i>Status of CIRPs</i>	<i>No. of CIRPs</i>	<i>Share (%)</i>
1. Admitted	2,542	100.0
2. Closed	1,045	41.1
Closed on Appeal/Review/Settled	186	17.8
Closed on Withdrawal under Section 12A	116	11.1
Closed by Resolution Plan	156	14.9
Closed by Liquidation	587	56.2
3. Ongoing CIRPs	1,497	58.9
More than 270 days	535	35.7
More than 180 days but less than 270 days	324	21.6
More than 90 days but less than 180 days	276	18.4
Less than 90 days	362	24.2

Source: Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI), Quarterly Newsletter.

Table 4: CIRPs Ending with Orders for Liquidation

<i>Item</i>	<i>No. of CIRPs Initiated by</i>			
	<i>Financial Creditors</i>	<i>Operational Creditors</i>	<i>Corporate Debtors</i>	<i>Total</i>
Either in BIFR or Non-functional or both	153	190	84	427
	(35.8)	(44.5)	(19.7)	(72.7)
Resolution Value less than Liquidation Value	188	221	85	494
	(38.1)	(44.7)	(17.2)	(84.2)
Resolution Value more than Liquidation Value	43	26	23	92
	(46.7)	(28.3)	(25.0)	(15.7)

Note: Figures in italics indicated in parentheses are share in respective total.

Source: Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI), Quarterly Newsletter.

Table 5: CIRPs Yielding Resolution (as on Sept 30, 2019)

(Rs. Billion)

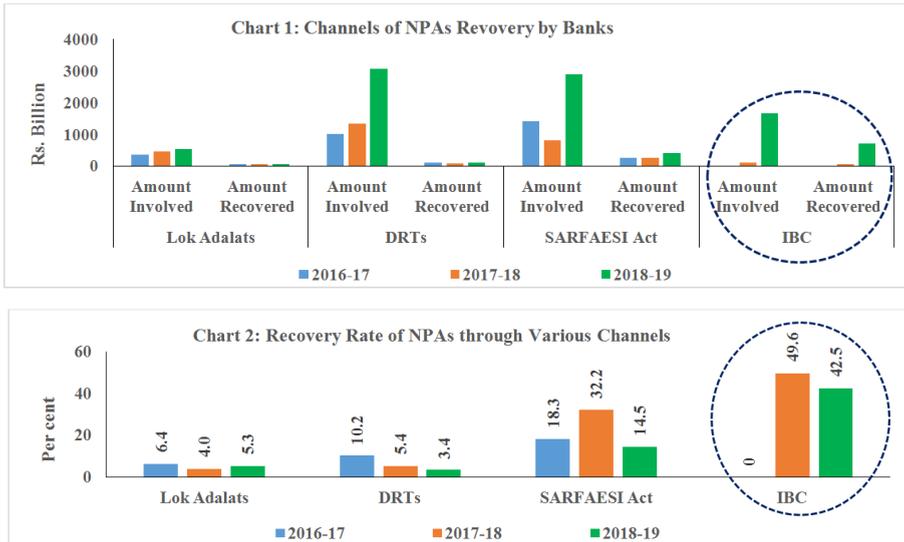
<i>Item</i>	<i>Amount</i>	<i>Share in Admitted Claims (%)</i>
Total Admitted Claims of Financial Creditors (FCs)	3,320.9	
Liquidation Value	750.0	22.6
Realisable Value by FCs	1,379.2	41.5
		(183.9)

Note: Figure in italics indicated in parenthesis is share of realisable value in liquidation value.

Source: Insolvency and Bankruptcy Board of India (IBBI), Quarterly Newsletter.

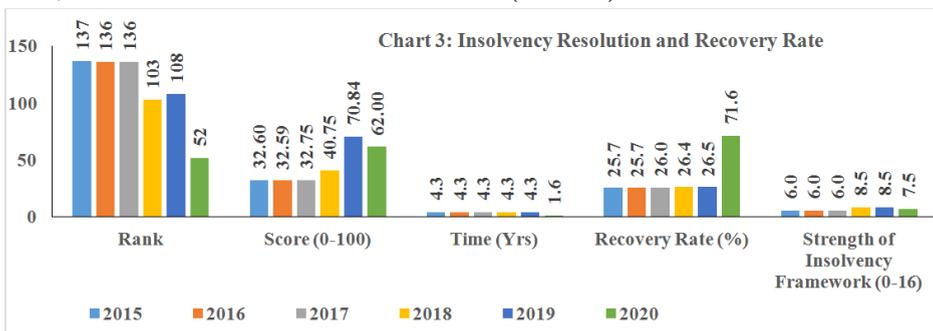
Recovery of stressed assets improved during 2017-19 facilitated by resolutions under the IBC (Charts 1 and 2). The recovery through IBC is higher than the earlier channels and is also improving gradually, pointing to the need and efficiency of such a channel. However, recovery rates (amount recovered as ratio to amount involved) yielded by major resolution mechanisms(except *Lok Adalats*) declined in 2018-19,especially through the SARFAESI mechanism. Cases referred for recovery under various mechanisms grew over 27 per cent in volume and tripled in value during 2018-19, leading to a pile-up of bankruptcy proceedings. This highlights the

need to strengthen and expand the supportive infrastructure for faster resolution of CIRPs.



Source: Report on Trend and Progress of Banking India (RTP), Various Issues, RBI.

Recovery of stressed assets improved through the IBC and Securitisation and Reconstruction of Financial Assets and Enforcement of Security Interests (SARFAESI) Act. Apart from vigorous efforts by banks for speedier recovery, amending the SARFAESI Act to bring in a provision of three months’ imprisonment in case the borrower does not provide asset details and for the lender to get possession of mortgaged property within 30 days, may have contributed to better recovery. Recovery through *Lok Adalats* and Debt Recovery Tribunals (DRTs) declined alongside the number of cases referred partly indicative of growing clout of the IBC mechanism for resolution of stressed assets. India’s insolvency resolution score and recovery rate improved in the World Bank’s Ease of Doing Business Index, after the introduction of IBC in 2016 (Chart 3).



Source: Doing Business Report, Various Issues, World Bank.

CONCLUSION

Effective mechanisms for faster resolution of stressed assets remain key to the revival of the banking system. Under the IBC, traction is gathering, with an increase in total recoveries of NPAs in the recent period, although there has been some increase in haircuts. The applicability of IBC has been expanded to cover certain categories of financial service providers (FSPs) as well, which would help in making the law comprehensive and more effective. Although the time limit for resolution under IBC has been recently extended to 330 days, some cases are delayed beyond the limit, partly reflecting repeated litigations. At the same time, improvement in supportive infrastructure is a *sine qua non* for expediting the resolution process. Even though two new benches of National Company Law Tribunal (NCLT) are being set up, more benches and members are required. The recently announced prudential framework for stressed assets serves as a multi-pronged strategy in this regard, expanding degrees of freedom for lenders while prescribing disincentives for delayed implementation of resolution plans. It is expected that this framework will sustain improvements in credit culture that are in motion, in conjunction with the IBC.

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PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT IN UTTARAKHAND: A STUDY OF ELECTED WOMEN PANCHAYAT REPRESENTATIVES AND SELF-HELP GROUPS IN PITHORAGARH

Shubhra Pant Kothari*

Abstract

Participatory development, empowerment and inclusion have become much-researched themes in the area of gender studies. Development mainstream takes some of the practices of participatory development making the feminist concern about representation, empowerment and affirmative action more crucial. As such, the present paper extensively focus on the role of the EWRs (Elected Women Representatives) in participatory development and through participation in SHGs of Uttarakhand which facilitated its members with more roles in household decision making, the betterment of health facilities, increased self-confidence & self-esteem, capacity building and financial literacy. The analysis bases on the quantitative results and the qualitative findings obtained through observation and case studies in the selected regions of Uttarakhand. The examination divulges that level of participation in SHG is positively and significantly associated with the community mobilization and political participation of members. Prima facie, our attempt finds that EWRs are having hurdles in exerting roles in participatory development whereas SHGs have shown some promise.

Keywords: Participatory Development, participation, Women Representatives, SHGs, Pithoragarh, Uttarakhand.

INTRODUCTION

Participatory development entails people's greater participation in development spree particularly from weaker sections of the society and in turn, women's participation becomes more significant in the context of structural changes in

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favour of women at the level of local self-government, particularly PRIs (Panchayat raj institutions). An array of studies reveals that provision of reservation of fifty per cent seats for women in PRIs in one go has resulted into the rise of 'proxy leadership among women'. However, with the passage of time, the situation of self-assertive roles by women leaders at the grassroots level began improving gradually. The introduction of SHGs (Self-Help groups) empowered rural women to play roles in the social domain (Verma: 2009, Kumari & Verma: 2010, Kumari: 2016). Amidst rhetoric about actual participation and involvement of women at the rural level in the PRIs, empirical evidence appears to be far from inclusive and transformative in terms of women's roles (Jayal et al: 2006, Bavani et al: 2006). The broad aim of participatory development is to increase the involvement of people who are socially, economically and often politically marginalized and to include them in decision-making processes in the political institutions. However, questions have been raised towards the extent to which participatory development initiatives have answered politics of differences and inequalities based on wealth, religion, caste, race, ethnicity and gender. It divulges that level of participation in SHG is positively and significantly associated with the community mobilization and political participation of members and cohesively bridging the gap between the rural EWRs and the state institutions.

The idea of inclusiveness is prominent and central to people's participation in development. And for effective participation, people's involvement not as an individual but as a collective unit is much required. In this respect, we could see the rise of group collectives working with the governmental institutions in collaboration with NGOs on forest and water management, MNREGA and other government policies in several parts of rural India.

But even after many states providing 50 per cent reservation for rural women in local self-government, the participation of elected women representatives (EWRs) in decision-making processes in PRIs is still bleak. The most striking question that still irks us is - Has the process of democratisation at the rural level through affirmative action fostered and enhanced their capability of rural women to have a role in participatory development of their societies? There is, further, the chasm between policy designs and policy implementation, where policy implied has not been the driving force for enriching participatory development of women. On the other hand, capacity-building organisations in the form of SHGs (Self-Help Groups) trying hard to bridge the gap between EWRs and local bureaucracy by educating them about their work and functionalities. The examination of these aspects involves the clarification of perception of participatory development.

PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT: THE CONCEPTUAL ASPECTS

People's participation naturally refers to people's political participation in public affairs. The issue acquired a significant place in political discourses since the 1970s. Later, people's participation in development process became the prime subject for development scholarship. People can be involved in the development process in four dimensions – namely, formulation of development projects, implementation of the projects, monitoring and evaluation of the projects and enjoying the fruits of development (Mishra: 1991). The concept of political participation has been defined in different ways, yet it could be perceived as the actions of citizens seeking to influence or support the government and the policy process. Milbrath and Goel have encompassed ceremonial and support activities in political participation (1977, p. 2). Sydney Verba (Verba et al: 1979) opines that political participation in a democracy gives an opportunity to its citizens to exchange and communicate information to government officials about their concerns and preferences and to put pressure on them to respond. Thus, the study of people's political participation refers to tools, actions and targets involving citizens' participation becomes imperative to be understood and analysed. Also, in any given democratic system citizens have the right to indicate and convey their views and perspectives towards everything going around in the public sphere or concerning their own interests in a way that government officials respond and become accountable towards its people.

As democratisation is a multi-stage and multidimensional process, it involves greater participation of people in a polity. It not only evolves new rules and procedures but also engages at the social level and interact between different levels, especially elite- mass relations. Democratisation could be understood as a stage required for making participatory development possible. Carole Pateman opined that the theory of participatory democracy is built around the central assertion that the individuals and their institutions can't be considered in isolation from one another. For a democracy, the existence of representative institutions is not sufficient; for maximum participation by all the people at that level socialization or social training, for democracy must take place in other spheres in order that the necessary individual attitudes can be developed. This development takes place through the process of participation itself.

Since its independence, India faced several social and political issues based on race, caste, language as well as gender. The issue of women political participation in India remains quite engaging and encouraging. The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments initially made provisions of reservation of 33 per cent seats for women in PRIs, but left scope for reservations for weaker sections including women to be decided by the states. Some states raised this percentage to fifty per cent and Bihar took the lead. As result, nearly a million of women in India became a part of decision-making process, especially at the grassroots level.

WOMEN'S ROLES IN PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT AND PRIS

The organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) during the 1990s thrust upon the need for the economic and social development of developing countries by adopting certain measures towards participatory development of all and especially the need for uplifting marginalised people and bringing them to the mainstream by providing social justice and making them self-reliant. Amartya Sen (1960) has pointed out, "Democracy is not only the goal of Development; it is the primary means of development". Only when every individual experiences greater freedom voice and opportunity will each fully bring his or her creative powers to bear on solving the problem of community. The broad aim of participatory development is to increase the involvement of socially, economically and often politically marginalized people in decision-making about their own lives. However, several questions have been raised and dilemma obscured about the extent to which participatory development initiatives have actually addressed differences and inequalities based on religion, caste, race, ethnicity and gender.

In India, the introduction of Panchayati Raj signified the beginning of a new era of participatory development and laid the foundation of bottom-up planning. The ideas of PRIs have been to (a) promote people's participation in rural development programmes; (b) provide an institutional framework for popular administration; (c) act as a harbinger of social and political change; (d) facilitate local mobilization, prepare and also assist in the implementation of development plans at the grassroots level.

In this light, Self Help Groups has played a positive and transformative role for the rural women in building up their capabilities towards overall political and economic development. SHG is the world's largest community-based organization (CBO) in India with a special focus on women.

Here we focus on the EWRs (Elected Women Representatives) of Uttarakhand and their role in participatory development through the increasing level of participation in SHGs bringing for its members more household decision making power, better health facilities, increased self-confidence & self-esteem, capacity building and financial literacy (which are all indicators of social-economic empowerment). It divulges that level of participation in SHG is positively and significantly associated with the community mobilization and political participation of members.

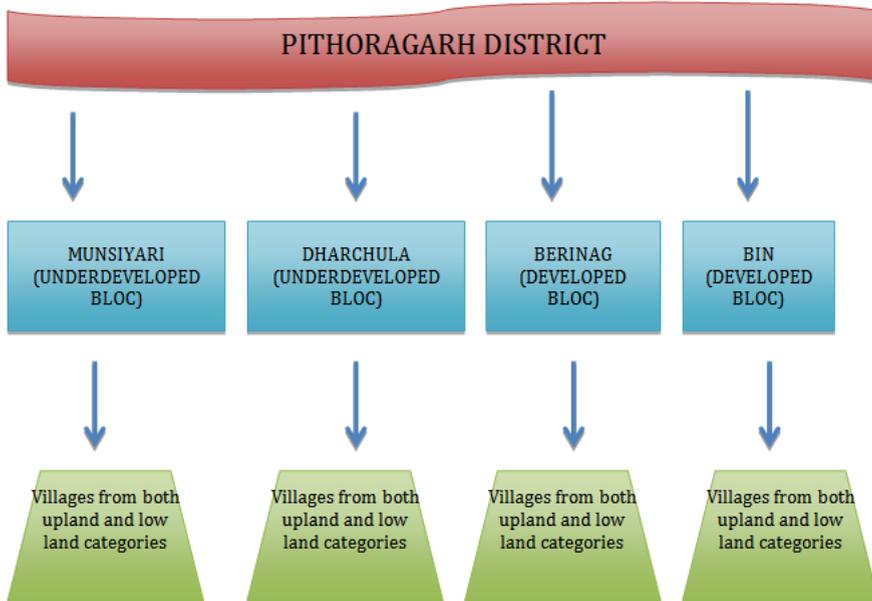
THE CASE OF UTTARAKHAND: WOMEN IN PRIS

Uttarakhand comprises of 13 districts in two main divisions of Kumaon and Garhwal. It is one of the most socially and economically backward regions of India. The incidence of migration is very high in these regions of the state that

has been proved to hurdle in the development of the region. Due to the large scale of migration, the women become fundamental in the economy of Uttarakhand. As there has been a history of women's significant roles in the social and political movements, it was hoped that fifty per cent reservation in PRIs would be instrumental in their political and economic development. However, it was found that women representation and their actual participation have been constantly cornered and ignored. This is for this reason that the whole purpose of reservation provisions in PRI have least been widely successful and it became nothing more than 'proxy leadership' (*Pradhan Pati* system).

The rationale of this study is primarily inclined towards an understanding of the issues of participatory development of women in the Kumaon region of Uttarakhand in a wider perspective, involving administrative, political, social, cultural and structural considerations.

An empirical and exploratory study was done in the Pithoragarh district of Uttarakhand where interviews with EWRs were conducted in the lowland and upland villages. On the basis of a survey with the help of schedule and observation to explain the respondent's profile, nature and level of participation and performance of EWRs in panchayats and rural administration were examined. Besides, the role of women in SHGs was also examined in terms of participation for development and empowerment of women Pithoragarh District of Uttarakhand. The profile of selected areas for the present study is shown in the following chart:



DATA COLLECTION

The sampled EWRs of village panchayats, who were interviewed, were from two blocs falling in two categories of development status namely, developed bloc and the underdeveloped bloc. The development status of the blocs was obtained from the official data of the state government. From each of these blocs ten village panchayats each of lowland and upland categories were selected and from these villages elected women representatives (EWRs) of the selected villages were interviewed. The data on the personal profile, political awareness, perception of roles of PRIs, their diagnosis of problems, steps taken to solve the problems, roles through SHGs and attitude and treatment meted out to them by the rest of the social sections were obtained through interviews.

Disparities between participatory development of EWRs in the lowland and upland villages were found in the survey results. Most EWRs from lowland villages complained that they were not provided with enough training by officers for the panchayat related roles resulting in lack of administrative knowledge and skills. Majority of women Pradhans faced great difficulties in attending the meetings of both bloc and district level PR bodies. Among the difficulties, the major difficulty was the transportation facilities as there were inadequate public transport facilities in the locality. Eighty per cent of 'women *pradhans*' from lowland villages felt that it was difficult for them to travel long distances to attend meetings at *Zila panchayat* in Pithoragarh as there are poor road connectivity with most of the lowland villages. However, their participation in MNREGA jobs was quite satisfactory. Another difficulty faced by them was lack of communication with a local bureaucracy like BDOs and such other authorities. The third major difficulty was their ignorance of concerned laws and stipulated roles. Most of the EWRs from the lowland villages were ignorant of rules, regulations and functioning of PRIs.

Therefore, local governance lacks ways to influence policies, programmes, or resource allocations for development. Most of the EWRs have no effective means of participating in shaping their future and it was also found that government officials remain less accountable to the communities they have a purpose to serve. It was observed that EWRs were fully participating in the panchayat meetings but they were kept outside the vicinity of decision-making. All the major issues raised by them were sidelined. Women Pradhans also complained that male members of the panch handled all financial resources by keeping it outside their purview.



Sample of living standard of an EWR



An EWR works in field ploughing a field

THE CASE OF UTTARAKHAND: ROLE OF SHGS

The overall capacity building initiatives by SHGs are designed to bring women into political structures and support their participation in politics, by organizing campaigns and training programmes to prepare women for varied roles to enable them to engage in local priorities to the planning process. SHGs adopted a multi-track approach to achieve the project objectives. They were tasked with facilitating women's participation, inspiring them to lead the process of change in the district, strengthening the existing collectives and networking with them at different levels in many districts of Uttarakhand. The difficult terrain of Pithoragarh district of Kumaon region has very limited resources and these initiatives by SHGs are required in the lowland villages as the need of the hour. SHGs help the poor, women and marginalized to reduce their vulnerability through the use of micro-finance to engage in income-generating activities. Following are the main findings of their roles in SHGs in the studied areas: i) enabled poor especially women the opportunity to access formal saving institutions and participate in managing those savings, ii) facilitated women's access to credit, making them able to meet their basic needs and thereby improving their quality of life, iii) enabled them to access the services like transport, medical, sanitation, education etc., iv) generated self-employment opportunities for them, v) enabled women to take roles in the social domain as well as in decision making at the household level. Besides, made women enthused to participate and express their views confidently in the meetings of the panchayat bodies and vi) changed their outlook to their own life.

Further, it was found during the survey that in Uttarakhand, current networks of women groups were encouraged to organize themselves into deliberative forums at the block level, so that they can participate effectively in the governance process. The process of networking involved a) identifying active EWRs by the block level volunteers; b) door to door campaigns, regular meetings and c) field visits

by volunteers to motivate women to participate in activities related to political processes.

Once the forum was developed and took a shape, block-level workshops were organized to formulate the constitution, formalize the forum, enabling to debate on the agenda and discuss the need to provide support wherever and whenever required. Amidst the difficult geographical, social and economic conditions, EWRs needed to move to the mainstream and the only way forward is the co-operation and collaboration between the PRIs and the district planning administration with SHGs, women's groups, trained citizen leaders and the people themselves for the design and implementation of the capacity building programmes.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Genuine coordination was required among the government apparatus, stakeholders and NGOs that could lead to effective interventions and resolutions. Training has been an important prerequisite for EWRs at village *panchayat*, block and *Zila panchayat* level. It was felt that there was a need to actively encourage them to share the experiences and success stories with other EWRs, and greater exposure was required for the women groups through their visits and meetings. Another major aspect was to strengthen the interventions for specifically targeted women belonging to marginalized sections (Dalits and tribals). An interface with other panchayat functionaries at the block and district level should be tried to reach out to experienced academics and media persons to broaden their knowledge. Again, there is a stringent need of building up a greater partnership between the government, stakeholders and NGOs to evolve effective interventions. The NGOs working in this direction in the Pithoragarh district of Uttarakhand are Himalayan Study Circle, Avani, SUDHA (Society for Uttaranchal Development and Himalayan Action), SKS (Sainya ka sangathan) supported by UNDP and PRADAN (Padma Shri Deep Joshi, Magsaysay Awardee)

The present enquiry reveals that PRIs have been inadequately successful in enabling the EWRs even though they are empowered to prepare plans for economic development and social justice. The inhibiting factors in this regard were - (a) lack of self-assertive roles by elected women representatives in decision making; (b) conservative social behavior and reluctance of the higher echelons of the government to devolve financial and administrative powers to them as they continue to control the planning and implementation of developmental projects; (c) apathetic attitudes of local bureaucrats and politicians; (d) lack of capable linkages among the three tiers that creates insufficient capacity and resources among Panchayats (and Gram Sabha) to run their activities effectively.

There is an urgent need to reconstruct the district planning according to the local needs and conditions and also to launch capacity building programmes for the EWRs in the lowland villages with the help of SHGs. As there was gross discrimination in conducting the training programmes for EWRs in lowland villages as compared to and upland villages.

Participatory development attempts to introduce bottom-up planning that could focus on qualitative improvement in the participation of local people. As such, there must be efforts to facilitate the long-term process of participation and development at the grassroots level. Therefore, participatory development should be a long-term and dynamic process to raise the awareness of local people, forming community groups, upgrading their requisite resource management abilities, to strengthen Gram Sabha, providing autonomy to EWRs in decision-making process, creating norms or internalizing their mechanisms and improving capabilities of EWRs for external negotiations. The participatory process should be such that it shapes and plan with a long-term vision and also involves traditional methods of community systems as tools of development. The NGOs/SHGs, working in the locality, should be encouraged to interact with EWRs and it is high time to bridge the gap between EWRs and government functionaries in Pithoragarh district of Uttarakhand.

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ROLE OF JEEVIKA PROGRAMME IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN BIHAR: A CASE STUDY OF GAYA DISTRICT

Renu Singh* and Deepak Kumar**

Abstract

Bihar continues to exhibit the lowest human Development index (HDI) amongst the major states of India. Ninety per cent population of Bihar lives in the rural areas. The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) stands at 0.246 and proportion of poor population in Bihar is 33.7 percent of them, 22.1 percent come under severely poor population (GoI: 2019). The Gramin Bank microfinance becomes an important means of poverty alleviation through Self-help Groups (SHGs) by providing small credit to the rural poor. As such it becomes an imperative to examine the role of SHGs in poverty alleviation in Bihar. The present study is based on empirical enquiry by sampling two hundred fifty rural women associated with different SHGs run by JEEVIKA. Gaya district of Bihar was selected for case study to examine the role of Jeevika programme. The survey results reveal that jeevika has a positive impact on women empowerment through SHGs, in terms of improvement in social awareness, participation, savings habits, income level, self employment, asset creation, repayment of other debts, decision making skills, group solidarity and nutrition at their household. The SHGs have enabled poor women to get access of various financial products and services and many women to achieve social recognition. And most important through the institution jeevika, their Re socialization occurs and they develop their new identity in the society.

Keywords: Poverty, JEEVIKA, Self-help Groups (SHGs), Women Empowerment, Livelihood.

INTRODUCTION

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India is a country of villages. According to 2011 census, there are 6, 49,481 villages in India. Around 70 percent of population lives in the villages. Village has a definable structure and is a clear entity for the villagers themselves; it is a sub-system which exists within the larger political, economic, social and religious system. Societal structure in rural India is basically interconnection of various types of social statuses and roles. Village has an organized pattern of rights and obligations of persons and groups in an institutionalized form having socially acceptable social norms and values.

Bihar is country's most impoverished state, positioned at the bottom in various social conditions and it is the most densely populated state(census, 2011)with approximately 83 million population, which accounts for one seventh of the below poverty line (BPL) population of India. Poverty in Bihar is significantly a rural phenomenon. (World Bank 2018).

Table 1.1: Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) for Bihar and India

	<i>Bihar</i>	<i>India</i>
MPI	0.246	0.121
Percentage of poor population	52.2	27.5
Percentage of severely Poor population.	22.1	8.6

Source: Bihar Economic Survey, 2019

Bihar continues to exhibit the lowest human Development index (HDI) amongst the major states of India. Ninety per cent population of Bihar lives in the rural sector. Health and education outcomes are the worst in the country for the rural women. The maternal mortality rate is at 707 (the national average is 404) and literacy level is just 34% (Census, 2011). The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) stands at 0.246 and proportion of poor population in Bihar is 52.2 percent of them, 22.1 percent come under severely poor population (BES, 2019).

Institution building is vital for poverty reduction across the world due to this, in our country it was felt to launch National Rural livelihood mission to institutionalize the SHGs for poverty reduction programmes. In this connection JEEVIKA is a state-led initiative, launched in September 2007 and funded by the World Bank, based on "savings-led" SHGs, it comprises the poorest, and the most socially excluded women. It is conceived in terms of Individual institutional building with emphasis on well-being and empowerment, Individual and collective capacity- building, for drawing on the discourse on the capability approach, adoption and participation in self-selected livelihoods opportunities. The focal point of the process is the individual rural woman and her "agency".

OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

In view of the above situation, the present study intends to examine the role of JEEVIKA in socio economic development leading to poverty alleviation in rural society and also its impact on society. Present study is a case study of Gaya district. Gaya is certainly not unique but indeed represents a wide range of “backward agrarian pockets” of the country. An empirical investigation into the rural non-farm economy of a setting like this may also help us engage with the policy relevance of such a shift for the local economy and exclusionary social structures of chronically poor settings. The universe of the study is rural women of Bihar.

The stratified sampling method was used; at first stage three blocks namely Sherghati, Barachatti and Bodh Gaya were selected and second stage purposive sampling method was used to draw a sample size of 250 rural women associated with different SHGs run by JEEVIKA of the selected blocks. Interview schedule were administered to collect data from the respondents. The interview schedule has contained many questions of structured nature and few questions were also included to secure free expression of opinion.

A BRIEF PROFILE OF GAYA DISTRICT

Among total population of Gaya district, 86.76 % population lives in rural areas and social structure of these societies is peasant society. The total population of Gaya district which lives in agrarian society is 3,809,817, in which number of male and female is 1,960,592 and 1,849,225 respectively. In rural areas of Gaya district, sex ratio is 943 women per 1000 men. Literacy rate in rural areas of Gaya district is 61.01 % as per census data 2011. Gender wise, male and female literacy rate stands at 71.32 and 50.02 percent respectively. In total, 1,895,908 people literate, in which men and women are 1,143,417 and 752,491 respectively. Out of total population, 86.76% of population lives in rural area and 13.24% lives in urban area. There are 30.39% Scheduled Caste (SC) and 0.07% Scheduled Tribe (ST) population reside in Gaya district.

In demographic profile, Gaya district consists one of the largest SC populated district of the state. Which mainly consist of manjhi (mushar community) followed by chaudhary (pasi). Their socio-economic status is very low. They usually live in kutchha houses and their education level is also very poor (Census, 2011).

The study is undertaken in three blocks of Gaya district. Due to the relatively high poverty levels and trends in growth of SHGs activities, we have decided to locate our study in Gaya district of Bihar, which is representative of the state presence of large village settlements. Gaya is part of the intensive districts from the time of conception, while the three blocks are Barachatti, Bodh Gaya and Sherghati. These blocks have selected to understand the difference of impact due

to spatial administrative exclusion. Barachatti block is at periphery of the district Gaya, bordering Jharkhand while Bodh Gaya is a centre of JEEVIKA project administration. And third one is Sherghati block, due to residence in this block, it makes convenient to interview with the Jeevika respondents for the better results of research.

Table 1.2: Total Number of SHG.

<i>Districts selected</i>	<i>Block selected</i>	<i>No. of CLF</i>	<i>No. of VO</i>	<i>No. of SHG</i>	<i>No of HH</i>
Gaya	Sherghati	3	102	1275	15223
	Barachatti	3	61	1249	15112
	Bodhgaya	4	182	2226	27412
Total		7	345	4750	57747

Source: DRDA, Gaya

JEEVIKA (BIHAR RURAL LIVELIHOOD PROJECT)

Bihar, although rich in fertile land, accelerating economic growth and creating an environment for ensuring 'spread effect of growth' have been emphasized, especially during 1990s, for poverty alleviation. Social institutions – joint family system, jajmani system and traditional occupation-based institutions, which provide social security to the poor, are breaking down at the grass roots level. Thus, there is an institutional vacuum at the grass roots level to safeguard the interests of the poor (Khanna, 2009).

One of the main problems of poor rural community is non availability of credit, primarily because of weak infrastructure in rural areas of formal sector banks. (Esty, 2007) Local moneylenders try to fill the gap of banks of formal sector banks, but they charge extremely high rates of interests ultimately rural communities left without credit at all. The financial sector delivery in rural areas remains sterile from microcredit access to the poorest cohorts. Such households remain dependent on informal sector credit at very high borrowing costs. However, success of Bangladesh Grameen Bank has made microcredit or microfinance an important means for providing small credit to the rural poor through Self-help Groups (SHGs) to solve the problem of inadequate access of banking services by the poor (Yunus, 2004). Collins dictionary defines self help group as "group of people often in distress, set up for mutual support and assistance towards renewed psychological health". Therefore SHGs are informal associations of people come together to find ways to improve their living conditions. (Krishna, 2004).

Bihar Rural Livelihood Project started in 2007, this programme is aided by the World Bank and is popularly known as Jeevika. In 2007, Jeevika had begun in 6 blocks in 6 different districts of Bihar; later the programme gradually expanded

and now covers all the 534 blocks of 38 districts. The programme aims at reducing in poverty through skill development and gainful self-employment. The core strategy of this programme is to create sustainable sources of income and financial inclusion, through self-managed community level organizations, particularly women Self-Help Groups (SHG).

The JEEVIKA project design is based on the strategy of building a multi-tiered, self sustaining, model of community based institutions who self manage their own development processes (Dutta, 2015). The core strategy of this programme is to create sustainable sources of income and financial inclusion, through self-managed community level organizations, particularly women Self-Help Groups (SHG).

Table 1.3: Progress of Jeevika

<i>Items</i>	<i>2014-15</i>	<i>2015-16</i>	<i>2016-17</i>	<i>2017-18</i>	<i>2018-19</i>
No Of SHG formed	365150	470220	610808	790411	817169
No of VOs formed	14363	31229	35681	46756	51299
No of CLFs formed	231	318	415	706	843
No of SHG credit linked with banks	121181	221261	391314	587616	655302
Bank Credit(in crores)	659	1300	2993	5358	6206

Source: Jeevika, Government of Bihar

The project strategy is therefore phased in a manner, first horizontally building up a very large number of primary level women based SHG groups with the rural poor, through saturation. Because of the extreme poverty levels in Bihar, the project will first capitalize these SHGs, through investing part of the CIF, to supplement the self-savings of these groups. The groups will also be linked to the commercial banks for low cost loans.

In the third phase, the VOs will be federated to form higher level community organizations at the cluster and block levels. These apex community level federations will be responsible for enhancing livelihood activities in a comprehensive manner acting as microfinance institutions for lower level VOs, and economic institutions that take up specific income generating activities based on the assets creation at the family level, such as animal husbandry, micro-agriculture etc. For the sustainability of lower level institutions as both sustainable economic and social entities such aggregation is essential.

To ensure that assetisation of the poor is put to productive use and does not just lead to them procuring an asset or cash that is captured by the elite thereby not leading to income streams increasing, a set of service providers will be positioned in the project, through partnerships, who provide forward linkages to markets for products and services on which the poor have a very high outflow today.

The above sequential and interlinked project design, phased over the project period, will create a social and economic ecosystem controlled by the poor and leading to their own sustainable development. It has expanded to all 534 blocks in these 38 districts to mobilize 655302 SHGs and over 108 million women. (BRLPS, 2018).

FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY

The objective of jeevika is to establish community based organizations based on traditional and cultural values keeping in view. It is found that women are organized in groups of 12-15, in caste homogeneous group. They sit in circular form on the floor during meetings so that each member has a sense of social equality. They sing local folk to get together during group meetings. If we take a look over the name of SHGs group name it is based on local tradition, culture or religion like Shiv, Ganga, Saraswati, Ganesh, pooja etc. Economic structure of rural society was closed and technological innovations was rare, the total volume of knowledge which existed in the form of folklore, mythologies, riddles, and folksongs etc, could be handed down to the younger generation by the elders through the medium of oral tradition (Singh, Yogendra, 2007).

Table 1.4: Block wise Distribution (%) of house hold by categories

<i>Caste</i>	<i>Sherghati</i>	<i>Barachatti</i>	<i>Bodhgaya</i>	<i>Overall</i>
SHG Members				
General	8.33	0	10.4	6.24
OBC	27.5	66	23.3	38.93
EBC	17.5	14	23.3	18.26
SC	32.5	20	36.6	29.7
ST	14.17	0	6.4	6.85

Social hierarchy underlying caste system supported by Hinduism is said to distinguish Indian society from modern society whose fundamental principle is equality (Harlambos, 2014). Caste is a set of relationship of economic, political and kinship systems sustained by certain values, which are mostly religious in nature, caste is not a form of stratification but a special form of inequality (Domount, Louis, 1996, Nagla, B, K)

Study shows that 36 percent women are from schedule caste and schedule tribe community and if we add other backward class also the percentage became 94. It is evident that jeevika planning strategy of intervention is to target the deprived section of society and enfold in the new identity of jeevika. The behavior which are considered as sociologically “pure” are adapted by these SHGs women, like doing pranam, calling everybody by salutation Bhaiya, Didi’s and do prarthana

before meeting. Organize their meeting to public worship place like mandir or some divine place. Hence they adapt all the purity related karmas of Hindu dharma by acculturation to get recognition in society. Jeevika women are called as Jeevika Didis. “Didis” is a value neutral word means “sister” it brings prestige and pride among them called as Didi’s.

A social change occurred in public perception and now at all platform being it panchayat office, Bank, post office, Block office, sub division, even by Chief Minister and also in high profile gathering their presence is acknowledged as well as their voices. A silent revolution for change in caste ridden society is started by rural SHGs women. Comments regarding Indians tradition, it can be said that any tradition emanating from caste system cannot be nation’s tradition as the constitution has rejected caste and advocates for equality (Dube, 1996).

Table 1.5: Block wise Distribution (%) of house hold by Type of Family

<i>Caste</i>	<i>Sherghati</i>	<i>Barachatti</i>	<i>Bodhgaya</i>	<i>Overall</i>
SHG Members				
Joint	30.83	40	34.54	35.12
Nuclear	69.17	60	65.46	64.87

The study found that 64.87 women are having nuclear family. Lower caste families, where the main occupation is agricultural labors, doing household jobs were mostly nuclear family but this nuclearity was often due to negative rather than positive causes. These negatives factors were absence of landed property, and further due to lack of sufficient and stable means of livelihood (Singh, yogendra, 2007). Such nuclear families had many characteristics of traditional joint families like excessive dependent on kinsmen and elders, dependent position of women, child marriages and authoritarian interpersonal relationship in the family, preference for male child. Freedom for women are relatively more in such families, they can go out freely with minimum supervision of men. They have liberty not to do purdah but have to wear traditional dress with anchal on head.

Table 1.6: Block wise Distribution (in %) of Household by size of landholding (land owned in acres)

<i>Holding size</i>	<i>Sherghati</i>	<i>Barachatti</i>	<i>Bodhgaya</i>	<i>Overall</i>
SHG Members				
Landless	37.5	26	57.67	40.39
Marginal	60.5	70	41	57.16
Large (above 1 hectare)	2	4	1.33	2.44

(Source: Research questionnaire survey)

In sample we found that 40.39 percent are landless and remaining 57.16 are marginal farmers. Village society after the land reforms has undergone a major economic changes due to abolition of privileges and economic rights of zamindars and feudal, has though not succeeded in introducing an egalitarian society in villages. But yet it has made great social psychological impact on ex tenant and motivates them to enhance their social status. Due to advancement in technology and innovation and various new opportunities due to rapid urbanization traditional jajmani system has also shrinking.

Table 1.7: Annual incomes of women of sample SHGs before joining Jeevika.

<i>Annual income</i>	<i>Before</i>	<i>After</i>
10000/--20000/-	25.55	5
10000-30000/-	31.33	6
30000-50000/-	29.72	37
Above 50000/-	13.38	52

Before the intervention of jeevika more than 70 percent of women having income less than 30,000 per annum falls under BPL category, but after jeevika intervention their economic well being raised, which were below poverty line before joining SHGs by spending more than 5 years in group they come out from BPL category and mostly having income above 50000 annually. But still the financial decisions in family are done by male family held which reinforce the patriarchal nature of society.

Table 1.8: impact of JEEVIKA in empowerment of women

<i>SHG Members response</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>NA</i>
Does Jeevika enhance credit worthiness of individuals?	72	21	7
By joining SHG are you able produce something by your group?	79	9	12
Is Jeevika successful in targeting the poor for their betterment?	82	11	7
After joining SHG does your self confidence increases?	83	12	5
Your role in decision making in family after joining SHG is improved?	71	13	16
Does saving tendency increases?	91	4	5
After joining jeevika do you able to raise voice in meetings?	75	14	11
Do you Cast vote during elections?	92	8	0
DO you Raise voice in gram sabha?	80	12	8
Do you feel happy to go for work outside by jeevika?	84	9	7
By joining jeevika financial literacy increases?	80	7	13
Does SHG helpful in meeting urgent need of cash?	85	8	7
Does group solidarity increases after joining jeevika?	81	10	9
Does your self confidence increases after joining jeevika?	75	13	12

Field study supported the fact that jeevika has a positive impact on women empowerment through self help groups, in terms of increase in social awareness and participation, savings habits, income level, self employment, asset creation, repayment of other debts, improvement in decision making skills, group solidarity and improved nutrition level at their household. The SHGs have enabled poor women to get access of various financial products and services and many women to achieve social recognition. Greater emphasis has to be given to provide education, training and creating awareness among the members of the group. And most important through the institution jeevika their Re socialization occurs and they develop their new identity in the society under the umbrella of Jeevika. They are united and get a new social identity with more confidence and are competent enough in decision making and be as empowered woman. Empowerment of women takes place through structural changes in women lives such as provision of land rights, promotion of non-farm employment, self-employment and support to unleash their potential of entrepreneurial qualities and their participation in decision making at various levels. The initiatives undertaken by the Government such as promotion of rural livelihoods (NRLM) and wage employment (MGNREGA) resulted in enhancement of livelihoods and economic freedom to women (Reddy, 2020). Economic empowerment of women is incomplete without their psychological empowerment. Mental well-being is an important precursor to economic well-being (Yadav, 2019).

CONCLUSIONS

Jeevika lead SHG is a model of financial engineering model designed to meet the social objective of poverty alleviation and women empowerment for the poor and excluded women. SHG is a small group of 10-15 women from homogeneous backgrounds, organized voluntarily around savings and credits, with an internal mechanism to manage their own funds. It's a financial system of the poor women, managed by them, for them to change their lives (Dash,2019). It gives them a sense of ownership helps them to understand finance and the capacity to manage a collective financial asset in ways that work best for the realities. Tools and techniques adapted by Jeevika are not only financial but collective actions like group meetings, share time, labour and money that create positive social externalities and social cohesiveness.

Jeevika is successful in social mobilization of women and formation of social agency which results in enhancement of group solidarity and meet with common development goals. Perception of SHG women is not like employee-employer but they look it as their CBOs as their own, identity, a ray of hope like organization. It is successful in providing a platform for social learning to poor women for their

empowerment. And this platform is useful in channelizing the delivery of various government services at low cost.

In the present study we find that when the group is matured and old enough (more than 5 years) members gain economically, their standard of living increased, nutrition level improved, spending consumer goods like Mobile phones, TV etc increased. Presence of SHGs group in village increases awareness level on maternal mortality, education, institutional delivery, time and spacing between pregnancies have improved. It is finding that Jeevika women are more associated with sanitation, sanitary napkins fully aware about that and contributed positively in Swachh Bharat mission and Poshan Abhiyan. Women play an active role in family decision-making processes that relate to daughters' education and future career paths. From the early school years of their children, educated mothers use their informed experiences to sketch future career paths. The views of mothers on children's present schooling and their ideas about further education and occupation plans are discussed (panda, 2019).

Jeevika has positively impacted on gender equality and women empowerment. It has found that they are successful in substantially raising the income of women in SHGs and they are able to allocate resources in houses and their role in key decision making in house rose significantly. Their participation in civil institutions like Gram sabha, elections, banking operations and other high level political gatherings like CMs meetings improved and they are recognized by officials well at all front. SHGs women expand their reach through federations, they move from being "women-in-themselves" to "women-for-themselves" and further to 'women for the larger public good'.

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WOMEN AND PANDEMIC MANAGEMENT: A CASE OF BIHAR

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Abstract

Management of pandemic, particularly Covid-19 pandemic, involves both governmental and voluntary efforts. Some new phenomena surfaced during the covid-19 pandemic, among which the enhanced roles of women in fighting the pandemic have been read world over. So is the case with India in general and Bihar in particular. Women in Bihar have shown their strength, enthusiasm and voluntary efforts in the fight against the pandemic, that too amidst adverse conditions and inadequate medical ambience. Women, from both the governmental agencies and voluntary outfits, have contributed in fighting the pandemic a lot in Bihar on one hand and faced the odds caused by the conduits of governance and social system. As such, the present article intends to underline the self-assertive, actinic, enthusiastic and voluntary roles of women in fighting the pandemic amidst adverse and resisting conditions. The examination of their role indicates that they were less cared by health and general administration despite their enthusiastic contribution and also that there is inconsistent and inadequate data base for preparedness.

Keywords: Pandemic, Women-corona-warriors, Health-services, Jeevika-didis, ASHA, SHGs, PHCs, Hospitals, Bihar

INTRODUCTION

The women in Bihar swung into action and performed varied tasks like providing health services, sanitation, food and essential commodities and raising awareness, maintaining law and order as part of police and administrative personnel, looking

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after quarantine/isolation centres for migrant labourers, conducting Covid-19 tests and health check-ups, counseling, visiting households, recording travel history, noting symptoms and above all alerting authorities of suspected cases by risking their lives and family members. They have been the substantial part of corona warriors. The women from state apparatus and voluntary organisations, groups and sometimes individual volunteers have been engaged in the war (fight against the pandemic) in all spheres like delivery of services and goods, preparing and distributing face masks, PPEs etc. and raising awareness of gravity of corona virus infection and improving immunity among vulnerable groups, disseminating information and guidelines issued by government from time to time in both the rural and urban areas. The present article intends to underline their actinic roles and odds faced by them.

WOMEN IN PANDEMIC MANAGEMENT: INADEQUATE STRENGTH

The women's involvement in fight against the pandemic has been found greater than that of men throughout globe. The studies reveal that women comprise the majority of health and social care workers on the frontlines. Getting back to strength of women work force in Bihar, we find that number of governmental women work force in the health services is inadequate in relation to workload but they are battling on the fore front. They belong to the categories of doctors, nurses at primary and secondary health centres, ANMs (anti natal maids), Anganwadi Sewikas, Asha (Accredited Social Health Activists) workers and Jeevika Didis (working for social and economic empowerment of rural poor under Bihar Rural Livelihood Project).

The strength of women work force as per data of Health Department, Government of Bihar is far less than the stipulated strength. The following figures reveal the fact. As per data of 2018, there are only 3,860 women medical officers against the sanctioned strength of 5,124 (25 per cent missing), 662 LHV's (lady health visitors) against the sanctioned strength of 1126 (41 per cent missing), 1298 MHW's (maternity health workers) against 2562 (50 per cent missing), 256 staff nurses against sanctioned strength of 451 (45 per cent missing), 10,055 ANMs against the strength of 12940 (10 per cent missing) and 56,254 ASHA workers against the stipulated strength of 60,587 (9 per cent missing). Total working women work force in health services of all categories in Bihar was 71087 against the stipulated strength of 81144. If we calculate, we find that there are one women health provider of any kind for a population of 1,755 and 1538 on stipulated strength. If we exclude medically untrained ASHA workers from the list, there is one medical support for a population of 11885 (GoB : 2018). It was attempted to collect the data on the women workforce engaged in fight against pandemic from State Health Society (an agency of Government of Bihar). An officer of the society provided the figures

on telephone on 28 July, 2020 are as below : 130 Specialist women doctors, 114 general physicians, 14 health managers, 76 GNMs, 9729 ANMs, 1524 staff nurses, 268 contractual staff, 78943 ASHA workers amounting to nearly 60,000.

Besides the situation of above medical ambience in the state, a large number of women sanitary staff is engaged in fight against the pandemic. The official web sites of department of urban development and the Municipal corporations do not provide the number of sanitary staff and also the male-female breakup of the ground level sanitary work force. However, a study by Pandey provides the figures of sanitary staff of Patna Municipal Corporation headed by Assistant Health Officers one in each circle. There are 5 Sanitary Inspectors against the sanctioned strength of 21, Sanitary Supervisors 95 against the sanctioned strength of 221 and Sanitary Workers 1064 as permanent employees and 1941 engaged on daily wage basis amounting to total of 3005 against the sanctioned strength of 3500 (Pandy: nd). But in a newspaper, reporting on strike of sanitary staff of Patna Municipal Corporation against the government decision to retrench the daily wagger sanitary workers and engaging through outsourcing, reveals that in February, 2020 the daily wage sanitary alone were between 4300 to 4500 (Dainik Bhaskar: 2020 and Newsclic:2020). But the figures of male female breakup are not available. It is estimated that half of the sanitary workers are women. A study marks that out of the total strength of sanitary work force, 46 per cent are women (Nidan and Praxis: 2020). It can further be estimated that there must be thirty to forty thousand women sanitary workers in Bihar who are fighting against the pandemic. Interesting to note that these sanitary workers were not provided with adequate safety measures while on work. The state government failed to ensure these frontline workers such as sanitation workers and Accredited Social Health Activists commonly called ASHA workers with adequate safety measures (Hindustan Times: 2020). Further it has been complained that the tests were conducted of only those migrant labourers who were either seriously sick or had clear symptoms of corona infection. This has caused spread of the pandemic. Even in these adverse conditions the women corona warriors did not withdraw themselves from their tasks.

INFRASTRUCTURE FOR HEALTH SERVICES

So far the health infrastructure (i.e. hospitals) is concerned; there is again a grim picture. There are three levels of hospitals in Bihar – primary, secondary and tertiary levels. There are two categories of primary level hospitals namely Primary Health Centres (PHCs) and Community Health Centres. At the secondary level again there are two kinds of hospitals namely Sub Divisional Hospitals and District Hospitals (SDHs and DHs respectively). At the tertiary level there are referral hospitals with high level specialties in medical colleges. At the tertiary level, there are thirteen hospitals with medical colleges out of which seven are in Patna itself (GoI: 2018).

The number of hospitals in Bihar was fluctuating during 2008-2016 and it was merely 1033 in the year 2016. By the 20th July 2018, some improvement was marked. There are 2007 PHCs, 63 CHCs, 33 SDHs and 43 DHs amounting to 2146 hospitals at primary and secondary levels with the capacity of 17796 beds. These hospitals are mainly in rural areas of the state. In rural Bihar, there are 930 hospitals with 6083 beds as compared to 103 hospitals with 5936 beds in urban areas (as per data as on 31 December, 2016). According to a newspaper reporting, Bihar has one doctor to serve an average 29,000 population and one hospital bed per 8,645 people (ToI: 2019). Further Bihar's budgetary provisions has also been very low i.e. second lowest in India after Haryana evident from the fact that merely 3.94 per cent of total expenditure of the state has been earmarked for health services in the year 2019-20 (Ibid). The misery is added with shortage of doctors. Almost fifty per cent of sanctioned strength of doctors is vacant (Ibid). So far facing Covid-19 pandemic is concerned, the state government has taken steps to create makeshift hospitals and beds. But in rural areas there is lack of the most basic facilities to test and contain the spread of the virus. Many primary health centres lacked both beds and doctors. Quarantine centres in the state are often in squalorous conditions, lacking basic sanitation and food facilities.

VOLUNTARY WOMEN WORKFORCE: PIVOTAL ROLES AMIDST HURDLES

In the voluntary women work force, there are three categories of women involved in fighting covid-19 pandemic in Bihar – first volunteers paid by government like ASHA activists and Jeevika Didis, second, voluntary groups of women like SHGs and third, women of voluntary organisations and active women individual volunteers.

The first category of women volunteers (ASHA & Jeevika Didis) were assigned all kinds of tasks, mentioned above. A large number ASHA activists (over 56,000) in Bihar is engaged in containing the spread of Covid-19 pandemic in various ways. ASHAs are the frontline workers who act as an important link between the community and the public health care system in rural areas. As they live in the same community to be served, it becomes convenient for them to communicate with local people. During the complete lockdown, they used to visit to at least 25 (self-assigned target) between 7 to 8 am every day, in their assigned wards, to perform a number of assignments. They are also supposed to paste an A3 size poster at the doorstep of each household within their respective wards, which contains information on symptoms and safety measures against the pandemic. ASHA volunteers are in regular touch with the village society and know of their superstitions and status of health awareness. They have been assigned with a number of tasks in addition to door to door contacts, they are supposed to trace the contacts of Covid-19 patients and find out their travel history of those falling in

their assigned wards. After that ASHAs are required to hand over the data to their supervisor at around 3 pm, to be submitted to the nearby primary health centre (PHC). But they have to face a number of hurdles like the patriarchal dominance in performing their duties mostly from their families. Husbands hindered them as they did not like them to leave house in the peak period of household work. Despite resistance from husbands and family members, they played self-assertive roles and justified by the argument that it was their moral responsibility to check the spread of disease (Agrawal: 2020). According to a newspaper, a volunteer opined that 'if the government had the intent of communicating with them round the clock and facilitating and training them well during such grave times, it could have led to a lot better preparedness during the pandemic at the grassroots level' (Carvan Magazine: 2020). Interesting to note that these ASHAs are not getting their wages/honorarium regularly even in this tough situations for months together. They have to resort to two days token strike in protest for regular payment and payment of dues on 6th August 2020 (Hindustan Times: 2020). In the words of the President of 'ASHA Workers Sanghars Committee', "We have met officials many times but, in vain. We are tired of requesting them for payment. Now we are going on a three-day strike from August 6, 2020." (Kumar: 2020)

In Bihar, women known as *jeevika didis* under the Jeevika platform (the State Rural Livelihood Project, implemented by Bihar Rural Livelihood Promotion Society) are active in identifying and surveying vulnerable households. Using the information education and communication material developed by the state mission, the *didis* are facilitated with the network of 1.4 lakh state-wide SHGs to create awareness about hand-washing, social distancing, sanitation and quarantine. They reached out to community through audio messages, leaflets, theme songs and videos that are being shared with the community as front line workers such as Community Mobilizers and Community Resource Persons. *Didis* have performed wonderfully to manufacture and distribution of face masks. It was stated that by 2nd June, 2020, these *didis* prepared more than 5.5 lakhs of face masks and sent to market to be sold on fair price (low price); the number reached to 2 crores by 6th July. *Jeevika didis* are also assigned to support poor people in getting ration cards made by district administration and counseling them on issue of cards and other problems. In addition *didis* operate 'Didi ki Rasoi' for serving quality and hygienic cooked food for the quarantined as well as in-patients and corona suspects. They took utmost care of careful cooking, no contact supply and maintaining all hygienic practices without any hesitation (Jeevika:2020).

The second kind of women volunteers is SHGs (self-help groups) who are involved in fight against Covid-19 pandemic evident from the fact that there are 60 lakhs SHGs consisting of over 6.7 crores of women in India and in Bihar the number of SHGs is 1.4 lakhs with more than 28 lakhs women. These SHGs

have proved themselves in uplifting poor women to self-reliant women in last two decades. World Bank has also appreciated the performance of the SHGs (World Bank Web-link: 2020). During the covid-19 lockdown, women of SHGs are involved in all ground level tasks mentioned above and combating misinformation. Since access to finance is critical for people to sustain themselves during the lockdown, SHGs women who also work as banking correspondents have emerged as a vital resource *bank sakhis* who have continued to provide doorstep banking services to far-flung communities, in addition to distributing pensions and enabling the most needy to access credits into their accounts through direct benefit transfers (DBT). Banks have given these women special orientation and provided them with financial incentives to enable them to continue to work during the lockdown. Junaid Ahmed, the Country Director India of World Bank opined, that in these extraordinary times, when we are all united in our fight against the Covid 19 virus, these women's groups are playing a critical role" (Ibid). The contributions of SHGs in fighting Covid-19 has been hailed by Government of India reflected from the opinion of Alka Upadhyay, Additional Secretary with Ministry of Rural Development who said, "Across the country, women's SHGs have risen to this extraordinary challenge with immense courage and dedication, ... Their quick response to food insecurity and shortages in goods and services shows how this decentralized structure can be a vital resource in a time of crisis. The strength of India's rural women will continue to be essential in building back economic momentum after the most critical period is over." (Ibid). SHGs have local as well as national reach. They are producing masks and personal protective equipments (PPEs), creating awareness about the pandemic, and delivering essentials goods and financial assistance to the most vulnerable. These SHGs are working in link with ASHAs, Jeevika didis and other voluntary organisations.

So far the third kind of women volunteers involved in fight against Covid-19 pandemic in Bihar is concerned, the state has only 12 Mother NGOs (MNGOs) covering 22 of the 38 districts of Bihar. However the state does not have a structured procedure to assess the working of MNGOs. Further analysis of information related to NGOs in the state revealed that there are many NGOs that are engaged in the service delivery in the crisis. There have been a large number of women who have joined the army against covid-19 on individual or unorganised collective levels. The exact number of such women corona warriors is not available; however, it might be more than official bandwagon. On the basis of news reporting, the women voluntary organisations like Mahila Kalyan Smiti, Bihar Mahila Smaj, Hello Shakhi Chain, Jyoti Mahila Samakhya etc came into light. The women from these organisations are engaged in the tasks . . . "right from providing health services, sanitation, supporting affected households or being part of police administration, they are constantly on the move. They are now going door to door, recording

people's travel history, noting symptoms and where needed, even helping trace contacts." (ToI: 2020).

During the strict lockdown, a group of women ventured to raise awareness of preventing and protecting covid-19 pandemic among rural people, especially rural women. Women of this group named as 'Hello Sakhi Chain' used their mobile phones. Dozens of rural women of Muzaffarpur District of Bihar have created this group who contact hundreds of families through mobile on daily basis in which they tell them about maintaining social distance, washing the hands frequently, quarantining migrants and guidelines issued by government from time to time. The pioneer of this chain and coordinator of Jyoti Mahila Samakhya, Ms. Punam Kumari said, "As we know that almost all women use mobile phones in rural areas, we made it as weapon to communicate about these in local language during the lockdown and it worked at least in 6 development blocks out of 17 in the district." (Zeenews website: 2020).

It is very interesting to note that the women of rural Bihar, particularly in Mithila region of the state, have ventured to offer community prayers and worships to 'Maan Kali' (Lordess Mother Kali) in groups at the banks of water bodies for granting lives of the people in order to get rid of Covid-19 pandemic. This was earlier practiced by women who used to offer prayers in the name of Kali Maain (mother kali) and worshiped Her when any person of family suffered from small pox or chicken pox. Women will use the religious rituals and using neem leaves throughout the period of illness. Similarly this time rural women worshiped 'Mata' to save people from Corona epidemic.

EPILOGUE

The pandemic unfolded the hidden nari Shakti (power of women) and exposed the government's ill preparedness. Women in Bihar played key role in fight against Covid-19 pandemic. They were found resilient, active, voluntary and self-assertive in participating in various activities to check the spread of infection of corona virus irrespective of being in Government fold or in voluntary action fold. They rendered varied kinds of services with full dedication to the vulnerable people by considering it as their moral responsibility. However, they interfaced many hurdles like paucity of medical infrastructure and safety measures, resistance from family, non-payment of wages/honorarium, stress of being retrenched, risking their families etc. Their enthusiasm should be harnessed properly and provided all kinds of support for their services. The need of the hour is to revise the policy of health for creating appropriate medical infrastructure and delivery of health services. In this digitalized age, there is lack of authentic data base. The Government of Bihar should pay special attention to update data base, increase the health budget substantially

and provisions of prompt preparedness. Besides, there is lack of laws to handle such crisis and women's facilities and safety measures. It is not too late to make proper laws, policies and measures in favour of women. Finally it is suggestible that there is an urgent need to improve coordination between the NGOs and the Government at all levels i.e. state, districts and sub-district levels in order to make them effective.

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NEED OF THE RESERVATION FOR WOMEN IN INDIAN LEGISLATURE: AN ANALYSIS BASED ON ELECTIONS IN BIHAR

Nishant Kumar* and Smita Agarwal**

Abstract

The Women's Reservation Bill has been pending for its approval from the time it was introduced in 1996 and reintroduced with modifications in 2008. The bill aimed at reserving seats for women at the level of state and central legislatures and was hailed as a game-changer in ensuring gender parity in legislative bodies and its benefits were expected to topple down to other aspects of policy making. However, since its introduction the bill has also faced severe opposition from various quarters. The present article analyses the need of the law from the perspective of political participation and opportunities for women within it. Based on a time line study of different elections in Bihar, the article argues that though the participation of women in elections has shown a sharp increase as voters and as candidates, they are not able to succeed in electoral contests and hence their entry into either State Assembly or Lok Sabha as law makers is hindered. This is primarily due to a disturbing neglect of their candidature by major political parties of the state. The results indicate that in absence of consciousness, acceptability and support for their candidature among political parties, a law reserving seats for women is essential to ensure that more women reach to decision making bodies.

Keywords: Legislature, Representation; Elections; Women's Reservation Bill; Bihar

The Bihar elections of 2015 reported massive turnout of women voters, recorded at 59.4 per cent, compared to 54.5 percent of men. Though the statistics might look astonishing, it does not remain a surprise if we consider the constant rise in women voting percentage in the assembly elections of Bihar since 2005. The elections in 2015, however, remained significant with regard to women participation in two

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important aspects: a) Despite the fact that the elections witnessed polarization on issues related to caste and religion, the record turnout ensured that women exercised their agency as an important political constituency, which could not be ignored¹; b) Though the percentage of women voters have seen constant rise, the number of women candidates fielded by important political parties remained very low, thereby ensuring that the number of women legislators decreased sharply as compared to 2010. These aspects solicit serious rethinking on the way women are perceived in politics in India. This becomes all the more necessary because statistically India's standing according to International standards, in terms of women's participation in decision making, is very poor. As per the Human Development Report of 2014, India ranks 132 on Gender Development Index, and 127 on Gender Equality Index (Human Development Report 2014). The fact that both these indices, while preparing the rankings, give significant value to political empowerment of women, and their participation in decision making, is indicative of India's abysmal performance on these counts.

Here, the Bihar general elections (both Assembly and Lok Sabha) have been examined from the perspective of women's participation. The fact that the percentage of voters turn out among women has been consistently on the rise is evident of the fact that women are both politically conscious, as well as keen to participate in whatever little space they have. However, the main hurdle in their way to significant political representation has been the reluctant attitude of political parties to provide adequate candidature to women in general elections. In this context, it is argued that there is a need to revisit the quota debate to ensure greater representation of women in state and central legislatures. If political participation is the panacea for empowerment, it cannot be limited to their role as voters. They need to participate in decision making bodies, in order to ensure substantive changes in both policy making process, as well as its agenda.

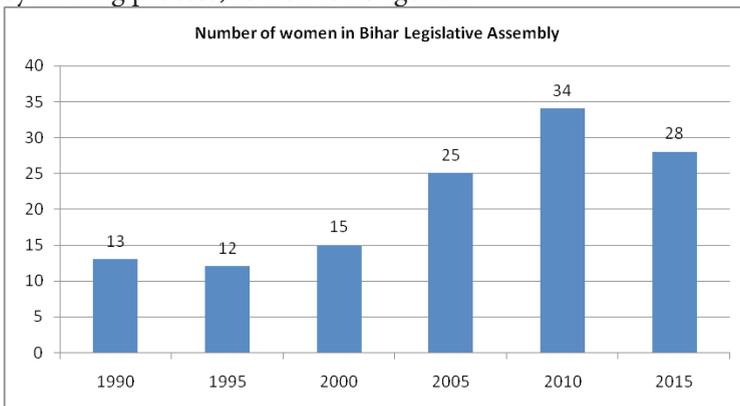


Figure 1: Number of Women in Bihar Legislative Assembly

Source: Election Commission of India

RATIONALE OF THE QUOTA FOR WOMEN

In feminist discourse, the question of representation has always been at the centre. Anne Philips, for example, has argued that the “politics of presence” should be combined with the “politics of ideas”, in order to ensure that issues related to women find the required voice in representative bodies (1995: 4). There was a need, Philips remarked, that the formerly excluded groups are made party in formulating the agenda and changing the existing norms to ensure that their interests could be safeguarded and represented. This symbolic representation, according to her, was important regardless of the outcomes such inclusion could ensure. It is maintained that the women representatives carry with themselves their personal experiences as members of the group, which can play seminal role in policy making. Further, it also helps in breaking the pre-existing hegemonies in the representative bodies. This, according to Philips, could only be ensured by the presence of aggressive spokespersons from the formerly excluded groups in the public arena, who could challenge the existing patterns of representation, which was based on pre-existing power hierarchies (1995: 6). Similarly, Iris M. Young supported quotas for women based on the idea of difference among various groups (1990: 184). According to Young, democratic public should provide mechanisms for effective recognition and representation of distinct voices and perspectives of groups that are oppressed or disadvantaged. Both Young and Philips saw representation as a central tenet of democratic polity and assume that such representation, in the long run, would have a positive impact in the way policies are formulated and implemented, particularly for women as a group that has historically been denied opportunities to public offices. The emphasis on women’s representation reflected in the writings of such scholars was also echoed at the United Nation’s meeting at Beijing in 1995 where it was asserted that if women “gain access to political power, they will opt for politics and policies that promote social and gender equality, peace and sustainable development” (Beijing Declaration 1995).

An important intervention in the idea of women’s political representation was introduced in 1970s through the notion of “critical mass”. The expression “critical mass” stems from nuclear physics, and refers to a certain quantity that is needed to start an irreversible chain reaction that could change a process. Scholars like Kanter and Dahlerup argued that, in order to bring qualitative women friendly legislations, there needed to be a considerable number of women legislators (Kanter 1977: 965; Dahlerup 1988: 283-99). The percentage usually mentioned as the turning point was 30%. The advocates of critical mass theory have often been criticized for having failed to exhibit a necessary and proportional relationship between representation, and passage of legislations beneficial to women as a group (Carroll 2001; Crowley 2004). However, other scholars have also shown that although the empirical results of women’s representations were rather mixed, but the presence of female politicians

contributed to strengthening the position of women's interests (Wängnerud 2000; Childs and Krook 2008).

WOMEN'S QUOTA: INHIBITING FACTORS IN INDIA

The debate over political representation for women through reservation in India, took a little different trajectory owing to the colonial history, as well as nationalist movement. The question of reservation for women in elected bodies could never take centre stage during colonial period. In the nationalist imagination, women were made flag bearers of India's unity, and were called upon to render service to nation based on their sacrificial tendency (Roy 2006: 19). In response, the women nationalists also harped on the slogan of "fair field and no favour" (Roy 2006: 18). The overall question of women's participation was veiled in the language of "responsibility" rather than "rights". The nationalists (including women) never thought that in the context of the freedom movement, women's interests could be different from men. So, even the women's movement of the time concentrated on the demand for universal franchise, rather than separate representation.² It was their firm conviction that their numerical majority would not go unnoticed, and they would not require special favours to be represented.

This attitude was also reflective during the Constituent Assembly Debates where women representatives like Hansa Mehta, Renuka Ray, etc. argued that reservations for women was not needed as women had fought equally with men in freedom movement, and as a result they had won equal space in society in the form of universal adult franchise (Constituent Assembly Debates 3rd December 1948: 810). As a result, the question of special favours for women was sidelined and remained dormant for next 30 years. The debate was reignited in 1974, after the Committee for Status of Women in India discovered the "invisibility" of women in all spheres of public life (Towards Equality Report 1974). Consequently some of the committee members recommended reservation of seats for women to rectify this inequality. However the recommendation was rejected by the majority.³ The main argument for rejection was that the majority of committee members believed that, on the one hand, women did not require special favours, and on the other hand, such attempts would be against the spirit of equality, as enshrined in the Indian constitution. But the observations and findings of the report had lasting effect, and it reintroduced the vocabulary of quota in the feminist discourse of India. The legislative by-product of the debate was the adoption of 73rd and 74th Amendment Acts to the Indian constitution in 1993 that paved way for reservations of women in rural and urban bodies respectively. The successful amendment to the constitution, and as a result the entry of many women representatives into the local bodies, strengthened the demand for reservations for women in higher representative bodies with a bill being tabled in the Parliament in 1996. But the bill is still pending

in the Parliament. There are different forms of opposition to the bill, which includes a strong demand for “quota within quota,” or reservation for women who belong to backward communities within the stipulated quota of reservations for women.

WOMEN VOTERS TURNOUT IN BIHAR

It is noteworthy that as a consequence of the delay in assuring reservation of women in higher elected bodies, their presence in these bodies has remained very low. On a contrast, the reservations of seats at the level of local governance became so successful that the proportion of reserved seats for women in these bodies was increased from 33% to 50% in 2009.⁴ At the same time, election studies have shown that the participation of women in elections as voters is constantly on rise. For example, various election statistics show that male voter turnout in Lok Sabha elections has grown only slightly, from 60.87 per cent of registered voters in 1971 to 67 per cent in 2014, whereas the percentage of female voters for the same period grew by more than twice, from 49.11 per cent to 65.54 per cent. More recent data from assembly elections of various states shows that in 21 of 30 Indian states, female voter turnout exceeded male turnout (Figure 2). In the other nine, this gap has narrowed to its lowest point. Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra are the States which still show the largest difference between male and female turnout. Despite increase in voter turnout, their representation in state legislatures and Parliament continues to be low. The story of the growing participation of India’s women in its elections is one of the defining features of the last 60 years of elections, and political parties are beginning to take notice of the changing tide. Political scientists have termed it as “silent revolution” (Kapoor and Ravi 2014: 63). However this participation can only become significant if it can transform into representation. The case of Bihar is explicitly evident of the looming mismatch between women participation as voters and as representatives.

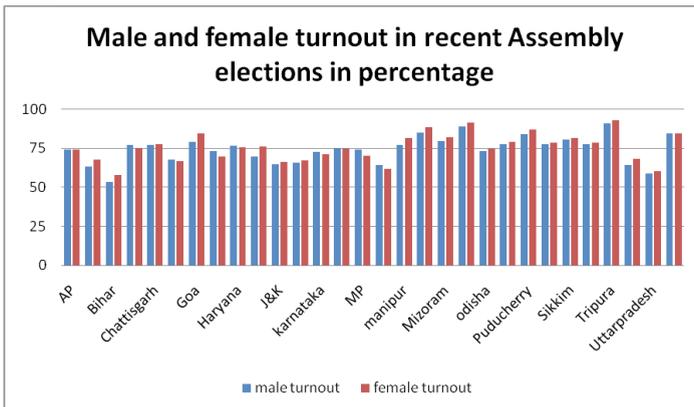


Figure 2: Voting percentage of male and female in recent assembly elections

Source: Election Commission Data compiled by Rukmini S. (2015).

TARGETING WOMEN AS BENEFICIARIES: THE CHANGING DISCOURSE IN BIHAR

The voting pattern of women is having a significant impact in the politics of Bihar. Shamika Ravi's (2015) study of November 2005 Assembly elections is reflective of this fact. Nitish Kumar's JD (U) took clear lead in those elections and formed government with the support of BJP. Ravi shows that out of the total 243 constituencies in 87 constituencies where the earlier victorious party was dusted, women's contribution to the victory was important. Firstly, in between February and October 2005, the female poll percentage increased from 42.5 to 44.5 while that of male voters declined from 50 per cent to 47 per cent. Secondly, the average growth rate in the number of female voters was almost three times more in the constituencies where there was a change in the winning party in comparison to those constituencies where the same political parties were re-elected. In sharp contrast, there was no change in the average growth rate of male voters across the two types of constituencies. The study found out that distribution of the growth rates in numbers of female and male voters between the two elections, and compared the constituencies where the same party was re-elected with the constituencies where political parties were not re-elected and a new winner was declared. The study concluded that the distribution of the growth rate of female voters in these two types of constituencies is very different while the distribution of male voters is similar. The observations put together imply that not only did more women cast their votes in the re-election, but they caused the change in outcomes in these elections on an average. This analysis is indicative about the role that women voters have played over the last decade in the politics of Bihar.

Majority of women in Bihar have consistently supported Nitish Kumar as Chief Ministerial candidate during elections, and have played significant role in the massive results in his favour during 2010 and 2015 Assembly elections. One of the important reasons for this popularity is that Kumar has been consistently working to improve the life world of women in the state. Just a year after he became the Chief Minister in 2005, he launched *Mukhyamantri Balika Cycle Yojana*. The number of beneficiaries of the free cycle for school girls totals around 6 million till date and has registered significant growth in women literacy in the state during the last 10 years.⁵ Other than this, the Bihar government became the first to reserve 50% of seats for women in panchayats, an effort that resulted in significant change in women representation in the panchayats from 1% during 2001 to 51% in 2006. He also reserved 50% seats in teacher appointments and 35% of seats for women in police forces. He further promised to extend the reservation of seats for women in all government services. Though these are only few among the many policies

targeted at women, it reflects the way political discourse in the state has changed especially with women at centre.

There is no doubt that Nitish Kumar has successfully addressed some core issues related to women including education, improvement of law and order, and ensuring their representation in local bodies, but the record of his party in supporting women candidates for both Assembly as well as Lok Sabha elections remains dismal (Table 1.1, Table 1.2). Unlike 2010 when his party gave tickets to 24 women candidates out of which 22 succeeded, in 2015 the numbers were reduced to 10 candidates, whereas 15 sitting women MLAs were denied tickets. Regardless of the ticket distribution 9 out of 10 women candidates won the elections. Though one could contend that the reduced number of women candidates was a result of changed political arithmetic where JD (U) had to share maximum seats with RJD and INC, but the fact that his party has not been favourable to women candidates cannot be denied. The maximum number of women candidates fielded by his party in an Assembly election was in 2010 when his party had 24 women contesting on JD (U) ticket. Unfortunately, it was only 17% of the total candidates fielded by the party. Similarly in the Lok Sabha elections, the party fielded a maximum of 3 women candidates in 1999 which was only 13.04% of the total candidates contesting under his leadership in those elections. Further, JD (U) has never nominated any women for the Rajya Sabha, despite enjoying majority in the Assembly for the last 10 years.

Table 1.1: Women Candidates Fielded by Samata Party/ JD (U) in Assembly elections Since 1995

<i>Year of election</i>	<i>Number of candidates fielded by Samata Party/ JD (U)</i>	<i>Number of women candidates by Samata Party/ JD (U)</i>	<i>% of women candidate fielded</i>
1995	307	11	4
2000	120	8	7
Feb'05	138	12	9
Nov' 05	139	16	12
2010	141	24	17.02
2015	273	10	3.7%

Source: Reports of Election Commission of India

Table 1.2: Number of Women Candidates Fielded by Samata Party/ JD (U) in Lok Sabha Elections Since 1996

<i>Year of election</i>	<i>SEATS CONTESTED BY Samata Party/ JD(U)</i>	<i>Number of women candidates fielded by Samata Party/JD(U)</i>	<i>Number of women who won on Samata Party/JD(U) ticket</i>
1996	20	0	0
1998	21	1	0
1999	23	3	1
2004	24	1	0
2009	29	2	2
2014	38	2	0

Source: Reports of Election Commission of India

ASSESSING THE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN BIHAR

Voting and contesting elections are the two important major indicators of political participation and political consciousness of a particular group. In both these aspects, women in Bihar have performed exceedingly well. There has been a constant upswing in voting percentage of women since 2005 and since 2010 it has even exceeded the voting percentage of men in the state. Women have had a 3 percent point lead over percentage of men voters in 2010 Assembly and 2014 Lok Sabha elections (Table 2.1). In 2015 the lead has gone up to almost 5 percent points. However, these figures should not be mistaken to indicate that women are dominating Bihar elections. In terms of real voting numbers they are still far behind male voters.⁶ In 2015, despite exceptional lead in terms of voting percentage, the actual number of votes of women remained around 9 lakh less than the votes of men.

Table 2.1: Voting percentage of women of Bihar in Lok Sabha and Assembly elections

<i>Year of election</i>	<i>Percentage of Women electors</i>	<i>Percentage of Women voters</i>	<i>Voting percentage among women</i>	<i>Voting percentage among men</i>	<i>Total voting percentage</i>
2004 (Lok Sabha)	46.49	41.37	51.62	63.55	58.02
2005 (February Assembly)	46.46	42.48	42.51	49.95	46.50
2005 (November Assembly)	46.38	45	44.49	47.02	45.85
2009 (Lok Sabha)	46.36	44.47	42.62	46.63	44.46
2010 (Assembly)	46.19	47.74	54.49	51.12	52.67

<i>Year of election</i>	<i>Percentage of Women electors</i>	<i>Percentage of Women voters</i>	<i>Voting percentage among women</i>	<i>Voting percentage among men</i>	<i>Total voting percentage</i>
2014 (Lok Sabha)	46.51	47.71	57.70	54.94	56.26
2015 (Assembly)	NA	NA	59.4	54.5	56.95

Source: Reports of Election Commission of India

On the one side voting percentage of women has shown a consistent rise, and on the other side the number of women candidates has also grown higher both in Assembly as well as Lok Sabha elections. This is despite the fact that major political parties have shown disdain towards women candidates (Table 2.2). The number of women candidates has gone down from 307 in 2010, to 273 in 2015. However, the fact remains that in 2010, the major political parties in the state (JD(U), RJD, INC, BJP, and LJP) together fielded 92 women candidates, but in 2015 the two alliances (Grand Alliance including JD(U), RJD and INC; NDA including BJP, RLSP, LJP and HAM) together gave tickets to only 48 women candidates (Grand Alliance-25; NDA-23). Despite the lack of confidence on women candidates among the major parties, it is clear that women are looking for other avenues to contest elections, which is also reflected in the fact that in 2010 Assembly elections 90 (29.3 % of total women contestants), and in 2015 Assembly elections 81 (29.7% of total women contestants) contested as independent candidates. If we include the number of women candidates of lesser known parties or small (often electorally insignificant) parties to these, it goes as high as 70.03% (215 candidates) in 2010 and 84.61% (231 candidates) in 2015.

The above discussion shows that women are conscious as well as willing to participate in the electoral processes in whatever way they can- either as voters, or candidates- despites active support from major political parties. This was also reaffirmed by Kumar and Gupta (2015), who in their study of 2009 and 2014 Lok Sabha elections, report an increase in political activity of women starting from canvassing and attending rallies, thus showing the rise of self-decisive women voters. However, regardless of the enthusiasm exhibited during polling as voters or as candidates, the “winnability” of a woman candidate remains highly dependent on the support from dominant political parties. Looking at the past data it is evident that only 1 independent women candidate could win in 2010 as well as in 2015. On the other hand, out of 34 winning candidates in 2010, 33 belonged to JD (U) and BJP, the winning alliance (JD (U)-22; BJP-11). Similarly in 2015, out of 28 elected women candidates 23 belonged to the victorious Grand Alliance (JD (U)-9; RJD-10; INC-4). These data clearly show that women candidates are extensively

dependent on the support from major parties in the state and in its absence, their chances of representing their constituency remains dismal.

Table 2.2: Performance of Women Contestants in Bihar Assembly elections (by parties)

Parties	2005 (October)		2010		2015	
	Contested	Won	Contested	Won	Contested	Won
BJP	9	4	13	11	14	4
INC	8	2	33	0	4	4
JD(U)	16	12	24	22	10	9
RJD	14	4	12	0	10	10
LJP	20	1	10	0	4	0
OTHERS	70	2	215	1	231	1
TOTAL	137	25	307	34	273	28

Source: Reports of Election Commission of India

It is indicative in the above discussion that though major political parties including Nitish Kumar's JD (U) have not supported candidature of women contestants, women have tried to participate in whatever little avenues are available to them, either in form of aggressive voting, or contesting as independent candidates. The election results since 2005 is also reflective of women favouring Nitish Kumar as the Chief Minister, for the change he has tried to induce in their life through policy initiatives. This reaffirms Hanna Pitkin's argument that there cannot be a common understanding of fair representation, and that the idea of representation is context driven and dependent on the performance of the representative in question (1967: 11). Nitish Kumar has undoubtedly proven to be successful in this aspect. But as Anne Philip has suggested the question of representation should be based on the claims for justice and equality, rather than the argument of fair opportunity (1995: 4). The demand for women's quota in state and central legislatures was largely based on this assumption. Though the Rajya Sabha passed the Women's Reservation Bill in 2010, it is pending in the Parliament since then. The paradox is that the parties' like Lalu Prasad Yadav's RJD who have consistently opposed the bill with the demand for quota within quota also show no seriousness on the subject. Out of 444 seats contested by the party in the last three Assembly elections (175 in 2005; 168 in 2010; and 101 in 2015), it fielded only 36 women candidates i.e. 8.1%. The number of women candidates from backward classes is further low. None of the political parties are ready to give fair opportunity to women candidates and in fact many of sitting women MLAs and MPs are not repeated as candidates.

IN LIEU OF CONCLUSION

At the present stage of Indian politics, as reflected in the case of Bihar, there is a need to emphasise the importance of quota for women in representative bodies. Regardless of the social and structural constraints, women have asserted their agency as voters. They have also proven their mettle as leaders in local bodies in Bihar where 50% seats are reserved for them. The number of women candidates in each election is also rising. However their “winnability” is highly dependent on support from major political parties. Unfortunately though these parties swing high to project themselves as true defenders of women’s interest, historically they try to shy away from supporting women candidates. In such context it is imperative that women are provided with opportunities at higher levels of decision making and quota is a significant way in which it can be ensured. Iris M. Young held that the normative legitimacy of a democratic system is determined by the inclusion of diverse groups in the decision-making process and the opportunity for them to influence the outcomes (2000: 5-6). If we wish to see women not only as beneficiaries but also as active participants in decision making process, it is only through formidable systemic changes that it can be ensured.

NOTES:

- 1 This is not to argue that women do not bear their multiple identities during elections, but rather to highlight that during the election campaigns and the political discourse around elections, the issues surrounding women were sidelined or even silenced by the overtly vocal politics of caste and religion.
- 2 In 1920’s women did put forward the demand for removal of sex as disqualification for right to vote. Slowly the demand from women’s organization turned towards universal adult franchise. However this demand was reversed by recommendations of Lothian committee in 1932 which drew the backing from communal award of 1932 that recommended women reservation in provincial legislatures of 2-10 percent based on (a) women were seen as national patriots having common and equal citizenship; (b) women identified as group apart requiring special interest; (c) minority women arose as special category requiring special favours. These reservations continued till independence before it was removed after strong opposition by women legislators in the Constituent Assembly.
- 3 There was note of dissent by two members Vina Mazumdar and Lotika Sarkar regarding rejection of reservation system for women in legislatures and Parliament as reservations for them can widen the meaning of equality on the other hand Smt. Phulrenu Guha, Maniben Kara and Smt. Savitri Shyam did not agree with recommendations of reservations even at local level as it would

lead to entry of elite women. C.P. Sujaya and Kumud Sharma, *Towards Equality: Report of the committee on the status of women in India*, (2009,234)

- 4 This move was inspired by the increase in percentage of reserved seats by the state of Bihar in 2006.
- 5 According to census data of 2011, the literacy rate of women in Bihar has seen a jump of 20.21 percent points, the highest recorded by any state in the country. The bicycle scheme has been very successful government scheme that has helped this increase in literacy rate. By 2015 the government has already distributed 6 million bicycles. See the government report on the subject at <http://nicapp.bih.nic.in/elabharthi/E-LabhartiNew/Default.aspx#>.
- 6 The voting percentage is calculated as percentage of total male/female electors and the fact that sex ratio in Bihar is fairly poor, it results in more male voters despite lower voting percentage.

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COVID-19 AND ITS RAMIFICATION ON INDIAN FINANCIAL HEALTH

Mahima Singh * and Niji Shajan**

Abstract

The whole world is going through a very tough time both socially and economically. Each and every sector of the economy is adversely affected due to the disruption in demand and supply chain which resulted in economic slowdown and ultimately leading towards recession. The government of India along with the RBI has announced various stimulus packages to save the lockdown-battered economy. The present work highlights the impact of covid-19 on the various sectors of the economy and the measures taken by the government to counter the impact of global recession and stimulate the Indian economy.

Keywords: Tourism and Aviation, Telecom, Auto, Reforms, GDP

INTRODUCTION

The world is going through a worse patch of a pandemic- Covid 19 which has created havoc in the health, social and economic life of the people all around the globe. The virus is spreading rapidly and only solution for this till now is social distancing, which became possible only by closing the places of social and financial interactions such as school, colleges, offices, institutions, public facilities and movement of people and goods.

The restriction on intra and inter countries movement as well as lockdowns has impacted the world by initially slowing and ultimately leading to the one of the worst recessions of the century in the global economy and India is one of the ghastly effected economy. The shock of pandemic will be very severe for Indian

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economy as it was already going through a rough patch of economic slowdown, high rate of unemployment, high mortality rate, vast urban and rural disparities and large frangible informal sector.

In the present time, countries are still calculating and finding it difficult to ascertain the loss or the slow down they have to suffer due to the pandemic and the time required to get back at the normal position in which the economy was before Covid- 19. This study aims at analysing the ramification of Covid -19 on the financial health of the Indian economy in totality as well as at sectorial level and the hardship they have to face in this pandemic time.

OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

The present study is concentrating on the study of the different sectors of the Indian economy and the ramification of Covid -19 on it. In this the first part will be concentrating on the Indian economy as a whole and in the next the sector wise analysis will be done. This analysis will bring out the pre and post Covid comparative picture of the economy and its various production divisions.

METHODOLOGY

The present study has taken the data and information from the reports prepared by national and international agencies. Information is also collected from the various authentic websites. Some journals and e-contents relating to impact of COVID-19 on educational system are referred.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gopinath G. (2020) had highlighted that government has to take decisions at very high speed and continue the momentum of growth which was there before the pandemic situation. The fiscal policies by the government are the only tool to overcome the negative impact of the virus. Every country has to keep aside its individual interest and have to take decisions in the interest of the global economy. Presently, it is difficult to highlight the level of loss but it is destroying the people and livelihood at a very high speed and large scale.

Mukherjee T. and Ray N. (2020) are of the view that a large scale recession is waiting for India and the unorganised sector will be the most affected from it. Large number of jobs will be lost by the unskilled and semi-skilled workers in the different sectors of the economy. The measures taken by the finance ministry and the central bank of India are not sufficient for uplifting the economy in the long run as the package announced by them are very limited as compared to the impact of covid on the financial market.

Govinda Rao M. (2020) has focussed on the jobs or the work from which a person earns its living as the priority is to safe life but along with that other cost have also to be covered which arises due to loss of job, halt in production cycle and disruptions in supply chain. There is no relationship between the depth of the problem and its timeline and because of uncertainty in the time which will take to overcome the pandemic no current measures by the government will be sufficient.

Forbes N. (2020) spotlighted the effect of covid-19 on each and every individual irrespective of the level or strata. The problem is not limited to a particular geographical boundary but impacted every nook and corner of the world. India is doubly impacted by it as it is very much dependent on informal sector so apart from government role we have to give high emphasis on economic performance for the up liftment of its citizens.

Khurana S. (2020) underlined the situation of India as it is more prone to recession and this will create a huge suffering for the workforce associated with unorganised sector and migrant labour. The government has to play the role of life saver by providing subsidies, loan advancement at concessional rate, tax benefits and a very helping hand to the MSMEs to float in this worst recession. Along with the government support the companies has to get ready itself for the restart of economic activities.

COVID-19 RAMIFICATION ON THE INDIAN FINANCIAL HEALTH

Ramification on Economics of aggregates

The last couple of quarters were quite difficult for Indian economy as it was facing challenges in its growth. The growth rate in the quarter just before the pandemic hit the economy was just 4.7% which shows decline in both the demand and consumption and various steps were taken by the government to put the economy back on the track. The whole economy went into a toss and reverses the gear towards the negative growth. Being a developing nation it is having its own set of challenges in the form of resources, funds, loans, huge population, and limited health resources. The lock down has inversely impacted the production, demand and supply of goods and services which has resulted in large scale unemployment and fear in the market.

Impact on International Trade

Most of the countries around the globe have to compulsory put its area under the lockdowns which have not only pushed business sentiment to the lowest levels but also impacted supply chains and economic growth. The Indian economy contracted

for the second straight month and the exports shrank by a record 60.28 per cent in April to \$10.36 billion. Due to lockdown, very less economic activities took place which resulted in imports also being plunged by 58.65 per cent to \$17.12 billion in April, leaving a trade deficit of \$6.76 billion.

World Trade Organisation (WTO), has already announced that world trade is expected to fall between 13 per cent and 32 per cent in 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Barring iron ore and pharmaceuticals, all the remaining 28 key sectors registered negative growth.

Gems and jewellery shipments declined 98.74 per cent, followed by leather (- 93.28 per cent), petroleum products (- 66.22 per cent), engineering goods (- 64.76 per cent), and chemicals (- 42 percent) whereas oil imports in April were \$4.66 billion, which was 59.03 per cent lower as compared to the same month last year.

Employment

The most severe and instantaneous effect of covid-19 is on the loss of employment especially by the workforce employed in the unorganised sector. The job market gives a very adverse picture as it shows unemployment level at 23.4% due to fall in demand along with the disruption of workforce faced by companies.

The government can take short-term policy requirements through expansion of MGNREGA, job creation, cash transfers and social security while the long-term measures included need for building a stronger public health system, universalisation of social security, wage subsidy to small enterprises and policies for welfare and rights of migrants.

Impact on Financial Market

The covid-19 pandemic is a black swan which has crashed the financial market all over the world. Financial market is seeing a severe volatility due to fall out in the global market. To bring the situation under control in the financial market, RBI and the Government has taken several reforms like reduce repo rate, regulatory relaxation by extending moratorium and several measures to boost liquidity in the system. But all this measures are not seen sufficient as Payments deferrals, subdued loan growth, rising cases of bad loans and sluggish business conditions have impaired the growth and the health of the economic activity which in turn creates doubt in the market. The market lost can be seen from the crash of S&P BSE Sensex which was 42273 points on 20 January, 2020 is 29894 points on 08 April, 2020. In the FY20 the mid-cap index fell by 26 per cent while the Sensex fell by 22 per cent.

The market will be bullish when companies working towards creating innovative products, better supply chain management, technology-driven processes and healthy balance sheet would revive the growth momentum.

POTENTIAL IMPACT ON VARIOUS SECTORS IN INDIA

The whole world is facing the problem of coronavirus and it has created havoc in the global economy. India is also facing lot of challenges both in its social and economic sectors. All the three economic sectors have to bear the burnt caused by the rapid spread of corona virus which has disrupted the normal functioning of the entities. This disruption in the economic sector has made Indian economy to face the new challenges, which is putting lot of hindrance in its growth. The setbacks and the challenges faced by the different sectors of the economy are discussed below-

Primary Sector

The activities of this sector is primarily dependent on the environment as they are concerned with the production and extraction of raw material from the earth's resources. The contribution by the agriculture in Indian economy is much higher as compared to world's average i.e.6.4% whereas the Gross Domestic Product is 16.1% by this sector. It provides huge employment opportunities to the people of India as by this sector 43.21% of the total population gets the employment.

Agriculture

In the primary sector the, agriculture industry is the largest employment source of the people and about 85% of the Indian farmers are involved in small and marginal farming activities. Covid -19 pandemic has increased the challenges of agriculture sector to manifold. The lockdown period coincides with the rabi crop harvesting and the farmers had to left the crops wilting in the fields as the labourers had fled back to their native places.

The government has announced the relief package which includes cash transfers and food transfers, subsidies, loans, customised packages, barrier-free interstate trade as well as framework for e-trading of agricultural produce. Along with that the Essential Commodities Act, 1955, was amended to exclude cereals, edible oils, oil seeds, pulses, onions and potatoes in a bid "to enable better price realisation for farmers"

Mining

The covid -19 has created turbulence in all the industries and mining is no exception. The low demand for the mining products along with disrupted value chain has adversely affected the mining industry.

The government has invoked various event clauses to bring the situation under control like steel, coal and power production are termed as essential services and removing mining activities from the ambit of lockdown.

Secondary Sector

The unprecedented destruction by covid-19 has hit the secondary sector very badly and it incurred huge business losses due to severe cash flow disruption, which in turn will have an adverse effect on the livelihood of several people working in this sector. The secondary sector provides employment to approximately 24.89% of the Indian population and has contribution of around 29.6% in the Indian GDP.

Manufacturing Industries

It is also bearing the strain caused by the virus and is finding difficult to maintain its contribution of 20% in GDP. Manufacturing industry has to face hardship almost at every stage from low production, staff crunch which is affecting quality, cost and production volumes which will ultimately affect the turnover leading to slow down and recession.

The government of India has taken various reforming steps to address this adverse situation and the most important one is the 'AtmaNirbhar' economic stimulus package, to the tune of 10% of the GDP (Rs 21 lakh crores) which will provide required cushion to the economy. Along with that tax holidays and lower income tax rate regime for new manufacturing units and several incentives to the foreign firms who are mulling to shift production out of China to India.

Automobile

The automobile industry only contribute 50% of the GDP coming from the manufacturing sector but in this outbreak of corona the automotive industry has been hit by a triple whammy in this pandemic time: factory closures, supply chain disruption, and a collapse in demand. In the automobile industry the situation has become more precarious for small and medium enterprises and millions of workers associated with this are at the risk of losing job.

The government is trying to control the haemorrhage that entire mobility eco-system has gone through with coronavirus impact on automobile industry by providing package based on package on land, labour, liquidity and laws. The various tax breaks and interest deferment schemes are introduced for the industry along with the low GST for 2 wheeler segment.

Apparel and Textile

The apparel and textile employs over 105 million people and also earn around US \$ 40 billion forex, apart from substantial revenue under GST and other taxes. This industry has got hit adversely due to disruption in labour supply, raw material unavailability, working capital constraints and restricted demand due to limited movement of people and purchasing ability.

The government understood the gravity of the pandemic and to mitigate the crisis being faced by the capital and labour-intensive textile Industry announced a relief package which included reduction in the bank interest rate and extension of soft loans

Pharmaceutical

The coronavirus has triggered the lockdown which has caused disruptions in all sectors including Pharma sector. This particular industry is highly dependent on China for its raw material which is the epicentre of this corona pandemic due to which the supply of material has been interrupted and prices have sky rocketed.

India's Union Cabinet has approved an investment package worth Rs 14,000 crore that would incentivise production of active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) in the country. A bulk drug incentive scheme will also run with a total budget of Rs 6,940 crore. This scheme would provide 20% incentive on production cost to investors proposing bulk drug units for a period of four years.

Chemical

In this challenging time of covid-19, each and every part of the global economy is feeling the effects of the pandemic; the chemical industry has also been widely affected. Indian dye stuff units are very much dependent on China for the raw materials. The industry is going through a very rough patch as they have to face dual challenges –one in the form of disrupted and delayed shipments from China and a spike in raw material prices. A clear and well thought road map is prepared by the government which includes putting the pesticides under the essential commodities category which has resulted in the functioning of the industry as usual.

Electronic Industry

The pandemic has cast its shadow across various economic activities with massive dislocation in global production, supply chains and trade and electronic industry is not an exception. There is a large fear of supply disruption looming in the industry as the raw and finished materials are mainly imported from the China. The sales have also been pushed down as people are postponing the sales of unessential items.

To boost the growth of Electronic industry and to make it a global hub for Electronics System Design and Manufacturing (ESDM) three schemes namely the Production Linked Incentive Scheme (PLI), Scheme for Promotion of Manufacturing of Electronic Components and Semiconductors (SPECS) and Modified Electronics Manufacturing Clusters Scheme (EMC 2.0) have been notified.

Real Estate & Construction

The Covid-19 pandemic and ensuing lockdown has brought the construction industry to a standstill which was already under the stress. The industry is facing the acute shortage of supply of the construction materials as well as a shortage of labour that had migrated to their hometowns due to lack of resources.

The government has announced the “Aatma Nirbhar Bharat” package to prepare the economy ready to fight against the fallout of the economy due to covid-19 pandemic. The relief measures included a temporary relief to builders from regulatory penalties in case of any COVID-19-caused project delay, a 30,000-crore liquidity support to lenders, and an extended Credit-Linked Subsidy Scheme for the middle income group to push the affordable housing segment.

Tertiary Sector

The tertiary sector is the highest contributor in the country's GDP which is around 54.3% and about 31.9% of the people are getting employment in this sector. India's enormous services industry is endured of devastating contraction as the coronavirus brought activity to a near halt, causing steep job losses and cementing fears of a deep recession. The pandemic has created a dent in the service sector as demand for services, both domestically and overseas, continued to plummet and businesses remained closed which resulted in drastic footfall in every industry under the sector”.

Information Technology

The Indian IT industry is facing the full impact of business disruption due to Covid -19 which is further accelerated by the lockdown. All this created hindrance in the movement of manpower which causes incompleteness of existing project on time and also declining loss of new projects. The IT companies are reporting drop in their earnings due to clients cancelling or putting off discretionary spending on technology.

Aviation

The aviation industry is flying through turbulence cause by the pandemic that seems to find no landing any time soon. The airline companies are facing huge financial crunch and few of them are at the brink of bankruptcy. Future of aviation business is seen as only 2-3 players running the show and huge numbers of people have either lost the job or are on the verge of losing it.

Tourism & Hospitality

The industry is going through a challenging time due to restriction on the movement of tourist within and outside the country. The loss of revenue and the employment is the highest in this industry and it will be the last one which will be able to come out of the crisis of Covid-19 pandemic.

Healthcare

The pandemic has exposed the vulnerabilities of healthcare systems in the country. Hospitals are facing a twin- financial burden of investing a huge amount in human and material resources as well as loss in the revenue as there is drop in number of routine surgeries, international patients. Along with these problems it has manage with limited supply of hospitals consumables, disposables as they are imported from the China.

Banking and Finance Sector

This sector is highly distressed as the chances of loan defaults has increased manifold due to a strong industry downturn and business closures. Even the individual borrowers across customer groups struggle to make payments in the face of an economic crisis resulting from lost business and jobs. The revenue is also negatively impacted due to the steep fall in rates due to influx of deposits and drop in credit demand.

Retail Segment

The retail industry is run by more than 15 million retailers who contribute 10% of the GDP of India. The industry is experiencing severe liquidity challenges due to lockdown, which is leading to large scale unemployment. The cash inflow of the industry has come to a standstill, while the fixed operating costs remain intact and it constitutes 85% of its cost.

Government Reforms

The government announced a special liquidity scheme of Rs. 30,000 crore to pick up investment grade debt paper from both primary and secondary markets. Such paper will be fully guaranteed by the government. RBI cut the CRR by 100 basis points to 3.0 percent for a period of one year ending on March 26, 2021. A liquidity adjustment facility (LAF) is a tool used by RBI, that allows banks to borrow money through repurchase agreements (repos) or for banks to make loans to the RBI through reverse repo agreements. RBI had increased MSF to 3% from 2% of SLR (Statutory Liquidity Ratio) which means the mandatory holding of liquid assets viz.

gold and cash by banks. The government has also come out with the New Education Policy which will bring major reforms in the education sector in the phase manner.

CONCLUSION

The whole of the globe is under the grasp of covid-19 which has created a havoc in the life of the people. The economic and business activities around the world have come to standstill due to the disruption caused by the pandemic. Each and every sector of the economy has been adversely affected by the corona virus and the need of the current time is to quickly restore the profit of business and resume the original state which was destroyed by the risk. Government has also taken various reform measures to tackle the situation and bring back the economy to its original position. Now both the private and public sector has to work all together to give a tough fight against the corona and achieve the target set by the government.

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MAHADALITS OF BIHAR AND THEIR INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

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Abstract

Bihar, a populous state of over 100 million, is India's poorest state with one third per capita income of India as a whole and one fifth that of India's most prosperous states. Bihar has registered lowest literacy levels and the lowest human development index ranking among Indian states. Dalits representing 15% of overall population of Bihar has remained disadvantaged across many social indicators. The poorest amongst those are identified Mahadalits by the Government of Bihar. This paper examines demographic profile of Mahadalits & their literacy trends in Bihar state. It also attempts to focus upon inclusive development practices launched by Bihar Government under Mahadalit Vikas Misson Schemes. Data have been collected from Census report (2011) published by Registrar General of India, Annual report (2017-18), SC & ST Welfare Department, Bihar Government.

Keywords: Mahadalits, Demographic distribution, Literacy trends, Inclusive development, Bihar

INTRODUCTION

Bihar, state of eastern India has made significant strides in infrastructure, health care facilities, education, and governance since 2004. It is a unique state because of its huge manpower, fertile land and ample water resources. It occupies third position in India in population. Dalits constitute over 15 percent of Bihar's population of 100 million (Census of India, 2011). The term "Dalit" however, is not a homogenous category but includes 22 caste groups that the government has classified as

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Scheduled Castes (SC). The word Dalit translates as ‘oppressed’ or ‘broken’ and is generally used to refer to people who were once known as ‘untouchables’ because of the impurity and pollution connected with their traditional ‘outcaste’ occupations. The numerical strength of Dalits in Bihar is 1656732. Although grouped together as Dalits, they occupy varying locations on the bottom rungs of the caste hierarchy, some being poorer and more discriminated against than others. The poorest among the Dalit groups were given the name ‘Mahadalits’ by the Bihar Government in 2007 (Kunnath, 2013). Nitish Kumar, Chief Minister of the state, set up the Mahadalit Commission in order to identify the most deprived communities among Dalit castes and suggest measures for their development. The Commission identified 21 out of 22 castes as Mahadalits.

Demographic distribution of Mahadalits: As per census report of 2011, Bihar is the third most populous state in the country with a population of 103,404,637. Mahadalits constituting an important segment of its population, they are subject to extensive social exclusion and disadvantage.

Table I: Population of Mahadalits in Bihar

S.No.	<i>Dalit Castes in Bihar</i>	<i>Population in Bihar</i>	<i>Share in Bihar's SC population (%)</i>
01	Bantar	135175	00.78%
02	Bauri	2233	00.02%
03	Bhogta	15103	00.10%
04	Bhuiya	716269	04.36%
05	Bhumij	1567	00.02%
06	Chaupal	79728	00.77%
07	Chamar	4,90048	31.34%
08	Dabgar	5488	00.03%
09	Dhobi	747528	04.96%
10	Dom	194596	01.19%
11	Dusadh	495165	30.88%
12	Ghasi	354	00.01%
13	Halalkhor	5435	00.03%
14	Hari/Mehtar	207549	01.39%
15	Kanjar	2760	00.01%
16	Kurariyar	10269	00.05%
17	Lalbegi	1039	00.01%
18	Musahar	2725114	16.19%
19	Nat	58819	00.30%
20	Pan	2195	00.03%

S.No.	Dalit Castes in Bihar	Population in Bihar	Share in Bihar's SC population (%)
21	Pasi	880738	05.45%
22	Rajwar	285485	01.64%
23	Turi	30497	00.26%

Source: SC&ST Welfare Department, Government of Bihar 2012: 57.

**Bhumij* was later dropped from the list of SCs in Bihar, leaving only 22 castes in the list.

It may be seen from table I that the largest number of persons among Mahadalits belong to Chamar community (31.34%), followed by Dusadh (30.88%). The Musahars form the third largest Mahadalit community in the state representing 16.19% of ST population. Mahadalits like Banter, Bauri, Bhogta, Chaupal, Dabgar, Ghasi, Halakhor, Kanjar, Kurariyar, Lalbegi, Nat, Pan, Turi are represent less than 1% of the population of Scheduled castes in Bihar.

Table II: (District-wise population of Mahadalits in Bihar)

S.No	District	Total Population	Mahadalit Population	Share of Mahadalit's in Total Population
01	Patna	5838465	920918	15.77
02	Nalanda	2877653	607672	21.12
03	Rohtas	2959918	549546	18.57
04	Bhabhuwa	1626384	3690088	22.69
05	Bhojpur	2128407	425402	15.59
06	Buxar	1706352	251737	14.75
07	Gaya	4391418	1334351	30.39
08	Jahanabad	1125313	222974	19.81
09	Arwal	700843	141314	20.16
10	Nawadah	2219146	565112	25.47
11	Aurangabad	2540073	612064	24.10
12	Saran	3951862	474066	12.00
13	Siwan	3330464	386685	11.61
14	Gopalganj	2562012	320064	12.49
15	Muzaffarpur	480 1062	751975	15.66
16	Sitamarhi	3423574	405114	11.85
17	Sheohar	656246	96655	14.73
18	West Champaran	3935042	553944	14.08
19	East Champaran	5099371	649726	12.74
20	Vaishali	3495021	738031	21.12

S.No	District	Total Population	Mahadalit Population	Share of Mahadalit's in Total Population
21	Darbhangha	3937385	615688	15.64
22	Madhubani	4487379	587158	13.08
23	Samastipur	4261566	803128	18.85
24	Saharsha	1900661	317249	16.69
25	Supaul	2229076	354249	15.89
26	Madhepura	2001762	346275	17.30
27	Purnea	3264619	390991	11.98
28	Araria	2811569	382654	13.61
29	Kishanganj	1690400	113118	06.69
30	Katihar	3071029	263100	08.57
31	Bhagalpur	3037766	318569	10.57
32	Banka	2034763	247858	12.18
33	Munger	1367765	183846	13.44
34	Lakhisarai	1000912	153209	15.31
35	Seikhpura	636342	131115	20.60
36	Jamui	1760405	302649	17.19
37	Khagaria	1666886	241161	14.83
38	Begusari	2970541	432210	14.55
	Total	104099452	16567325	15.91

Source: Annual report (2017-18), SC &ST Welfare Department, Bihar Government.

Table II shows that the percentage of Mahadalits in district's total population is highest in Gaya (30.39%), followed by Nawadah (25.47%) and Aurangabad (24.10%) at second and third position respectively. Kishaagnj and Katihar are the two districts in which Mahadalits reside in less than 10% of the total population of the districts.

Literacy trends of Mahadalits: Literacy is a sensitive indicator of cultural advancement of an area. Literacy helps a social group to acquire a higher social status through the process of social mobility (Khatoom, 2013). From table III it is clear that literacy rates across the Mahadalits of Bihar range from 4.6% of Mushahars to 33.90% of Pan. Male literacy rate and female literacy rate is highest among Dhobi (48.20%) and Pan Castes (19.10%) respectively. The literacy rates of males are higher than that of females among all the Scheduled castes. Male –female disparity has been registered highest among Dhobi and lowest among lowest among Musahar. Their abysmally low of educational attainment is the result of their long association with their traditional occupation, in which education has little role to play.

Table III:

S.No.	Mahadalits in Bihar	Literacy rates			
		Total	Male	Female	Gap
01	Bantar	12.40	20.40	03.70	16.70
02	Bauri	22.40	35.20	07.80	27.40
03	Bhogta	13.60	21.90	04.50	17.40
04	Bhuiya	08.90	14.50	02.80	11.70
05	Chaupal	18.90	29.00	06.40	22.60
06	Chamar	21.80	35.30	07.10	28.20
07	Dabgar	29.30	42.80	13.20	29.60
08	Dhobi	32.20	48.20	14.20	34.00
09	Dom	17.40	26.30	07.40	18.90
10	Dusadh	22.90	35.70	08.40	27.30
11	Ghasi	25.40	36.60	13.90	22.40
12	Halalkhor	26.20	39.20	12.40	26.80
13	Hari/Mehtar	26.90	38.70	13.40	25.30
14	Kanjar	10.70	15.10	04.50	10.60
15	Kurariyar	19.50	30.20	08.80	21.40
16	Lalbegi	21.70	30.60	12.20	18.40
17	Musahar	04.60	07.70	01.30	06.40
18	Nat	13.80	20.60	06.20	14.40
19	Pan	33.90	47.70	19.10	28.60
20	Pasi	29.60	44.50	12.90	31.60
21	Rajwar	18.00	29.60	05.20	24.40
22	Turi	17.90	28.60	06.50	22.10

Source: SC &ST Welfare Department, Government of Bihar 2012: 62

INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

Inclusive development demands that all social groups have equal access to the services provided by the State and equal opportunity for upward economic and social mobility. It is also necessary to ensure that there is no discrimination against any section of our society. The state government is committed to achieve “all inclusive growth at an accelerated pace” and ambitious goal of “making Bihar a developed state by 2015” with targets such as halving the poverty ratio by 2015 (in line with the Millennium Development Goals). This could happen only when the marginalized sections of Mahadalits are brought at par with general population.

For inclusion of Mahadalits in the main stream of society, the state government has launched following schemes:

- Dashrath Manjhi Kaushal Vikas Yojna: This scheme has been to promote economic development of the Mahadalit families as well as to remove unemployment. Under this scheme nine vocational courses are being conducted at District Head quarter for skill development of the Mahdalit youth. Training tool kit as well as stipend @ Rs 75 per training day are being given to the youths.
- Mahadalit Poshak Yojna: Under this mission there is a provision of providing school uniforms and other articles @500 per child studying in class I to V in Government School.
- Vikas Mitra: For every Panchayat and ward a Vikas Mitra is to be appointed who will implement all the governmental schemes in Mahadalit pockets effectively. He will be given remuneration of Rs 1500 per month. For the selection of Vikas Mitra, 52% seats are reserved for women.
- Mahadalit Shauchalaya Nirman Yojna: Under this scheme toilets are to be constructed for each Mahadalit family after contributing Rs 300.
- Construction of Community hall cum work shed: Under this scheme at least one community halls cum worksheds are to be constructed in densely populated Mahadalit pockets where social, cultural and intellectual activities may be organized.
- Call centers: A fully computerized call centre named "Sahayata" has been established under SC&ST (Prevention of Atrocities) Act 1989 by Mahadalit Vikas Misson.
- Mahadalit Awas Bhumi Yojna: Under this scheme there is a provision of providing three decimal lands to each landless Mahadalit family after conducting survey.
- Mahadalit Jalapurti Yojna : Drinking water facility will be provided to each Mahadalit Basti where population is at least 125.
- Mukhya Mantri Nari Jyoti Karyakram: This scheme aims to establish self help group for economic empowerment of women .
- Mahadalit crèche: It has been proposed to establish crèche along with Anganwadis for keeping the children of working mothers in Mahadalit pockets.
- Dhanwantari Mobile Chikitsha Yojna: It proposes running of mobile vans equipped with esstential medical kits for facilitating Ayurvedic Chikitsha among Mahadalits.
- Mahadalit Swasthya Card Yojna: Special drive has been launched by Health department of Bihar Government for issuing health cards to each Mahadalit family for their regular health checkups.

- Community Radio: Community radio will play instrumental role in promotion folk dance, folk song & folk culture by involving Mahadalit Youths. It will also help in disseminating informations regarding Governmental schemes for the welfare of Mahadalits.
- Mahadalit Basti Sampark Yojna: Most of the Mahadalit families inhabit in isolated palces which are not connected with roads. This scheme proposes to connect Mahdalit pockets with link roads.
- Mahadalit Anganwadis: Under this scheme there is a proposal to establish at least one Anganwadi for every 500 families .
- Mukhyamantri Jeevan Drishti Programme: In order to arouse awareness among Mahadalits about world affairs , it is proposed to provide a Radio (Transistor set) to each Mahadalit family and a Television set to each community centers.
- Mobile Public Distribution System: Under this scheme mobile vans equipped with essential goods such as Rice, Wheat, Kerosene etc. reach the remotest areas to support Mahadlit families.
- Anushuchit Jati Aawasiya Vidyalaya: For educational development of Scheduled Caste children 80 residential school have been established across the state.

CONCLUSION

The analysis revealed that Mahadalits of Bihar are victim of social exclusion and glaring inequalities structured in caste based society. As a chief minister, Nitish Kumar had introduced the Mahadalit umbrella in 2007 after the Bihar State Mahadalit Commission recommended inclusion of 21 SCs in the category. Mahadalits are scattered around all the districts of Bihar in varying proportions. Chamar, Dushadh and Musahars constitute more than 50% of the Mahadalit population in the state. Depressingly low literacy rates were observed among all the Mahadalits. Gender disparity in literacy rates among Mahadalts is quite evident. An ambitious action plan under the 'Bihar Mahadalit Vikash Mission' for the upliftment of mahadalits, the poorest of dalits, in the state has been launched by Bihar Government. For promoting inclusive development of Mahadalits it is the need of hour to extent the benefits of these schemes of Mahadalit Vikas Misson in a full-fledged manner.

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MOB RIOTING AND POLICE CASUALTIES: A CASE FOR THE HUMAN RIGHTS OF THE POLICE PERSONNEL

Nishtha Kaushiki*

Abstract

Ensuring the life and property of the citizens has been the *raison d'être* of the law enforcement agencies of any state. However, the recent Protests against the Citizenship Amendment Act throughout the country also raise the considerations of the casualties of law enforcement personnel. Soon during the protests, the country found itself embroiled in a discussion whether the use of force by the police was just or unjust; the study argues for the human rights of the police personnel and puts forward the view that there has to be limitations imposed on the citizens with regard to the protests. This aspect has been considerably ignored by the academicians and the three branches of the government. The article highlights the police casualties and argues for due consideration of the human rights of the police forces. One of the limitations of this study has been the absolute lack of literature on the topic thereby indicating the usual mindset of various section of the society towards the police personnel. Thus, the study is completely novel in nature which questions the set norms in the times of violent protests.

Keywords: Human Rights, Law Enforcement Agencies, Anti CAA Protests, Police Casualties

INTRODUCTION

Peaceful protests are a right of the citizens of a country. Unfortunately, sometimes the protests turn violent and casualties on both the sides are seen. The same had happened during the anti CAA protests. As the purpose of writing this article is

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speak for the human rights of the police personnel during the violent protests, the study is of the opinion that the approach of the miscreants to pose as protesters while carrying fire arms and resorting to inflicting injuries on the police personnel itself was very disturbing and has set a wrong precedent for the future.

In a violent protest elsewhere and when the situation is out of control and the protestors are reportedly the first ones to use force; the nation usually stands divided on the question of how much force was necessary? In the past and in the present, the media, academicians and human rights activists usually speak of the atrocities of the law enforcement agencies. However, what is usually missed out is the component of the human rights of the police personnel who at times receive life threatening casualties. The study is in light of the internal security dynamics and the violent protests wherein the number of police personnel injured was in three digits.

THEORETICAL APPROACH OF CROWD DISPERSAL

The most prominent and well appreciated of crowd dispersal method has been the 'Madison method of crowd control'. The method has named after a young police officer in the 1970s. It involves going in between the crowd, meeting the organisers and talking to them and successfully conveying that the police is there for their security and well being- just in case some miscreants use this opportunity for arson and spreading violence. The purpose of this method is to narrow down the psychological gap between the protestors and the police and the protestors start seeing them the police as a part of them i.e. employed citizens of the nation whose job is to ensure that law and order is maintained.

Similarly, Le Pard. D (2011) in his book, "*Managing Major Events: Best Practices from the Field*", highlighted that the Vancouver police developed a meet-and-greet strategy. Instead of using riot police in menacing outfits, police officers in standard uniforms engaged the crowd. They shook hands, asked people how they were doing, and told them that officers were there to keep them safe. This created a psychological bond with the group that paid dividends. It becomes more difficult for people to fight the police after being friendly with individual officers (as cited in U.S. Department of Justice: FBI, 2012).

The above method brings out a solution to the Elaborated Social Identity Model (ESIM) which maintains that the crowd goes out of control or uses violence as a tool in case it believes that police personnel are representing the state and will surely treat them in an unjust manner. It rather supplements the Procedural Justice Theory (PSJ) wherein the crowd does not resort to violence when it presumes that police personnel will not use force against them when they will comply with the law. In practicality, this method was successfully employed by DCP of Bengaluru (Central) Chetan Singh Rathore. Professionals in the Police training institutes

across the country should train the police personnel for this method as a first attempt to pass off the protests peacefully.

A CASE OF HUMAN RIGHTS OF THE POLICE PERSONNEL

Before DCP Rathod could take the above mentioned action, the nation discussed and debated on the issue of police brutalities in Jamia University and elsewhere in the state of Uttar Pradesh. One of the most ignored aspects of this entire episode was the case of police casualties throughout the country. In the state of Uttar Pradesh alone, two hundred and sixty three police personnel were injured out of which fifty seven personnel received fire arm injuries (Anti-CAA Stir..., 2019). On the other hand, in the Jamia protests, Maqsood Ahmed, a head constable in the southern district who was critically injured on head and was admitted in the Intensive Care Unit (ICU). Indeed, the police forces have a legal duty and a moral responsibility to uphold the human rights while discharging their law enforcement duties, yet, another side of the coin is that in the academic background and otherwise, the protection of the human rights of the police forces is one of the most sidelined issues. The National Human Rights Commission undoubtedly is correct in taking a suo motto cognizance of the human rights violations in custodial deaths, protests turning violent, encounters etc but it should simultaneously take heed of the nature of the injuries that police forces undergo while dealing with miscreants in various above circumstances. Their valour and sacrifices shouldn't go unnoticed. Given the case of Maqsood Ahmed, the issue of inflicting fatal casualties and injuries on duty police of both- civil as well as armed police personnel shouldn't go unnoticed. Fixing the responsibilities with severe punishments should also be debated at length in the academic and judicial circles. It should be done with the same vigor as the human rights violations by the police forces are done.

In the above context, it is necessary to consider the following data on police casualties as available in the Crime in India Statistics (2017), published by National Crime Records Bureau. The data pertaining to 'Police Personnel Killed on Duty' and 'Police Personnel Injured on Duty' by the riotous mobs reveal that a total of 218 police personnel out of 840 were martyrs i.e. 25.95 percent and 1513 out of 2684 i.e. 56.37 (Crime in India 2018, 995). Thus, the question that arises is if the degree of force used by the crowd is significantly higher than that of the police personnel then how will the responsibility be fixed on the crowd?

Representing the state at critical times exposes the police personnel to various human rights violations. During a protest turning violent, a civilian might run away or escape, but police job demands legal obligation to be present and first employ non violent warnings to control the crowd. Even when such an initiative fails, the legal responsibility to use non-violent methods such as water canons to disperse

the crowd lies on the shoulder of the police personnel. Only when the crowd turns violent or the situation turns grave, the police can use firearms and that too after warning. Usually the time gap between an agitated crowds turning violent is of 2-3 minutes. It is in this time gap that the police personnel expose themselves to various vulnerabilities which result in severe injuries and fatal casualties.

If on the other hand, the police personnel uses firearms to control the damage to the property and lives (which includes his own), he is then scrutinised by various agencies. Further, his seniors also scrutinise his actions through various committees which probe into the reasons of the decisions to use fire arms. It has to be understood that when a police personnel is on duty trying to control an agitated and an aggressive mob, he is not acting as a private individual in pursuance of his self interest. In such circumstances he functions as an important organ of the state and hence it is the responsibility of the state itself to ensure the human rights of the police personnel by acknowledging their existence and respecting them. Respecting their human rights can be done by giving full body armour to the police personnel irrespective of the ranks, making it mandatory to seek police permission before the protests and imposing preventive restrictions before and during the protests.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

The anti-CAA protests in Delhi and in other states point out towards a well planned and executed violence either by the anti-national forces or with the handwork of some sleeper terror modules that became active due to the presence of a foreign hand. The state administration should ensure that in case of imminent protests in lieu of the political developments etc, the petrol pumps on the directions of the administration should only sell a rationed amount of petrol and diesel in order to avoid their misuse. This was missing in the recent protests. Further, article 246 of the constitution places public order and police under the jurisdiction of the state. In this regard the study puts the following obligations on the respective state governments:

In the first instance, there has to be effective coordination between the police personnel and the organisers of the protests. This is not only essential to convey to the potential crowd that law has to be respected under all circumstances but will also attempt to wipe out the negative image of the police already formed. From a strategic perspective, it will also help the police determine to know the psychological mindset group/crowd from close quarter and determine the extent to which they can go during the protest.

Police personnel should be effectively trained in the Madison method and the police head/ senior officer should initiate conversation with the crowd in a constructive manner. A soft approach through a continuous dialogue should be

taken by the police in order to diffuse confrontations. Police personnel should be psychologically trained for effective communication, negotiation and de-escalation measures. In this regard, a separate division of psychological research can be set up wherein training can be given in batches by professional psychiatrists in order to deal with mob provocation, and various other stressors. Officers with previous records of justifiable police shootings can also be pooled in for preparing the police personnel in handling such sensitive situations. This division can also indentify police personnel with personality disorders, personal stressors and abusive tendencies and steps can be taken to ensure their participation in other non sensitive jobs rather than being deputed for mob protests. Additionally, to ensure that no incident of police casualties take place, it is the responsibility of the MHA to advertise the legal clauses on a regular basis that under what conditions the police is empowered to use force in case of mob protests etc. This will deter the miscreants to a large extent.

Next, the pattern of using women and children as a human shield has been seen as a strategy of a violent crowd. In such and other cases effective and non-lethal crowd control weapons should be procured by the MHA for all the states. As the issue is being debated, it has to be brought to the notice that state Government of Odisha is in the process of procuring electric shock batons to disperse the violent crowds. In this regard, the research services of DRDO have to be pooled in. Innovation has to be the key. The U.S. for example uses the M5 modular crowd control munitions in which small explosion dispenses around six hundred rubber balls instead of steel pellets to disperse rather than to kill or injure the people. Further China has developed a weapon called as a pain laser that utilises millimetre waves to heat and evaporate the water under the skin of the protestors. Completely non lethal in nature, it gives a burning sensation and within seconds the crowd disperses. Other examples include oleoresin capsicum devices, acoustic weapons etc. The choice of weapons depends completely on MHA after a thorough debate at the necessary level while simultaneously mitigating their risks of permanent damage by controlling their maximum range. The overall objective is to deter the crowd by dispersing it so they do not critically injure the police forces and finally avoiding police retaliation.

Simultaneously, the police forces should be modernized with respect to the provision of full body armour that is lightweight rather than a simple helmet and jackets. The same should be provided to all the police personnel irrespective of the ranks. Acknowledging their right to life and safety is the first and foremost basic human right that the Ministry of Home Affairs can acknowledge. Also, it is much required that each state (depending on the size) must be provided with atleast three-four helicopters to do the aerial survey and video recording of the mob as well as the police action. Recently, in the Hong Kong protests, the police personnel had attached an audio-visual camera on their uniforms in order to contrast the

prevailing criticism of the police action against the mob. The same can also be done for the Indian police personnel. Such innovative measures will ensure responsible behaviour of the people towards the police and vice versa. Further, in the case of a civilian's or police personnel's trial, the footages will serve as a non biased witnesses.

Interestingly, one of the developments that unfolded in the recent protests was the phenomenon going violent towards the evening when the police personnel after doing their respective duties of eight-nine hours were physically exhausted, and, probably it was the time of change of guards. Also, the police personnel would have been hungry and dehydrated and fatigue would have been definitely set in. Further, the crowds swelled up in the evening hours. The MHA should find out a mechanism wherein both these factors are avoided. The study contends that all transport and communication links should be cut off much before the time for the change of duties sets in order to decrease the number of people joining in the protest. Also, there should be no live visuals as the case was seen during the protests. Rules should be framed for deferred live in order to avoid immediate reactions. Also, the para-military forces such as the CRPF should be on the stand by in such protests.

From a psychological perspective in order to retain the physical strength of the police personnel various issues related to human resources management should be addressed. For example, pertinent issues of understaffing, adequate hours of rest, and financial rewards should be addressed as soon as possible. If addressed successfully, they will not deal with the police related behaviour of aggression but will also infuse in them the much required physical fatigue. An already tired police force cannot fight the hooligans and putting them at a risk in front of a violent crowd can be taken as a violation of their human rights.

The police personnel must be allowed for the use of fire arms in self defence when the mob turns violent and resist the warnings of the police personnel. Simultaneously, in order to avoid the misuse of force, surveillance from air i.e. the active use of drones and helicopters should be done. This will keep in check the actions of the mob as well as of the police personnel.

In case of a trial by the court, MHA should strictly not allow a media trial of the police personnel in question. Like other citizens, police personnel have the right of presumption of innocence until proven guilty. Also, legal assistance from the Department has to be provided to the accused police personnel. However, as a caution they must be successfully communicated they also have legal responsibility and accountability in case of human rights violations by them. This will ensure a system of checks and balances.

Finally, the study strongly advocates that if in a riot control, police personnel or a para military personnel loses a limb and becomes handicapped, the respective state government should provide him an alternate employment in some other

department in the same pay scale where physical work would be significantly less. Further, in a case of loss of life in line of the duty, he should be accorded the status of martyr or 'shaheed' at par with the army, navy and airforce and should entail equal financial compensation and other benefits.

CONCLUSION

The role of the police personnel in upholding the law is of utmost importance. However, equally important is the recognition of their human rights. Back home they too have families to support and care for. If their basic human rights are violated and it is always presumed that since they are law enforcement agencies having legal authority of the use of force, they will be the ones responsible if civil casualties occur during a violent protest- this is wrong and uncalled for. Such wrong presumptions only add on to the stressors that they usually face while on duty. If it is expected from the police that they should be humane, the study urges the authorities, media and the academicians to recognise their human rights also for only a human can be humane. Of course, a system of checks and balances should be evolved to keep in control the excessive use of force in case of mob protests, but blaming entirely the police for all that goes wrong is also condemnable. In the given context, the study concludes by a famous quote of Abraham Lincoln, "A nation that does not honour its heroes will not long endure".

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TRADITIONAL KNOWLEDGE, GEOGRAPHICAL INDICATIONS AND INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY LAWS: A POLICY PERSPECTIVE

Vani Bhushan*

Abstract

The inherited Knowledge passed through generations in the field of art, literature, cultural practices etc can be termed as Traditional Knowledge. There exists a definite need to protect and preserve this knowledge for the better present and transfer it to the next generation. This traditional knowledge can be preserved with the help of the law of intellectual property rights. In the past few decades there have been extensive efforts across the world for the protection, promotion and preservation of the same. World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO) plays a prominent role in this regard. Under the realm of Intellectual Property Laws, granting of Geographical Indications has been found as the best possible solution. Geographical Indications and Traditional Knowledge are complementary to each other. Geographical Indications acts as a tool in protecting Traditional Knowledge and encourages the communities with such knowledge to continue to practice and promote the same to their future generations. It helps to bridge the gap between the older generations of the society and the upcoming generations.

Keywords: Traditional Knowledge, Geographical indications, Intellectual property, Biodiversity, Farmers' Right, WIPO, WTO, TRIPS, Traditional Knowledge (TK) and Geographical Indications (GI): Conceptual Aspects

Local Traditions of Knowledge, Geographical Origins of Products Descriptions offered above indicate that Traditional Knowledge (TK) and Geographical Indications (GIs) share a common element insofar as they both protect accumulated knowledge typical to a specific locality. While TK expresses the local traditions of knowledge, GIs stand for specific geographical origin of a typical product or

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production method. GIs and TK relate a product (GIs), respectively a piece of information (TK), to a geographically confined people or a particular region or locality.¹

Traditional Knowledge (TK) mainly expresses the exploitation by individuals or communities of plant genetic material resourceful for humans and the processes of extracting from nature the genetic resources, as well as the skill and practices of preserving this knowledge for future generations. In addition, the creation of clothing and tools, the construction and maintenance of shelter, the orientation and navigation on land and sea, the interpretation of climatic and meteorological phenomena, dyes and weaving patterns, design, spiritual beliefs and expressions of culture also constitute TK. The discoveries, transmitted from one generation to the next, document the skills and practices assembled over time, which are often upgraded by subsequent innovations in the course of history. TK is not static. Rather, it expresses a continuous process of devising strategies for the survival of humankind and insofar a viable complement to formal science. Local indigenous knowledge competes and complements the rational, expert-led scientific world view, the latter which, until the end of the 20th century was unquestionably considered the universal keeper of scientific knowledge and the only truth for development aid. TK and efforts at expanding its scope will pay off, as TK becomes a valuable alternative to, or foundation of, formal science for managing ecological relations between society and nature, which includes “adaptation to environmental and social change”², not least because TK encompasses the entire spectrum of daily human life.³ TK thus is “traditional” not because it is old, but because the knowledge is created, preserved and disseminated in the cultural traditions of particular communities. It is different from formalized, scientific and industrialized R&D efforts.⁴ The Traditional Knowledge on Plant Genetic Resources (PGR), Agricultural and Ecological Know-how⁵, Traditional Medicine (TM)⁶ and Traditional Cultural Expressions (TCEs)⁷ are areas of main application and potentially relevant to international trade regulation may be distinguished.

Geographical Indications (GIs) are closely related to functions assigned to trademarks and are well-established in unfair competition law.⁸ Even if GIs have no property holder per se, they nevertheless count towards an intellectual property right, because their benefit stream is the geographical area in relation to the producer of a product.⁹ In addition to IPRs and competition law, GIs are subject to consumer laws, as they embody the preference a consumer may express for locally produced goods. The benefit stream (value) of TK is encapsulated in the intellect of the human mind, while the benefit stream of a GI is a particular product originating in a particular geographical region.¹⁰

Linking the origin of product with the quality of the product is a well-established objective of intellectual property protection, namely of GIs.¹¹ The protection of the traditional values as opposed to the novelty of an invention has been a yet

unseen objective for an IPR. It is not inconceivable. Like other forms of intellectual property rights, such as trademarks or trade secrets, neither GIs nor TK require novelty. Also, TK protection is not limited to intellectual property. The varying scope of TK and its different functions touch upon many fields of law, ranging from unfair competition, unjust enrichment to contractual liability. None of them is clearly prevailing at this stage. At this stage, most international legal sources of TK protection are non-binding soft law, except for the few treaty instruments described below.¹²

PROTECTING TK AND INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS

The overarching international legal framework is Agenda 21 that came out of the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro. Among Agenda 21's objectives of preserving biodiversity for future generations, Principle 22 emerges as recognition that indigenous peoples have a vital role to play in environmental management and development because they dispose of alternative answers and solutions to formal science in the form of TK.¹³

The TRIPs Agreement in its present form and scope is perceived to respond to the needs of industrialised countries. It does not offer much to farming communities, the main holders of traditional knowledge around the globe. It was acceptable to developing countries mainly because it formed part of an overall package and single undertaking, which included a pledge to liberalise market access in agriculture and textiles. These goals are only materialising slowly. They have not remedied a basic imbalance.

Only recently, the international community sought to recognise and protect traditional knowledge. In 1981, WIPO and UNESCO adopted a model law on folklore. In 1989 the concept of Farmers' Rights was introduced by the FAO into its International Undertaking on Plant Genetic Resources and in 1992 the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) highlighted the need to promote and preserve traditional knowledge. In spite of these efforts which have spanned two 130 decades, final and universally acceptable solutions for the -protection and promotion of traditional knowledge have not yet emerged.

The CBD also set out principles governing access to genetic resources and the knowledge associated with them, and the sharing of benefits arising from such access. We therefore consider the relationship between the IP system and the access and benefit sharing principles of the CBD in the context of both knowledge, traditional or otherwise, and genetic resources.¹⁴

Thus in the present paper we have addressed the following questions: What is the nature of traditional knowledge and folklore and what do we mean by its protection? How can the existing IP system be used to protect and promote

traditional knowledge? What modifications of the IP system might improve its protection? How can the IP system support the principles of access and benefit sharing enshrined in the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)? Is the protection of Geographical Indications important for developing countries?

A number of cases involve what is often referred to as “biopiracy”. The examples of turmeric, neem and ayahuasca¹⁵ illustrate the issues that can arise when patent protection is granted to inventions relating to traditional knowledge which is already in the public domain. In these cases, invalid patents were issued because the patent examiners were not aware of the relevant traditional knowledge. Partly as a result of such biopiracy, many developing countries, holders of traditional knowledge, and campaigning organisations are pressing in a multitude of foray for traditional knowledge to be better protected. Such pressure has led, for example, to the creation of an Intergovernmental Committee on Intellectual Property and Genetic Resources, Traditional Knowledge and Folklore in WIPO. The protection of traditional knowledge and folklore is also being discussed within the framework of the CBD and in other international organisations such as UNCTAD, WHO, FAO and UNESCO. In addition, the Doha WTO Ministerial Declaration highlighted the need for further work in the TRIPS Council on protecting traditional knowledge.¹⁶

GEOGRAPHICAL INDICATIONS AND TRIPS

At the prologue of this present article, it is considered the relevance of geographical indications for protecting traditional knowledge. However, geographical indications have a much wider application and for some countries constitute one of the most important categories of intellectual property. This is reflected in the TRIPS Agreement.

The negotiations on the geographical indication section of the TRIPS Agreement were among the most difficult.¹⁷ This stemmed from clear divisions between the main proponents of the TRIPS Agreement – the US and EU. In addition, as has been borne out in the subsequent discussions in the TRIPS Council, divisions also exist among other developed countries and among developing countries. The final text of the agreement reflects these divisions and, in mandating further work, recognises that agreement could not be reached in a number of important areas.

The outcome was that the current text of TRIPS provides a basic standard of protection, and a higher standard specifically for wines and spirits. The inclusion of this higher standard does not refer to the unique characteristics of wines and spirits, but was rather a compromise reached in negotiations. This imbalance in protection has led to demands for additional protection from a number of countries including India, Pakistan, Kenya, Mauritius and Sri Lanka.¹⁸ Other countries, such as Argentina, Chile, and Guatemala argue that extending the additional protection

to other products would impose extra financial and administrative burdens on all WTO Members and that these would outweigh any trade benefit. They believe that such burdens would fall most heavily on developing countries.

THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF GEOGRAPHICAL INDICATIONS

In considering positions to take on the discussions on both the multilateral register and the possible extension of the scope of protection, it is important that developing countries consider carefully the potential costs and benefits. The assessment of economic consequences of these practices for a developing country becomes difficult. The main economic benefit of geographical indications would be to act as a quality mark which will play a part in enhancing export markets and revenues. But increased protection, particularly applied internationally, may adversely affect local enterprises which currently exploit geographical indications that may become protected by another party. It has also been suggested that geographical indications may be of particular interest to a number of developing countries which might have, or might be able to achieve, a comparative advantage in agricultural products and processed foods and beverages. In our view it is far from clear whether these countries will be able to gain significantly from the application of geographical indications. By way of example, the Lisbon Agreement, which is an international system of protection administered by WIPO for the protection of appellations of origin, was agreed in 1958.⁴⁹ To date only 20 countries (seven of which are developed) have acceded to the agreement, and as of 1998, 766 appellations of origin are protected under the agreement, of which European countries hold 95%.

Even taking into account the well documented weaknesses in the Lisbon Agreement, such as the lack of an appropriate exception for geographical indications that had become generic, that make it unattractive to both developed and developing countries alike, the level of interest, even for those developing countries who deemed it worthwhile to join, seems very limited.¹⁹

GI is one of the legal mechanism under IPR regime through which TKs are protected. GI's are defined at Article 22(1) of the TRIPS Agreement, as 'indications, which identify a good as originating in the territory of a Member, or a region or a locality in that territory where a given quality, reputation or other characteristic of the good is essentially attributable to its geographic origin.' Some international treaties such as the Madrid Convention, Paris Convention, & the Lisbon Agreement contained Provisions on the protection of indication of source and appellations of origin. GIs are rising as an important tool for protection of intellectual property. Some well-known GIs are "Swiss Chocolates" from Switzerland, "Darjeeling Tea" from India, tequila Spirit" from Mexico; "Chianti Wine" from Italy, and "Champagne Wine" from France; "Idaho Potatoes" from USA. All these GIs provide an assurance

of quality & distinctiveness, which is essentially attributable to the fact of its origin in that, defined geographical locality, region or territory.²⁰

Many countries support that the GIs could be a particularly important way of protecting products based on TK. This strategy seeks to enquire into the unique attributes of this intellectual property tool, which could perhaps make it more suited to protecting indigenous knowledge, especially from the perspective of a developing country like India.²¹ From the viewpoint of protection of TK, one of the best features of the GIs of goods (Registration & Protection) Act, 1999 is comprehensive definition given of GI. This is significant in the Indian context considering the wide variety of goods that is deserving of protection ranging from agricultural products like Darjeeling tea, Basmati, to manufactured goods such as Chanderi silk, Agra ka Petha, Kolhapure Chappals, etc.

Reflecting the similar historical and symbolic link of product and region, with the complex relation between the TK and their holders i.e. the indigenous communities. One of such way is where a GI might protect an aspect of TK, such as a name, but that does not make GIs suitable for most claims to the protection of TK. The rationale of protecting GIs is mostly to provide a legal means for exclusive use of the GI in relation to particular. Although the rationales may involve other goals as well, the right a registered GI gives the right to exclude others from use well; the right a registered GI gives the right to exclude others from use of the name. GI protection is basically based on three rationales for protection. The first is a connection between a product and the place from which products comes. The second is to relate some kind of qualities to the product which are coming from a particular area. Lastly, the combination of location and qualities may create some kind of evocative value of a special place. But the protection provided by the GIs centers on the name, and the Protection does not give any exclusivity over that evocative value or quality only over the name.

OBJECTIVES OF PROTECTING TK

While on the other side the primary purpose of protecting TK is to provide its owners to control of their knowledge and cultural is to provide its owners to control of their knowledge and cultural identity in a globalised world with some prospect of economic development. These aims of TK are in a limited way also found in the traditions associated with products that are marketed under GIs. The main aspect of the protection indigenous peoples seek, is not essentially exclusivity over any kind of knowledge, but some kind of control over innovative uses of TK, in order to benefit from those uses. Some circumstances where TK holders seek protection of a name, a GI may not be helpful unless the TK holder has an established business. At least in Europe, GIs function to support a particular type of agriculture on other

side TK do not function to support innovative agricultural methods, but rather to preserve existing agricultural traditions and to incentivize the continuance of those seeking to protect TK do not use the same approach to incentives. In contrast, TK, is often innovative and it also has the capacity to contribute to innovation.²²

As we know that GI can be considered as a tool for protection of TK but GI is not sufficient for the protection of TK as it is facing problem of bio piracy by different countries such as China, Magnolia etc since it ultimately GI ultimately protects name of the product.²³ The extent of the Protection is restricted to the class or locations of the people who use the indication, where indicates prevention on the part of the holders of TK to transfer the same to non-locales.

As I discussed above that modern IP regime is not sufficient for the protection of TK so we need a statute which can effectively protect the interest of these indigenous people. The need for Protection of TK mostly arises because developing countries and indigenous peoples have found that the developing world freely uses associated cultural outputs or genetic resources of indigenous peoples' knowledge, without any benefits necessarily flowing back to the source of that knowledge and driving out these indigenous people from commercial benefits. The version of developed world for the protection of intellectual property, is very well mentioned in the standards of the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS Agreement), protects developed world knowledge assets and treats indigenous TK as free for all to use. Trade at global level has exacerbated this disparity in the protection of knowledge assets.²⁴

CONCLUSION

As present IP regime is not sufficient for the protection of TK So the Legislation which is *sue generis* in nature, which is respectful of indigenous culture, traditions and which is culturally appropriate. Such legislation will help the indigenous people to protect their TK. The points which I have kept in my mind in suggesting the model law are communal ownership, protection, protection from misappropriation, destruction, development of, practical and cost effective mechanisms for just compensation or benefit sharing if they in case of they suffer loss due misappropriation of their knowledge by various industries so there is a need development of a robust *sui generis* (which means of its own kind) system of legal protection. Some important policy issues, such as question of beneficiaries of GI, defining geographical boundaries, post –registration follows – up, registration in foreign countries and involvements of stakeholders etc should taken into account . Hence, the question is which region should be the legitimate one in GI registration. Since the state government agencies have taken a lead role in the process of registration, they have tended to include the entire state for registration for GI which may not be appropriate.

Geographical Indication provides for the protection of various types of traditional knowledge that has been deeply embedded within the culture of a community or a group of people that have been in the possession of this knowledge for many decades or even centuries. Overall, it should be noted that geographical indication as a concept is aimed at protecting the names of goods, and not knowledge as such meaning that they provide some scope to protect traditional knowledge but the protection remains limited insofar as these indications are employed for marketing but not to protect the knowledge related to the product. However, geographical Indications could play a complementary role in assisting the protecting of traditional products, but it is not realistically possible to protect all forms of traditional knowledge just by using this single form of intellectual property alone under isolation.

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NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL POLICY 2020: A PERSPECTIVE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

The main purpose of this article is to highlight the components of the National Education Policy (NEP) 2020 vis-à-vis higher education. It seems that it would be an appropriate “credit transfer” system as a regulatory provision. In the policy document, key challenges have been identified and some recommendations have been made. At this juncture, the financial constraints are far too compelling and it is difficult to envisage an increase in education spending to 6% of the GDP, in as much as it is to double the current gross enrolment ratio in higher education by the year, 2035. There is no clear cut policy directive in support of the rights/reservation of the socially deprived and backward segments in higher academic institutions. Education being a concurrent subject, requires a collaborative strategy between the center and states, but that maybe marred by political considerations that very often determine and define the relations between them. Besides, there have to be measurable commitments linked with accountability vis-a-vis funding and expenditure.

Keywords: National Educational Policy (NEP), Multidisciplinary, Higher Education Institutions (HEI's), Challenges, Equity, Excellence.

INTRODUCTION

“Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.”¹ These words of Nelson Mandela are timeless and hold true for all societies. Higher education in India has changed much more in the last two decades, than it has

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in the last seventy years, since India achieved independence. The 4th industrial revolution 4.0, comprising of technologies like artificial intelligence, robotics, big data analytics, cyber security, the internet of things and the like, has taken the world by storm. It has changed the way people live, educate, work and interact. It also becomes imperative to mention that in September, 2015, 193 member countries of the UN came together and adopted 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) to transform the world and make it worth living. The fourth SDG that was adopted, emphasized on giving access to sustainable and quality education to all by 2035.² (United Nations Sustainable Development Summit 25 - 27 September 2015, New York) In the light of these developments, the National Education Policy 2020, couldn't have come at a better time, proposing a planned structural transformation in the education set up of the country.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES OF INDIA: A BRIEF REVIEW

Indian education found a prominent place at the time of the enactment of the Indian Constitution and broad educational policies were uppermost in the minds of the leaders. The current education policy proposed by the government of India, is the third in line, the first one being - *The National Policy on Education*, 1968, which was based upon the recommendations of the Kothari Commission (1964–1966), and called for “radical restructuring” and proposed equal educational opportunities in order to achieve national integration and greater cultural and economic development”.³

In 1986, Prime Minister Rajiv Gandhi announced - *The National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986* and this was the second such policy - whose objective was a “special emphasis on the removal of disparities and to equalize educational opportunity,”⁴ especially for Indian women, scheduled tribes (ST) and the scheduled caste (SC) communities. This Policy was later reformed in 1992, with greater emphasis on science and technology and improving the overall quality of education.⁵ In 2015, a committee was set up headed by Late Shri T.S.R. Subramanian to look into the possibilities of a new education policy and in 2019, the committee submitted its draft under the chairmanship of Shri K.Kasturirangan. This was approved by the Cabinet and was called the “*National Education Policy*” (*NEP 2020*). The policy was concerned about the nation's aspirations for higher education, the main stake holders, and the current empirical data on higher education. It was then, that the draft was finalized and was submitted in the end of May, 2019. The final version was approved in July, 2020. An attempt was made to adopt the “Best Practices” from the education systems of the world and then incorporate it in the educational framework of India. The focus was on five key areas: accessibility, affordability, accountability as well as inclusivity and quality.⁶

PRINCIPLE TAKEAWAYS

The National Education Policy (NEP) 2020, to a large extent, proposes to bring about a complete overhaul of the higher education system as it would focus on institutional restructuring and consolidation of a more holistic and inclusive education. Unlike, the previous education policies, NEP 2020 is time bound and has set a target of 2040,⁷ by which time, the entire policy has to be implemented. In that sense accountability is built into the policy.

NEP 2020 has clearly spelt out that the student is at the heart of the education system. This aims to give more flexibility and choices to students for choosing their subjects and can go in for different permutations and combinations, overlooking the rigid compartmentalization between arts and sciences, or for that matter, vocational and academic streams. “Model public universities for holistic and multidisciplinary education, at par with IITs, IIMs, called MERU’s (Multidisciplinary Education and Research Universities), will be set up and will aim to attain the highest global standards in quality education.”⁸ The aim is to establish a multidisciplinary university in every district.

It aims at making all the Higher Education Institutions (HEI’s), by 2035, to evolve into: Research Intensive, Teaching Intensive, Autonomous Degree Granting Colleges which would be multidisciplinary institutions of higher learning. Affiliated Colleges would gradually be phased out over a period of fifteen years.⁹

The NEP 2020 seeks to address immediate issues in Higher Education (HE). Currently, it is fragmented. According to the Statista Research Department, 2019, Out of over 51,000 higher education institutions, there are 993 universities in the country and out of the 39,931 colleges, 20 percent are having an enrolment of less than 100 students.¹⁰ It is far below as compared to China, South Korea etc.¹¹ In South Korea, the Gross Enrolment Ratio of eligible students in higher education is 67.88%.¹² as compared to India’s dismal figure at i.e. 26.3 % (2018). In the next 15 years, the government proposes to raise it to 50%¹³ by laying stress on increasing the number of institutions, ODL i.e. Open Distance Learning as well as harnessing technology to the maximum.

Provisions have been so made that the undergraduate program would be marked by progressive completion. The completion of the first year would be rewarded by a certificate, the second year by a diploma and the third year by a degree. The fourth year would be research oriented and would be rewarded by an honors degree. Higher Education Institutions (HEI’s) will have the option to offer different designs of Master’s program (2 year or 1 year or 5years integrated UG/PG program). The criteria for Ph D would be a Master’s degree or a four years Bachelor’s degree with research.¹⁴ (National Education Policy 2020, MHRD, Government of India). An interesting omission is the M.Phil degree from the next academic session. This omission has raised a number of eyebrows in the academic circles. In an article in

the Financial Times, Bibek Debroy (Chairman of the Economic Advisory Council to the PM) has given an analysis of the M.Phil. Degree.¹⁵ M.Phil is supposed to be an enabler to further pursuing Ph.D. Since, the current NEP envisages, that the fourth year in the undergraduate degree programme will be research based and the master's degree too, will have the research component, the M.Phil. Degree then becomes redundant. To add to it, it was only till the year, 2009 that M.Phil. was equivalent to UGC NET.

An Academic Bank of Credits¹⁶ shall also be established for the purpose of storing academic credits earned on a digital platform. As per the NEP 2020, those students who wish to change their stream in midway, can opt for another course and whatever credits they have acquired will be digitally stored in an Academic Bank of Credits and can be transferable through it.

The policy makes provisions to allow the top hundred universities in the world to operate in India.¹⁷ The modalities would be worked out through a legislative framework. According to NEP 2020, students who wish to study abroad, would now be able to get world class experience on home ground itself. Credits acquired in foreign universities will also be permitted. This would also be supplemented by research collaboration and student exchanges between the Indian and foreign universities. Optimistically speaking, India being a laboratory of diverse experiences, it can serve as a training ground for foreign universities.

According to the statistics of the 12th Five-Year Plan (2012–2017), “a small percentage of the Indian population in the age group of 19–24 (less than 5%) has received formal vocational education”¹⁸. Comparatively speaking, in USA, the number is 52%, in South Korea it is close to 96%. In this context, the National Education Policy 2020 has set a target of providing vocational training to at least 50% learners by 2025.¹⁹ (National Education Policy 2020, MHRD, Government of India). Along with Higher education institutions, industries and NGOs would also offer vocational education

In order to encourage, multidisciplinary research culture in all fields, NEP envisions an ambitious and a new National Research Foundation (NRF) which would provide funds and facilities for research in universities and colleges.²⁰ The NRF in its capacity, would also ensure that research undertaken is of societal relevance and there is adequate linkage between researchers and relevant branches of government as well as industry. Higher Education Commission of India(HECI) will replace the regulatory bodies like the University Grants Commission (UGC), the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), the Bar Council, and will function as the single overarching body for higher education.

With a view to accelerate technological development, involving AI (artificial intelligence), an autonomous body, the National Educational Technology Forum (NETF), will be created to facilitate the use of technology to enhance learning,

assessment and professional development. Teachers will undergo rigorous training in learner-centric pedagogy, blended models of learning and online teaching platforms, such as Swayam/Diksha. A digital infrastructure and repository of content including creation of coursework, disseminating e-content to students, augmented reality and virtual reality will also be developed.²¹

In order to reach the expenditure on education to six percent of the GDP, the NEP proposes to bring the Centre and the States together to increase the public investment in the Education sector. An interesting aspect in the funding of higher education is that any public institution can take initiatives towards raising private philanthropic funds. However, there will be common national guidelines for all legislative Acts pertaining to private Higher Education Institutions (HEI's).

CHALLENGES

No doubt the National Education Policy, NEP 2020 has worthwhile components, but there are challenges too, in the implementation of this policy. First of them is political challenges, viz. change of political regime at Centre and in those states which are ruled by opposition parties may change or hamper its objectives. Secondly, it will be uphill task to build a research cultures in HEIs with the existing educational capabilities, evident from the fact that the research and innovation investment in India is only 0.69% of GDP as compared to 2.8% in the United States of America, 4.3% in Israel and 4.2% in South Korea²² (National Education Policy 2020, MHRD, Government of India). Thirdly, it will be difficult to accelerate the development of technology due to the problem of the digital-divide which becomes even starker when seen from the lens of gender, class, caste, the urban-rural and the regional factor. The reach of digital technology has also not been uniform across India. For example, in states like Delhi, Kerala, Himachal Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab and Uttarakhand, about 40% households have access to internet. The proportion is less than 20% for Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal.²³ According to the 2017-18 National Sample Survey Report on Education, only 15% of rural households have access to internet services, whereas urban for households, the proportion is 42%.²⁴ Besides the gender divide in internet usage is also evident. As per the Internet and Mobile Association of India report, in 2019, while 67% men had access to internet, this figure was only at 33% for women.²⁵ Further, it seems very difficult to raise education spending up to 6 per cent of GDP as is evident from the budget provisions in yesteryears. (Economic Survey 2017-18).²⁶ Realizing this commitment is no doubt important, but how the additional funds are to be arranged and what is the time window for doing so, is the main challenge that faces us.

Fifthly, the goal of eliminating the commercialization in education will also be difficult without promoting privatization of education by resorting to “public

philanthropic partnerships". There is a possibility that a major sum of budgetary allocation may be diverted to private universities via the loan route. The proposal is to set up HEI's in every district is a noble one, but at this juncture there are too many loose ends.

Sixthly, significant additional central investments are particularly needed for some of India's states, which are not so financially sound and do have a significant number of marginalized communities. This has been estimated by the National Institute of Public Finance and Policy (NIPFP) to be around 10% GSDP for Bihar, 3.2% in Jharkhand and 3% in Odisha, 1.9% in Chhattisgarh and 1.8% in Uttar Pradesh.²⁷

Finally, the proposal to invite the top hundred foreign universities to set up learning institutions in India will be a difficult task. In all probability, it would be the private, not the prestigious public Ivy League universities which would comply. Moreover, to expect the *universities* to function within our social framework, accreditation standards, the extensive framework of rules and regulations, and a stipulated fee structure is a little too presumptuous. International universities are governed by their own accreditation standards and norms. The presence of foreign universities may not augur well for the already functioning universities in the country, as they would face fierce competition in terms of quality, further encouraging a pro-elitist bias.

As far as the fulfilling the goals of equity and inclusion are concerned, the NEP 2020, does not clearly spell out a coherent policy of *affirmative action for the most deprived, socially and economically* sections of the society. If colleges are granted autonomy, they would obviously garner funds by charging higher fees and start courses in the self-financing mode, making them the forte of the upper classes alone. Sometimes, overwhelming autonomy can backfire and further deepen the fault lines.

The NEP 2020 lays ample stress on vocational training, but this is more like a double edged sword. The policy of tempting students into career-oriented courses and vocational training even before they have had a minimum number of years of general education is indeed worrisome. It offers them neither a proper education so that they can become neither conscious citizens nor a proper job.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Keeping in mind the magnitude of the NEP 2020 and its multi-dimensional goals, a time frame of twenty years has been fixed by the government to implement the policy. As this is a fairly long time, it would be worthwhile for the government to undertake a few measures in the sphere of higher education as mentioned below:

- ❖ It is imperative to implement the policy initiatives in a phased manner with clear cut prioritization so that the most important tasks can be fulfilled first.
- ❖ Since the issue of accountability is a perennial one, there have to be measurable commitments *linked with accountability vis-a-vis funding and expenditure*. In order to ensure the quality of education, a balance is required between the autonomy and accountability of the higher educational institutions.
- ❖ It is evident from the fact that initially the aim was to expand education through building more institutions. In the nineties, during the Mandal phase, the equity discourse was the dominant argument and in the post liberalism phase, there is a significant shift towards excellence. It is important to strike a balance between expansion, equity and excellence.
- ❖ Since education is a concurrent subject, a *collaborative strategy and joint monitoring between the center and states has to be devised at every step*. Irrespective of the parties in power, the center and the states will have to cooperate to increase the public investment in Education sector to reach the target of six percent of GDP at the earliest.
- ❖ *In the contemporary times, the NEP 2020 has to match up with the dynamic shifts in the job market*. Along with, coding, computation skills and the use of technology for online teaching and assessments, education has to be in tune with emerging technological fields like Artificial Intelligence (AI), ethical hacking, cyber security etc. Besides, there has to be unanimity to what extent privatization of education should be allowed.
- ❖ To overcome the digital divide, a robust digital infrastructure has to be devised that can serve the purpose in far flung areas.
- ❖ The key concerns of providing equal access to education, at a higher level have to be given serious consideration and reworked. The obvious solution, of having publicly funded institutions with government scholarships, is important to fulfill this goal. Efforts should be made to incentivize the merit of students belonging to SC, ST, OBC, and other deprived segments.
- ❖ For internationalization of education changes would be required in the educational set-up of the country as well as the policies of the government to accommodate them, not to forget a shift in the mind-set of the people. A workable step can be the setting up of Inter-University Centers within Indian Universities, where students can undertake lessons as well as joint research programs with international and Indian scholars. This can also be supplemented by the exchange of faculty and students between Indian and foreign universities.

CONCLUSION

The policy document has been a result of intense deliberation, dialogue and debate with more than seven lakh suggestions accompanying it. However, there are questions that are still there in the public domain. Some of them are, the extent to which privatization of higher education is justified, major challenges and opportunities in enabling industry-academia collaboration for innovation and the role of higher education leadership and governance in ensuring quality and excellence in research and teaching. In summary, the National Education Policy 2020 is in many ways, just what India needs. However, the caveat is to tide over the challenges in a sustained manner, in the years to come. Optimism has to be combined with caution. One size fit all, can never be the norm. Collaboration between the stakeholders at every stage has to be forthcoming. It would not be fair to pass a final word on NEP 2020, as it is a work in progress. There are barriers to the NEP 2020 and likewise, there are drivers too, which hopefully will see it come through.

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THE RESEARCH OUTPUT OF STATE PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES OF BIHAR: A BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

This study highlights the nature of research output of 10 Bihar's state public universities during 2010 to 2019 indexed in Web of Science (WOS) database through bibliometric analysis of 769 publications. The present study finds that Bihar Agriculture University is the most productive state public university with 33.94 per cent of the total publications and Patna University got the highest h-index and citation of total publications. The growth rate of publications has been marked steadily increasing of which the year 2018 is the highest productive year. Agriculture is the most preferred subject area holding 18.19 per cent of total publications. The most selected source title for publications is Mapping Bihar from medieval to modern with 2.92 percent. Of the total publications, articles are the most preferred type of document with 71.05 percent of total publications. Interestingly, the research paper of Usman et al. (2017) entitled "Current Trend in the Application of Nanoparticles for Waste Water Treatment and Purification: A Review" published in Current Organic Synthesis is the highest cited paper.

Keywords: Bibliometric, State University, Citation-index, h-index, research-output, Bihar

INTRODUCTION

India has the most significant number of educational institutions in the world which can be categorized fivefold - Central Universities, State Public Universities, Deemed Universities, State Private Universities and Centrally Funded Technical Institutions

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(CFTIs). These institutions have the most significant responsibility to impart the best education and skills among the students. The nature or specialisation of these educational institutions differs from each other. State Public Universities are mainly funded by state governments and other agencies like UGC, ICSSR, CSIR etc. as their revenue in shape of fees etc. is meager. They have assets created by respective state governments and such agencies. So far the state public universities of Bihar, there are three categories of colleges affiliated to these universities – namely, Constituent Colleges, Affiliated Colleges and Affiliated Colleges with deficit grants. Constituent colleges are governed and financially supported by their respective universities whereas the rest two categories are governed by the universities in terms of academic activities like admission, syllabus, examination and evaluation of answer books but not in terms of any financial support.

OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

This present study focuses on the 19 Bihar state public universities. The educational, particularly research performance of these universities has been assessed on the basis of research publications in standard journals and books by using Bibliometric method with a view to provide a better understanding of academic research performance carried out during the decade of 2010-19. In the process the following points of enquiry were kept in mind : Annual contribution of research publications, identification of the most productive source title, productivity of state public universities, comparison of the growth rate with research publication, identification of the subject areas that have higher research productivity and most cited papers.

Though there are 19 state public universities in Bihar, the study is limited to the ten universities. The other nine universities were excluded as they have very few publications and are not available in WOS through affiliation search. The year-wise data have been collected from the Web of Science; the period of data collection is of the past decade from 2010 to 2019, obtained a total of 769 records, in which the number of unique records was 753. The data has been collected by creating the query (the combination of affiliations of universities) of the universities using various forms, old names, department names, university address, pin code, etc. with the help of Boolean operators for useful and perfect data collection. Furthermore, the analysis was done by using Google Sheet in selected areas.

BRIEF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Satpathy and Sa (2015), in their study on bibliometric analysis of research outputs of state government universities of Odisha from 2010 to 2014 analyzed 490 research

publications indexed in SCOPUS database. A bibliometric analysis found the growth rate of research publications -105.63%, which shows a negative trend and 0.97 degree of collaboration by the authors. Marisha et al. (2017) have examined the research publication productivity, productivity per capita, productivity per crore rupees grant, rate of growth of research output, authorship and collaboration pattern, citation impact and discipline-wise research strength of the 39 central universities in India indexed in the Web of Science database for 25 years (1990-2014). The study found that the University of Delhi and Banaras Hindu University perform better than among the 39 central universities. Furthermore, research publication output of the central universities is measured and examined with two top-ranking world universities, University of Cambridge and Stanford University.

Mathew et al. (2018), the study covered 40 universities in Tamil Nadu for analysis of the research publication indexed in SCOPUS database. The study found that Anna University, Vellore Institute of Technology (VIT) and the University of Madras are the top 3 universities in the state. This study reveals that pure science, engineering and pharmacology are the most focused disciplines in the state, and it has examined and compares Indian ranking (NIRF) with other global rankings. Nair and Yasmin (2019) analyzed 20 central and 237 state universities articles citations indexed in SCOPUS database during 2017-2019. Out of 247, it has taken top 10 central and state universities. Delhi university got the highest 14962 citations with an average citation per year of 7481. Furthermore, Punjab University acquired 7671 with an average citation per year 3835.50.

SCOPE AND LIMITATION

The scope of this study analyzes the research publication output of 10 state public universities of Bihar, which has been indexed in the Web of Science database from 2010 to 2019. This study considered ten universities that got top research publications during the past decade. The publication data under our selected standard are minimal, so, this study includes the data of the constituent colleges of the selected universities.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data retrieved during the writing of the present paper from the Web of Science database for the selected ten state public universities in Bihar and their publications year wise from 2010 to 2019. The increasing trend of publications was found during the study period. It is observed that out of a total of 769 publications published during the period of study, the highest 179 (23.28%) numbers of publications were published in 2018. In 2019 the total publication 147 (19.12%) followed by 90 (11.70%), 114 (14.82%), 63 (8.19%) number of publications in the year 2017, 2016

and 2015. 33 (4.29%) publications published in 2010, which is lowest during the period of research. This is evident from the charts below.

Year Wise Publications

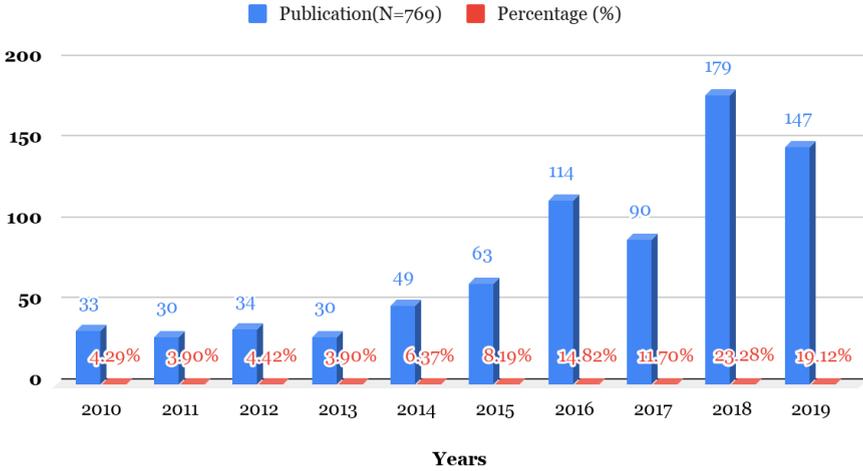


Chart 01: Year-wise publication with the percentage from 2010 to 2019

Total and average growth in percentage

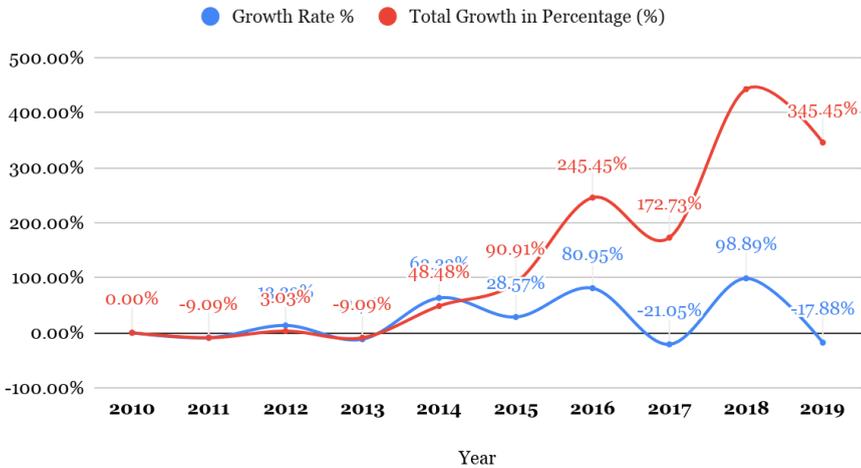


Chart 02: Total and average growth in percentage

TYPES OF PUBLICATIONS

It may be observed that the total growth in publication percentage increased steadily during the study period. It was found in 2018 is the highest 442.42% in respect of total growth as compared to 2010 publications. It is also noticed that the total growth of publication -9.09% is negative during the years 2011 and 2013. Moreover, the average growth rate of publications in 2018 is highest at 98.89%—similarly -17.88% negative during 2019. Further, the average growth is quite good, except for the years 2011, 2013, and 2017.

Document Type

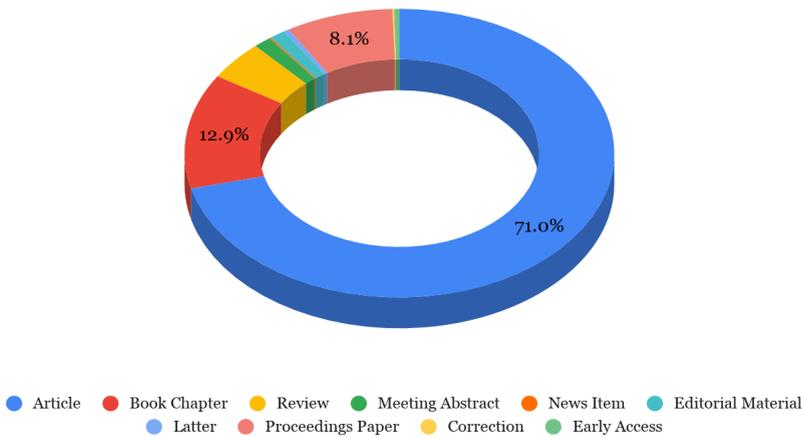


Chart 03: Publication type from 2010 to 2019

Chart 03 shows the preferred type of publications by research communities of ten state public universities of Bihar during the study. It is found that out of total 753 number of publications, the article is the most preferred type with 535 (71.05%) number of publications, followed by Book Chapter with 97 (12.88%); Proceedings Paper with 61 (8.10%) and Review with 33 (4.38%); Meeting Abstract with 10 (1.33%), Early Access and Letter with 3 (0.40%) publications respectively. The least preferred type of publication in this study is Correction and News Item with 1 (0.13%) publication each.

AREAS OF THE RESEARCHES

The following chart reveals the picture

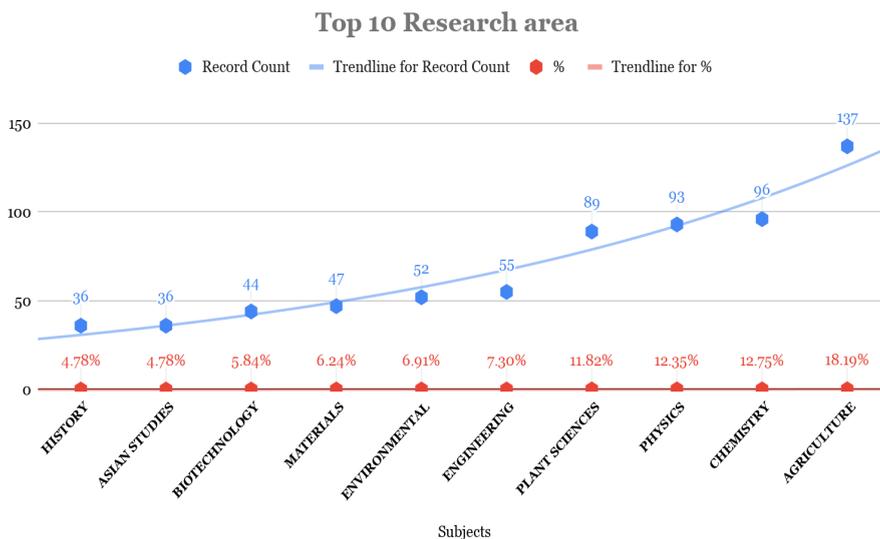


Chart 04: Top 10 research area from 2010 to 2019

As depicted in chart 04, the top ten subject wise publications by the selected ten-state public universities of Bihar. Agriculture is the top subject with 137 (18.19%) numbers of publications; followed by Chemistry with 96 (12.75%); Physics with 93 (12.35%); Plant Science with 89 (11.82%); Engineering with 55 (7.30%) numbers of publications respectively. History is securing the tenth position during the period under study.

PRODUCTIVE JOURNALS FOR THE UNIVERSITIES OF BIHAR

Table 01 shows the top ten productive journals or sources by ten state public universities of Bihar from 2010 to 2019. Mapping Bihar from medieval to modern times got the first position with 22 (2.92%). Similarly, AIP conference proceedings got the second position with 21 (2.79%). It is followed by Asian Journal of Chemistry with 16 (2.13%), Indian journal of Agricultural Sciences with 16 (2.13%), Jains in India historical essays with 14 (1.86). The other journals where researchers have published their research output are listed in Table-01.

Table 01: Top 10 source titles from 2010 to 2019

<i>Source Titles</i>	<i>Count (s)</i>	<i>Percentage %</i>
MAPPING BIHAR FROM MEDIEVAL TO MODERN TIMES	22	2.92%
AIP CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS	21	2.79%
ASIAN JOURNAL OF CHEMISTRY	16	2.13%
INDIAN JOURNAL OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES	16	2.13%
JAINS IN INDIA HISTORICAL ESSAYS	14	1.86%
JOURNAL OF THE INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY	13	1.73%
CROP DISEASES AND THEIR MANAGEMENT INTEGRATED APPROACHES	12	1.59%
JOURNAL OF AGROMETEOROLOGY	11	1.46%
PLANT BIOTECHNOLOGY VOL 1 PRINCIPLES TECHNIQUES AND APPLICATIONS	11	1.46%
ACTA HORTICULTURAE	9	1.20%

Table No 02 shows the research productivity of the ten public state universities in Bihar under this research. The total research publications come from 769 from 2010 to 19. It is found Bihar Agriculture University is in top position contributing the highest 261 numbers of publications with 33.94% out of the total of 769 publications. It is followed by Patna University with 214 (27.83%), Magadh University with 84 (10.92%), Aryabhatta Knowledge University with 47 (6.11%), Veer Kunwar Singh University with 44 (5.72%), Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar Bihar University with 35 (4.55%), T.M. Bhagalpur University with 28 (3.64%), Lalit Narayan Mithila University with 24 (3.12%) and Jai Prakash Vishwavidyalaya with 23 with 2.99% numbers of publications. Patliputra University contributed the lowest number of publications 09, which is only 1.17 % of the total publications.

Table 02: Top 10 Bihar state public universities' publication with percentage

<i>University Name</i>	<i>Publications (2010-19)</i>	<i>Percentage %</i>
Bihar Agriculture University, Sabour	261	33.94%
Patna University, Patna	214	27.83%
Magadh University, Bodh Gaya	84	10.92%
Aryabhatta Knowledge University , Patna	47	6.11%
Veer Kunwar Singh University, Arrah	44	5.72%
Babasaheb Bhimrao Ambedkar Bihar University, Muzaffarpur	35	4.55%
T.M. Bhagalpur University, Bhagalpur	28	3.64%
Lalit Narayan Mithila University, Darbhanga	24	3.12%

University Name	Publications (2010-19)	Percentage %
Jai Prakash Vishwavidyalaya, Chapra	23	2.99%
Patliputra University, Patna	9	1.17%

CITATION SCENARIO

The citation ratio of the publications under review has been taken into consideration by us. The result shows that Agriculture University and Patna University performed far far better than that of other universities. The following chart and figures will tell the story.

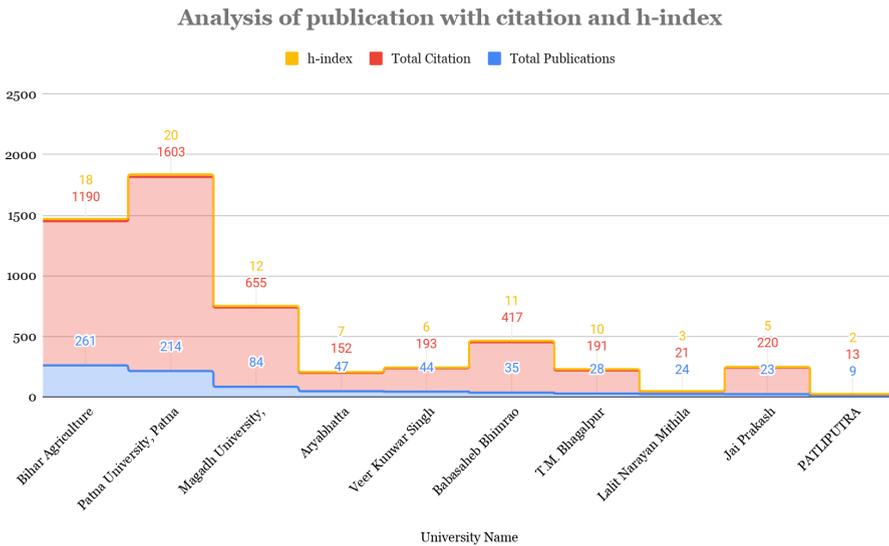


Chart 05: Analysis of publication with citation and h-index

The productivity and impact of the publications are measured by h-index and citation. As shown in chart No 05, Bihar Agriculture University got the highest publication (261), but Patna University got the highest h-index (20) and citation (1603). Similarly, Bihar Agriculture University secured the second position with h-index (18) and citation (1190). Patliputra University got the lowest number of h-index (2) and citation (13).

Table 03: Top ten cited papers from 2010 to 2019

<i>Publication Year</i>	<i>Article Title</i>	<i>Authors</i>	<i>Cited Reference Count</i>	<i>Research Areas</i>
2017	Current Trend in the Application of Nanoparticles for Waste Water Treatment and Purification: A Review	Usman et al.	275	Chemistry
2017	Current Status of Conventional and Molecular Interventions for Blast Resistance in Rice	Srivastava et al.	253	Agriculture; Plant Sciences
2019	Inside and Beyond Color: Comparative Overview of Functional Quality of Tomato and Watermelon Fruits	Ilahy et al.	231	Plant Sciences
2019	Role of Circadian Rhythm in Plant System: an Update from Development to Stress Response	Srivastava et al.	226	Plant Sciences; Environmental Sciences & Ecology
2017	Assessing Fungal Biodiversity Using Molecular Markers	Shamim et al.	217	Mycology
2018	Microbial Biotechnology: Role of Microbes in Sustainable Agriculture	Kumar et al.	213	Biotechnology & Applied Microbiology; Plant Sciences
2016	Recent Advances in Iron Complexes as Potential Anticancer Agents	Wani et al.	198	Chemistry
2018	Preharvest Biofortification of Horticultural Crops	Das et al.	185	Agriculture
2016	Understanding Mechanism of Fungus Mediated Nanosynthesis: A Molecular Approach	Jha, Anal K. and Prasad, Kamal	183	Microbiology; Mycology
2018	Biotechnological Approaches for Plant Disease Diagnosis and Management	Kumar et al.	163	Biotechnology & Applied Microbiology; Plant Sciences

Table 03 listed the top 10 cited research publications. The paper titled “ Current Trend in the Application of Nanoparticles for Waste Water Treatment and Purification: A Review” published in Current Organic Synthesis is the highest cited paper that has been cited 275 times. The remaining nine highest cited research publications are listed in Table-03.

FINDING OF THE STUDY

- 2018 is the most productive year, with 23.28% of the research publication. The study observed that the total growth in publication percentage increased steadily during the past decade in Bihar public state universities. Especially after 2014, the growth of publication has quite well as compared with the previous year.
- It is found that the Agriculture subject area got the highest position with 18.19% of total publications followed by Chemistry and Physics have secured second and third position during the past decade in Bihar public state universities.
- The article is the highest selected document type with 71.05%. Similarly, the book chapter is securing the second-highest document type with 12.88% during the past decade from 2010 to 2019.
- It is found that Mapping Bihar from medieval to modern times is the highest position as a source title with 2.92%. Similarly, Aip Conference Proceedings and Asian Journal of Chemistry got second and third positions.
- Bihar Agriculture University the most productive university among the ten-state public universities of the research with 261 (33.94%) numbers of publications.
- Patna University got the highest h-index and citation as compared with Bihar Agriculture University, which is top of publication.
- The paper titled “Current Trend in the Application of Nanoparticles for Waste Water Treatment and Purification: A Review” by Usman et al. published in Current Organic Synthesis is the highest cited paper which has been cited 275 times. The research area of this paper is chemistry, and it was published in 2017.

CONCLUSION

This study observes that the publication of state public university of Bihar has to increase after 2014 as compared with the previous years. However, the present study highlights a discouraging panorama of the research outputs of the nine old state public government universities of Bihar with very few numbers of research publications which are indexed in the web of science.

Therefore the state government and university’ executives need to take utmost care in this regard and design programmes and schemes to promote research environment in these public state universities so that more faculty members are enthused to take interest in research. Furthermore, to create an extra budget for higher education infrastructure and the central government give special financial aids for universities to develop better infrastructure; labs and libraries. Similarly, make a proper guideline for universities faculty and research scholars for quality

research publications, not only to full-fill the promotion criteria but also to serve the society and nation.

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GLOBAL ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS: AN INEXPLICABLE MYSTERY

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Abstract

Global environment day by day is becoming more and more vulnerable to adverse consequences of economic activities. Rapid surge in economic activities post industrial revolution have altered the delicate balance of nature. However, when the saturation level is reached, nature retaliates causing environmental apprehensions. The following study examines some of the major global environmental issues which have emerged as a result of excessive unrestricted exploitation of the natural resources and hence, needs instantaneous remedy. The paper considers rapid population growth as a major challenge towards environmental sustainability and calls for the use of renewable sources of energy for the purpose of economic activities.

Keywords: Climate Change, Pollution, Economic Activities, Environmental Sustainability, Population

INTRODUCTION

The central topic of discussion in most of the global discussion platforms nowadays is the growing concern to control the environmental issues emerging from rapidly increasing economic activities leading to environmental deterioration of various types. Although the main offenders for pollution are the developed economies however, the adverse effects associated with these revenues earning economic activities have been felt in every corner of the world.

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However, the main environmental concern these days is the Climate Change which has started is noticeable in the form of number of abnormal weather events throughout the world as a result of global surge in temperature. In addition to this there are several other environmental concerns which have emerged and calls for immediate action in order to reduce their intensity. However, despite several efforts by the concern agencies like Inter-Governmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), United Nations Framework Convention on Climate, etc, the remedy seems muddled and bemused; in a sense because the only remedy for environmental issues is to make selection from the environment-economy trade-off. In other words, lower economic activities cause cleaner environment and vice-versa. And the lure to earn high Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by the countries have largely kept them more inclined towards high revenue related economic activities and therefore, environmental issues will always be an unsolved mystery on our planet earth.

CLIMATE CHANGE

Climate change refers to long-term statistical shifts of the weather, including changes in the average weather condition or in the distribution of weather conditions around the average (i.e. extreme weather events). Despite many discussions on the causes for climate change, there is a general recognition of an on-going global climate change and the non-minor role of human activities during this process (IPCC, 2007). According to the European Environment Agency (EEA, 2008), the global average surface temperature has increased by 0.74°C in the 20th century, the global sea level has been rising 1.8 mm per year since 1961, and the Arctic sea ice has been shrinking by 2.7% per decade. Moreover, mountain glaciers are contracting, ocean water are becoming more acidic, and extreme weather events occur more often. The IPCC predicted an average temperature rise of 1.5–5.8°C across the globe during the 21st century, accompanied by increased extreme and anomalous weather events including heat-waves, floods and droughts (IPCC, 2001). Responding to global changes by pursuing a sustainable development is a major challenge to human society (Wu, et al 2016; Yang et al., 2013). Despite uncertainties in climate variability, the IPCC Fifth Assessment Report identified the “likely range” of increase in global average surface temperature by 2100, which is between 0.3 °C and 4.8 °C (IPCC, 2013,). Human population is expected to increase from 7.2 to 9.6 billion by 2050 and 11.2 billion in 2100 (UN, 2017). This represents a population increase of 33% (Downing et al 2017) which will indirectly intensify the process of greenhouse effect and hence global warming.

Since, before the Industrial Revolution, exponential economic growth has supported rising standards of living around the world. Ever increasing use of natural resources, notably energy from fossil fuels, has been key to the process. Climate

change is a civilization-threatening consequence. Increasing temperature and more frequent natural disasters will impact the economy in many ways, inflicting damage on output and assets (Rezai, etal, 2018). Therefore, climate change is no more a distant problem. We have been experiencing changes in climatic variables, such as rising temperature, variable rainfall, frequent droughts, hurricane and typhoons (Lobell et al., 2012; Auffhammer et al., 2011), and have almost failed to reach a global consensus on the mitigation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Sharma, 2015, Tripathi, 2017).

The evidence of climate change is unequivocal and the consequences are increasingly being felt in Europe and worldwide. In particular, the mean global temperature, currently around 0.8°C above the pre-industrial level, continues to rise, even more evidently in Europe (e.g. European Environment Agency, 2012). Climate change affects all regions of the world by alteration of natural processes, modification of precipitation patterns, melting of glaciers, rise of sea levels, etc. Whatever the warming scenarios and the level of success of mitigation policies, in the coming decades the impact of climate change needs to be considered, taking into account the consequences (Croce, et al, 2018). At the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, more than 150 countries made a commitment to action to avert dangerous man-made effects on the global climate, by signing the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. Further negotiations led to Kyoto Protocol, agreed in 1997, under which a number of industrial countries took a binding commitment to reduce their emissions of a basket of the principal greenhouse gases (Smith, 2011). Climate change is truly a global problem which has occupied the attention of international policy planners for the past many years. Our climate is dependent on various factors such as temperature, winds and rain, location on the globe and the rotational and revolutionary movements of the earth. This we share with all of mankind, more, with all living beings. Human industrial activity mainly the combustion of fossil fuels has resulted in large scale production of certain gases such as carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide and oxides of nitrogen that have heat trapping properties. These form a shield in the upper atmosphere. Now earth receives heat from the sun, absorbs part of it and reflects a part back to space. These gases effectively reduce the amount that would normally be reflected back. This is called the Greenhouse Effect. As a result, there is an increase in the average global temperature. It is estimated that the global temperature has risen about 1.5 degrees Celsius in the last two hundred years (Bhattacharya, 2016).

The most significant greenhouse gas, in quantitative terms, is carbon dioxide, which contributes about two-thirds of the total global warming impact of greenhouse gas emissions. Human activity leads to carbon-dioxide emissions principally through the combustion of fossil fuels-the use of coal, oil and gas in industrial processes to generate electricity, as motor fuels, and for domestic heating. In addition to carbon dioxide, the other significant greenhouse gases include methane,

nitrous oxide and Chlorofluorocarbons (CFC's). Each tonne of methane emission has an impact on global warming equivalent to 23 tonnes of carbon dioxide, while some CFC's have a global warming potential equivalent to a thousand tonnes or more of carbon dioxides. Levels of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases in the atmosphere have been rising steadily ever since the Industrial Revolution. In 1850, the atmosphere contained some 290 parts per million by volume (ppmv) of greenhouse gases, and this has now risen to 430 ppmv, and is increasing at some 2.3 ppmv annually. Over the course of the 20th century, the Earth warmed by about 0.7 degrees Celcius (Smith, 2011).

One of the sturdiest regularities in comparative economic development involves the location of a country vis-à-vis the equator and its level of prosperity. As one moves away from the equator in either direction, the level of income per capita goes up. While the link is well known, it is not well understood (Andersen et al, 2016). However, there is no denying of the fact that higher the GDP an economy generates, greater is its contribution to environmental degradation which ultimately leads to greenhouse effects. This means that the countries situated away from the equator are the main culprits for the present-day climate change whose impact is felt on all the countries in the world and the key victims remains the developing, struggling economies in the world with lack of required adaptation and mitigation measures available in these countries.

SOME OTHER MAJOR GLOBAL ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS

Apart from climate change there are several other universal environmental issues which need to be addressed before it detonates the environment. The perilous environment-economy nexus is now threatening the existence of life on earth. There are several environmental concerns which has besieged the world and their solution remains a mystery. Some of the major global environmental concerns are: a) Degradation of Amazon forest: Tropical forests are the most bio diverse environments on the planet, and their disappearance brings a mass extinction of species, which deprives future generations of the value associated with this genetic diversity (Burgess et al, 2012). Amazon forest is also popularly known as 'Lungs of the earth'. The existence of life on earth is to a large extent dependent on the existence of Amazon rainforest. However, even after realising the adverse impacts of economic activities on Amazon forest, the commercial usage of the Amazon forest is taking place at a rapid rate. b) Ozone depletion: A thick layer of ozone, basically a naturally present gas in stratospheric region of the atmosphere is popularly known as the ozone layer. This layer may extend over the entire globe with some change in altitude and thickness. The ozone is rapidly decreasing due to the compounds formed by chlorine, fluorine and carbons called CFCs being used

in refrigeration, air conditioning and plastic foam manufacturing. This decrement in ozone layer was further responsible for the increased ultra violet (UV) radiation level on the Earth surface and posing serious threat to the human health, animals and aquatic ecosystems (Jankowski and Cader, 1997; Häder et al., 2011) c) Pacific gyre: The North Pacific spans several oceanographic regions formed by a basin-wide circulation system primarily driven by the wind. Complex ocean-atmosphere interactions in the North Pacific result in changes in the physical and biological properties of this ocean on seasonal to decadal time scales. Pacific gyre is a cluster of garbage which is dumped in the ocean mainly by Japan, South Asia, Eastern African region but through ocean currents they have reached and accumulated in the North Pacific Ocean, thereby, adding up to the continuously expanding marine garbage in the Pacific Ocean. This is a matter of grave concern since it is slowly turning into a massive marine pollution which if remained untreated will turn into an irreparable marine crisis. d) Land, Air and Water Pollution: There are several reasons associated with the degradation of land. Among many factors, deforestation has a major role to play in intensifying land degradation process which is sometime further intensified by soil erosion. Further due to increasing needs of the society dumping of municipal solid waste emerges yet another important concern in this regard. Landfills are growing in size as well as in numbers, besides other implications. Some of the key concerns associated with land pollution are: Deforestation, Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) and Agriculture. Particularly with growing industrial set-ups accompanied by increasing fossil fuels combustion, the problem of air pollution is intensifying since the lure to earn money is weighing more than the clean environment. Most of the developed cities in India as well as in other parts of the world are countering the problems associated with air quality. Several factors account for formulation and evolution of air pollution; the most important are climatic conditions, characterized by precipitation and temperature. For example, water-soluble species of pollution sources are easily dissolved in water, which significantly reduces their concentration in rainfall conditions. Moreover, precipitation strongly enhances wet deposition, which helps to clear the sources of air pollution(Allen et al., 2016). Water pollution is another significant concern which calls for a collective effort. Anthropogenic disturbance, such as release of chemical pollutants, has influenced freshwater ecosystems globally by causing habitat degradation and biodiversity loss, and further greatly compromised the functioning and service of aquatic ecosystems. It is well-known that running water ecosystems such as streams and rivers harbor an extremely high level of biodiversity (Vörösmarty et al, 2010). Unfortunately, rivers and streams are among the most vulnerable habitats as they extensively receive anthropogenic disturbance, such as industrial and domestic sewage and run-offs from farmlands in their vast basins (Xiong et al, 2019). Most of the rich cities in the world are running short of required water supply. Long term excessive use of this natural resource has ultimately led

the future generations to strive for water resource, a free gift by nature.) Besides this, some other important concerns are- Flash floods, Rising sea level, Wildfires / Forest fires and Extreme weather events.

POPULATION AS A MAJOR CHALLENGE

The ever-growing population plays an important role in degrading environment. The frequency of this degradation is highest in the tropical regions of the world. The direct impact of population increase is on both man-made and natural resources. Among these the natural resources are the worst affected one. Population increase followed by urbanisation is the worst thing that can happen for non-renewable natural resource on earth. However, there is another side of this population growth i.e its relation with economic growth. The growing population can be an asset for an economy if this population is converted into human capital. In other words, no matter how gigantic is the population of a country, if the per capita productivity of the population is enhanced, this population will help in enhancing the national income of the country.

Environmental pollution is one of the serious problems in most of the mega cities of the world, especially in developing countries, which not only experiences a rapid growth of population due to increasing rate of rural urban migration but also industrialization which is accompanied by air, water and vehicular pollution. Exposure to environmental pollution is now almost an inescapable part of urban life of the world. The phenomenal increase in the population during the last 50 years has led to rapid industrialization and high rate of urbanization, which has created a great deal of pressure on its natural resources. The increase of population has been tending towards alarming situation. If the world population continues to multiply, the impact on environment could be devastating. Though the relationship is complex, population size and growth tend to expand and accelerate these human impacts on the environment. All these in turn lead to an increase in the environmental pollution level (Nagdeve, 2016). Some “environmental Kuznets curve” (EKC) studies undertaken by economists have included population density as one of the many determinants of pollution concentrations, but have tended to find mixed results (see for example, Grossman & Krueger, 1995; Hilton & Levinson 1998; Panayotou, 1997). None of these studies have investigated the population–pollution relationship further, or examined the wider impact of population levels (as opposed to spatial density) or other demographic factors on pollution (Cole and Neumayer, 2004).

CONCLUSION

Climate change remains a key global concern which calls for investment in mitigation and adaptation strategies. The term 'climate change' is becoming increasingly politicized and is frequently a topic of debate among world leaders. In the context of the growing climate change discourse, the 'climate change disaster' could potentially create an opportunity for the securitization of climate change. When a specific issue is securitized, it is "presented as an existential threat, requiring emergency measures and justifying actions outside the normal bounds of political procedure" (Buzan et al., 1998; Waeber, 2011). However, there is also the potential to frame a specific disaster as a 'climate change disaster' in order to justify inaction; for example, a disaster that was caused by lack of management or poor governance could potentially be framed as being caused by climate change in order to deflect responsibility and accountability (Grant et al, 2015).

The large-scale presence of biodiversity is considered essential for the existence of life on the planet earth. For example: It helps in the appropriate functioning of the food chain besides other essential functions. Ecological balance is the most important benefit linked with richness of biodiversity. This biodiversity is under threat due to the rapidly growing economic activities. These economic activities have a ruthless attack on the automatic cleansing property of the environment. Surprisingly this biodiversity is mostly found in the regions surrounding equators which are also one of the most populated regions in the world. The degradation of Amazon forests is a perfect example of what the harsh world is doing with our nature just to earn incomes.

The mitigation to climate change lies in preserving the biodiversity. The presence of variety of flora and fauna makes environment healthier and immune to natural and man-made environmental changes. However, in recent decades many species in the world have reportedly disappeared due to change in the environmental composition that made their existence tricky. Biodiversity undisputedly plays an important role in the effective working of ecosystem.

To find the solution of this problem is not an easy task. It's perhaps beyond imagination to cure each and every issue related with global warming nowadays. In order to increase the life of our planet we need to promote the use of renewable sources of energy. The use and widespread application of green technology in production process will go a long way in protecting our environment. The developing countries should get assistance from the developed countries as well as from the international lending agencies in this regard.

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CIVIL SOCIETY IN BANGLADESH

Veena Kukreja*

Abstract

Civil Society as a political force occupies prominence in democracy and political discourse, and is seen as a political buffer state. It provides the space for articulating and aggregating public interests, forming public opinion, developing agenda outside the state and market and creates means to influence these. In other words, it facilitates the consolidation of democracy. On the contrary, it has been found that despite vibrant civil society in Bangladesh, it has failed to nurture democracy and promote culture of democracy there. As such, the present paper intends to underline the nature of civil society in Bangladesh and the factors responsible for inhibiting the civil society in nurturing democracy in the country. The present attempt finds that it is the complexities associated with civil society that inhibit it to nurture democracy in the country. Party politics has impinged on the functioning of civil society in terms of prevailing polarization, clientelism has seized the autonomy and its vigilant role in the national policies and decision making. Therefore, the civil society remains fragmented on party lines. However, civil society in Bangladesh has made success in terms of economic empowerment, viz. in poverty alleviation and social development.

Keywords: Vibrant Civil Society, Watchdog, Broker, Polarisation, Partisan, Clientelism

Civil society is central to nurturing/promotion and maintenance of liberal democracy. Democracy is unlikely to take roots without the presence of a vibrant and vigilant civil society (Sardamov 2005: 380, Alaggapa 2004). Civil society is considered as an 'honest broker of the peoples' interests' (Kamat 2004: 158). A

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vigilant civil society supports and strengthens democracy and better governance in various ways; through articulation of interests, constant monitoring and evaluation of the state apparatus and market, increasing accountability, and widening participation and representation (Blair 2000: 185; Quadir 2015: 2; Christenson 1994: 724; Gellner 1994). Acting in watchdog role civil society promotes rule of law, human rights and representative structures of political governance, relying on the values of socio-cultural pluralism, diversity and freedom of speech and expression.

Bangladesh is known as 'vibrant' and 'bourgeoning' civil society, the home to 261, and 952 civil society organizations (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics 2009). An overview of civil society suggests that non-state actors were significant to processes of state formation pre-colonial and colonial periods of East Bengal. Various form of voluntary actions have long been a documented aspect in East Bengal, intertwined with tradition of religious charity, philanthropy and self-help (Lewis 2011: 111).

During the Pakistani rule (1947-1971), civil society leaders of erstwhile East Pakistan (present Bangladesh) launched numerous protest and resistance movements against Pakistan rulers who imposed cultural, economic, and political domination upon Bengalis. There was always a coalition between the civil society and politicians, for example the language movement of 1952, six point movement for autonomy in 1966 and finally the liberation movement of 1971 (Jahan 1972: 44, 87-89).

However, after liberation, under Mujib rule, many of these civil society organizations became absorbed into the state apparatus. Mujib utilized the AL organization to 'establish state control over society (Jalal 1995: 40, Jahangir 1986: 144). Under the military authoritarianism in the 1980s non-state actors steadily increased in size and scope, especially, development NGO funded by foreign donors various forms of developmentalist ideology (Lewis 2011: 133, Rahman 1999).

During 1987-1990 it was a strong civil society resistance/mass movement which toppled Ershad's authoritarian regime and paved the way for the re-emergence of democracy in Bangladesh. In this context the civil society action can be seen to have made important contribution to the landscape of politics during the post-military period. For example, the innovative arrangement of NCG is a product of engagements between citizen groups and state during the mass movement against Ershad (Siddiqui 2001: 821).

After the restoration of democracy in Bangladesh, despite its greater prevalence, civil society failed to nurture democracy. It reveals the complexities that associated with civil society role in fostering a culture of democracy or promoting democracy. In case of Bangladesh, transition to democracy through civil society was a 'straight forward process.' Civil society alone is not enough to strengthen democracy, but politics has a considerable effect on civil society itself. The state and civil society requires cooperative and complementary relationship for promotion of democracy

(Haq 1975: 86-87, Khan and Kabir 2002: 17). In this context Ahmed argues that 'liberal neo-Tocqueville theories fail to problematise the relationship between the civil society organization and state in Bangladesh, this relationship is mediated by hyper-partisans, clientelistic political parties' (Ahmed 2015: 75). Therefore civil society groups pay more attention to service, delivery than representing popular interests in decision making.

The reason for a less vigilant civil society and its inability to contribute to democracy is over politicization. In Bangladesh the two major political parties namely, the Awami League (AL) and the Bangladesh National Party (BNP), 'gain their actual strength through vertical patronage, corruption and violence' (Tasnim 2015: 69). Bangladesh's troubled landscape exhibit a relatively large number of so-called civil society groups are either the creation of different political parties or the product of an extreme political polarization of the country's politics. As a result civil society remains fragmented along partisan lines. The political parties have also sought to 'regulate the between the state and family in the way that civil society groups get either coopted or completely marginalized' (Quadir 2015: 15).

The confrontational attitude of political parties in political arena 'often penetrates civil society. Such polarization polarizes civil society, seizes its autonomy and restrains its vigilant and participatory role in national policies and decisions (Tasnim 2015: 68). The absence of an autonomous civil society constraint the role of civil society groups in challenging the undemocratic practices of the state and restricts ability of popular organizations to meaningfully explore alternative pragmatic choices based on the priorities and concerns of the people.

In sum, party politics has a domino effect on the performance of civil society. Hyper partisan, clientelism drives civil society groups to depoliticize by engaging service provisions but not advocacy. However, civil society in Bangladesh has already acknowledged success in term of economic empowerment, especially for its efforts in poverty alleviation and social development. This recognition has arisen because of its two reputed successful organization, namely, Grameen Bank and the BRAC empowered women through their microcredit programmes creating space for women outside the traditional sphere and encouraged female welfare and education (Lewis 2011, Tasnim 2015). Thus, state and civil society relationship suggest that Bangladesh is producing development without democracy through their microcredit programmes have helped the rural women and education programme respectively.

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BOOK REVIEW

Sinha, Anand Vardhan, *The Bihar Chronicle (1912-2019)*,
Ganpat Prakashan, Patna, 2019

Anjana Kumari*

There is dearth of literature on Bihar Political System, examining the aspects of political changes and major political events of Bihar, however, a few election analyses appeared from time to time. The record of origin of legislature in state of Bihar has been compiled by the former Speaker of Bihar Vidhan Sabha and thereby providing the account of evolution and changes in nature of Bihar Legislative Assembly since 1912 (Jha, Radhanandan: 1986). V. P. Varma has attempted to record the evolution of Bihar politics from independence to 1985 (JRIPS:1986). A few articles published in Economic and Political Weekly reflect some aspects of Bihar politics like castes and elections (Verma, R. K.: 1991 and Verma and Yadav: 1991), and women in Bihar politics (Verma and Yadav: 1996). Besides, some election studies covering elections of Lok Sabha and Assembly in Bihar have been done; most of them are for the period of 1984 to 1991 (Varma, V P: 1985 and Verma, R. K.: 1991). So far Bihar politics in 21st century is concerned, merely two attempts came into light – firstly, a book on dimensions of state politics appeared in the 2001 (Verma, R. K.: 2001) which touches a few aspects of politics of Bihar like caste-politics, SCs in politics, Women in politics, regional aspects etc. Another study, covering Assembly elections of 2015 provides ample of ground realities of political behavior of the people in Bihar, conducted in collaboration with CSDS, New Delhi and with financial support of UGC (Ranjan, Rakesh: 2017). One can find the examination of Bihar politics in pieces published in journals and newspapers. The students and researchers of Bihar political system require a work comprehensively reflecting the changes taking place from time to time in the evolution of politics in Bihar. Such work can be considered as a ready reckoner for the researchers. The book under review is an attempt in this direction.

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The book under review is simply a compilation of important political events and changes in Bihar since its inception in 1912 but it has been enriched epistemologically by the author who has four decades of experience in Indian Administrative Service in Bihar cadre. This experience helped the author to mark the intricacies of the evolution of Bihar politics. Author has applied historical method to record the evolution.

The book is stretched through hundred pages and divided into three sections namely, political history, administrative history and educational history. Of which major part of the book is devoted to political history followed by administrative history. Educational history is the trivial part of the book. The political part mentions mainly the power transfer from 1912 with creation of province. So far the pre-independence period is concerned, ministries formed by Indian National Congress and important sessions of the party have been recorded and very little space has been devoted to history of freedom struggle including Champaran Satyagrah. However, the history of power transfer in the post-independence period has been marked including that of beginning of coalition politics in the state. It provide accounts of land mark general elections in Bihar. The second section highlights the evolution of public administration in the state. The major administrative steps have been marked. The introduction of 'Corruption Enquiry Committee' and establishment of Patna High Court, in pre-independence period, have been mentioned. The account of post-independence period consists of introduction of panchayati raj system and municipal corporations, reorganization of divisions, districts and lower level administrative functionaries, revision of police manual, establishment of planning board, introduction of Lokayukta, command area development authority and regional development authorities. It also mentions the establishment of Bihar Human Rights Commission. The third section provides an account of evolution of educational institutions, particularly the creations of universities in the state.

There is neither any conclusion nor any theoretical construct in the book. But the author has admitted about it in the preface itself. However, the book is worth preserving and useful as ready reckoner for the students of Bihar politics. The price of the book is so moderate that anybody can afford.

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Hindi Section

हिन्दी प्रभाग



झारखण्ड में लोक अदालत की भूमिका (कोडरमा जिला के सन्दर्भ में एक अध्ययन)

सतीश कुमार वर्मा*

सार संक्षेप

सरल एवं सुलभ न्याय प्रक्रिया भारत जैसे विशाल देश के लिए आज की आवश्यकता है। अत्यधिक कार्यभार तथा अपर्याप्त संख्या में न्यायाधीशों की उपलब्धता की स्थिति में लंबित वादों की संख्या दिन प्रतिदिन बढ़ती जा रही है। आज भी करोड़ों मामले न्यायालयों में लंबित हैं और न्यायाधीशों की संख्या भी कम है। प्रति दस लाख की आवादी पर कुल 17.9 न्यायाधीश ही उपलब्ध हैं।¹ ऐसे में लोक अदालतों की उपयोगिता बढ़ जाती है। यहाँ प्रश्न उठता है कि क्या लोक अदालतों द्वारा प्रदेय न्याय समावेशी, संतोषप्रद, सुलभ एवं सरल हुआ है? इसी प्रश्न के आलोक में प्रस्तुत शोध आलेख यह जानने का प्रयास करता है कि लोक अदालत ने किस प्रकार त्वरित एवं सुलभ न्यायालय दिलाने में अपनी भूमिका निभाई है। प्रस्तुत आलेख इंगित करता है कि जहाँ भारत की न्याय व्यवस्था में न्याय विलंब से मिलता है, वहीं लोक अदालत ने इस अवधारणा को बदला है। लोक अदालतों के माध्यम से सभी वर्गों, विशेषकर गरीब, दलित, वंचित वर्गों आदि के लिए न्याय सुलभ हो गया है, जिसकी पुष्टि झारखंड के कोडरमा जिले के लोक अदालत के मूल्यांकन से होती है।

विषय-सूचक पदावली : लोक अदालत, न्यायिक प्रक्रिया, विधिक सेवा, कोडरमा, झारखण्ड

प्रस्तावना

भारतीय न्यायपालिका के समक्ष सबसे बड़ी चुनौती अत्यंत खर्चीली तथा लंबित मामले हैं। इस वजह से गरीब एवं कमजोर व्यक्ति न्याय प्राप्त करने के अवसर से वंचित हो जाते हैं। इसका एक दुष्परिणाम यह उभरकर सामने आता है कि न्यायालयों में भारी संख्या में बाद लंबित हो जाते हैं, जिससे वादकारी परेशान व हताशा से भर जाते हैं। ऐसी स्थिति से छुटकारा पाने एवं लोगों को जल्द से जल्द तथा सस्ता न्याय दिलाने के लिए सरकार द्वारा समय-समय पर विभिन्न व्यवस्थाएं की जाती रही हैं। इसी तारतम्य में विधिक सेवा प्राधिकरणों का गठन किया गया। जिनके द्वारा समस्त न्यायालयों, प्राधिकरणों एवं आयोगों के समक्ष विचाराधीन मामलों में विधिक

* डॉ. सतीश कुमार वर्मा, राजनीति विज्ञान विभाग, सरिया कॉलेज, सरिया, गिरिडीह, झारखण्ड में सहायक प्राध्यापक हैं।

सेवाएं उपलब्ध करायी जाती हैं। लोक अदालत का अर्थ है लोगों का न्यायालय। यह एक ऐसा मंच है जहाँ विवादों को आपसी सहमति से निपटाया जाता है। यह गांधी जी के सिद्धांतों पर आधारित है।²

स्थायी लोक अदालत का गठन विधिक सेवाएं प्राधिकरण अधिनियम 1987 की धारा 22-बी की उप धारा (1) के अंतर्गत हुआ है। जनहित सेवाओं से संबंधित विभाग, जैसे - बिजली, पानी, अस्पताल आदि से संबंधित मामलों को, मुकदमें दायर करने से पहले आपसी सुलह से निपटाने के लिए राज्य प्राधिकरण द्वारा स्थायी लोक अदालतों की स्थापना की गई है। कोई भी पक्ष जिसका संबंध इन जनहित सेवाओं से है वह इन विवादों को निपटाने के लिए स्थायी लोक अदालत में आवेदन कर सकता है।³

सबसे पहले विवाद को आपसी सुलह के द्वारा सुलझाने का प्रयास किया जाता है और सहमति के बाद अवार्ड पास कर दिया जाता है। यदि आपसी सुलह के द्वारा केस का फैसला नहीं हो पाता तो स्थायी लोक अदालत में मामले का निपटारा मामले के गुण-अवगुण के आधार पर कर दिया जाता है। अवार्ड पास होने के पश्चात वह न्यायालय की डिक्री की तरह ही संबंधित पक्षों पर अनिवार्य रूप से लागू कराया जाता है। इसके फैसले के विरुद्ध किसी भी न्यायालय में अपील नहीं की जा सकती।

लोगों को सुलभ सस्ता और त्वरित न्याय दिलाने के लिए प्रायोगिक तौर पर 1982 में गुजरात में लोक अदालत का पहली बार गठन किया गया। लोक अदालतों का उद्देश्य आपसी बातचीत के माध्यम से विवादों का निपटारा करना। यदि दोनों पक्ष सहमत हैं तो दूसरी अदालतों में चल रहे मुकदमें लोक अदालतों में हस्तांतरित कर आपस में समझौते का प्रयास किया जाता है। इन अदालतों में कोई शुल्क नहीं लगता है। समझौते की स्थिति में दोनों पक्षों के शुल्क वापस कर दिए जाते हैं।⁴ लोक अदालत का गठन उच्चतम न्यायालय, उच्च न्यायालय और जिला न्यायालय द्वारा भी किए जाते हैं। उल्लेखनीय है कि, सर्वोच्च न्यायालय के तत्वावधान में पहली लोक अदालत अक्टूबर, 1985 में तत्कालीन मुख्य न्यायाधीश पी.एम. भगवती की अध्यक्षता में दिल्ली में आयोजित की गई थी। वस्तुतः लोक अदालत कानूनी विवादों के मैत्रीपूर्ण समझौते के लिए एक वैधानिक मंच है जो विधिक सेवा प्राधिकरण अधिनियम, 1987 जिसका संशोधन 2002 में किया जा चुका है। देश के लगभग सभी जिलों में स्थायी तथा सतत् लोक अदालतें स्थापित की गई हैं। ऐसे फौजदारी विवादों को छोड़कर जिनमें समझौता नहीं किया जा सकता, दीवानी, फौजदारी, राजस्व अदालतों में लंबित सभी कानूनी विवाद मैत्रीपूर्ण समझौते के लिए लोक अदालत में ले जाए जा सकते हैं।⁵ पूरे देश में आज लोक अदालतें हजारों की संख्या में वादों का निपटारा कर रही हैं। झारखण्ड राज्य में कोडरमा जिला भी इस क्षेत्र में अपवाद नहीं है।

लोक अदालत की विशेषता

- ❖ लोक अदालत विवादों को निपटाने का वैकल्पिक साधन है। लोक अदालत बेंच सभी स्तरों जैसे सर्वोच्च न्यायालय स्तर, उच्च न्यायालय स्तर, जिला न्यायालय स्तर पर दो पक्षों के

मध्य विवाद को आपसी सहमति से निपटाने के लिए गठित की जाती है।⁶

- ❖ इसमें कोई कोर्ट फीस नहीं लगती है। यदि न्यायालय में लंबित मुकदमें में कोर्ट फीस जमा भी करवाई गई हो, तो लोक अदालत में विवाद का निपटारा हो जाने पर वह फीस वापस कर दी जाती है।⁷
- ❖ इसमें दोनों पक्षकार जज के साथ स्वयं अथवा अधिवक्ता के द्वारा बात कर सकते हैं जो कि नियमित कोर्ट में संभव नहीं होता।⁸
- ❖ लोक अदालत का मुख्य गुण है अनौपचारिकता, त्वरित न्याय।⁹
- ❖ लोक अदालत के द्वारा पास अवार्ड दोनों पक्षों के लिए बाध्यकारी होता है। इसे डिक्री कहा जाता है और इसके विरुद्ध अपील नहीं होती।¹⁰

शोध उद्देश्य एवं पद्धति

प्रस्तुत अध्ययन का मुख्य उद्देश्य लोक अदालत प्रणाली द्वारा निर्गत न्याय में वंचित वर्गों का समावेश, पक्षकारों का संतोष, त्वरित निष्पादन, पक्षकारों को अपना पक्ष रखने का अवसर तथा आपसी सुलह के अवसर जैसे तत्वों का आकलन करना है। प्रस्तुत आलेख कोडरमा जिले का, न्याय प्रशासन के आलोक में, एक व्यक्तिगत अध्ययन है। इसमें तथ्य संकलन के द्वितीयक स्रोतों का उपयोग किया गया है जिसमें पुस्तक, शोध पत्रिका, सरकारी दास्तावेजों एवं समाचार पत्रों महत्वपूर्ण हैं।

झारखण्ड के न्याय प्रशासन में लोक अदालत

झारखण्ड देश का 28वाँ राज्य है जो 15 नवम्बर 2000 को अस्तित्व में आया। झारखण्ड राज्य के गठन के लिए बिहार पुनर्गठन अधिनियम, 2000 को लोक सभा ने 2 अगस्त 2000 को तथा राज्य सभा ने 11 अगस्त को पारित किया था। राष्ट्रपति ने इसे 18 अगस्त 2000 को अपनी स्वीकृति प्रदान कर इसे अधिनियम का रूप दिया। बिहार से काटकर स्थापित किए गए झारखण्ड राज्य में 18 जिले सम्मिलित हुए थे, राज्य में अब जिलों की संख्या 24 हो गई है। इसमें एक जिला कोडरमा भी है।

कोडरमा जिला झारखण्ड के पिछड़े जिलों में से एक है। इसका गठन 10 अप्रैल 1994 को हुआ। यहाँ बेरोजगारी, कुपोषण, स्वच्छ पेयजल, शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य एवं उग्रवाद जैसी जन समस्याएं वृहद् रूप से विद्यमान हैं। ऐसी स्थिति में जिले में स्वाभाविक रूप से विवादों की संख्या भी अधिक है, जिसमें दिन-प्रतिदिन वृद्धि होती जा रही है। ऐसी स्थिति में जिले में लोक अदालतों की उपयोगिता स्वयंसिद्ध है। जिले का विस्तार 1,494 वर्ग किमी में है। इस जिले में एक अनुमण्डल है - कोडरमा जो छह प्रखण्डों में विभाजित है। 2011 की जनसंख्या के अनुसार कोडरमा जिला की जनसंख्या 7,17,169 है जिसमें पुरुषों की संख्या 3,67,952 तथा महिलाओं की संख्या 3,49,217 है। जिले में साक्षरता का दर 68.35 प्रतिशत है। जिसमें पुरुष

साक्षरता 81.25% तथा महिला साक्षरता 54.77% है। यहाँ जनसंख्या का घनत्व 427 व्यक्ति प्रति वर्ग कि.मी. है। जिले में सामान्य, पिछड़े एवं अनुसूचित जाति के अलावा अनुसूचित जनजाति की संख्या भी अच्छी है। अनुसूचित जनजाति के अंतर्गत बिरहोर, संधाल, उरांव, मुण्डा आदि जाति के लोग आते हैं। अनुसूचित जाति के अन्तर्गत डोम, मेहतर, गझू एवं भुईया आदि जाति के लोग आते हैं। यद्यपि कोडरमा जिला विकास के पथ पर अग्रसर है परन्तु पिछड़ा है। अति जनसंख्या, उद्योगों का अभाव, अशिक्षा आदि जिले के पूर्ण विकास में बाधा उत्पन्न कर रहा है। यह शैक्षणिक एवं आर्थिक दृष्टि से पिछड़ा है। ऐसे में जिले में स्वभावतः गरीब व कमजोर जनसंख्या की प्रधानता है। इस दृष्टि से न्याय की प्राप्ति की दृष्टि से लोक अदालत की भूमिका स्वतः बढ़ जाती है। विदित हो कि दिनांक 23.11.2013 को राष्ट्रीय विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार, नई दिल्ली के निर्देशानुसार देश भर में राष्ट्रीय लोक अदालत का आयोजन किया गया जिसमें माननीय न्यायामूर्ति श्री डी.एन. पटेल, कार्यवाहक मुख्य न्यायाधीश, झारखण्ड उच्च न्यायालय एवं कार्यपालक अध्यक्ष, झारखण्ड विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार (झालसा) के नेतृत्व में माननीय उच्च न्यायालय विधिक सेवा समिति, राँची एवं झारखण्ड राज्य के समस्त जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार एवं अनुमण्डल विधिक सेवा समितियों तथा माननीय उच्च न्यायालय, राँची तथा सभी जिलों एवं अनुमण्डल के व्यवहार न्यायालयों में राष्ट्रीय लोक अदालत का आयोजन करने का प्रस्ताव पास किया गया, जिसमें निम्न मामलों का निष्पादन करने पर जोर दिया गया। सभी तरह के दिवानी मामले, वाहन दुर्घटना दावा संबंधित मामले, सुलहनीय आपराधिक मामले, बिजली विभाग से संबंधित मामले, बैंक सर्टिफिकेट केस, वन विभाग से संबंधित मामले, वैवाहिक-पारिवारिक मामले, वाट माप से संबंधित मामले, श्रम संबंधित मामले, पराक्रम्य विलेख से संबंधित मामले, भू-अधिग्रहण संबंधित मामले, विवाद पूर्व निस्तारण योग्य मामले, राजस्व संबंधित मामले, अन्य सुलह योग्य मामले।¹¹

लोक अदालत, कोडरमा द्वारा निष्पादित मामले

जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार की ओर से 25 मई 2019 शनिवार को मासिक लोक अदालत का आयोजन व्यवहार न्यायालय परिसर में किया गया। लोक अदालत में पाँच बेंचों के माध्यम से कुल 53 वादों का निपटारा किया गया।

वहीं विभिन्न विभागों से 3 लाख 75 हजार 300 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई। मौके पर प्रभारी प्रधान जिला एवं सत्र न्यायाधीश रामाशंकर सिंह ने कहा कि लोक अदालत में बढ़ रही भीड़ इस बात का परिचायक है कि लोक अदालत आम लोगों के बीच काफी लोकप्रिय होता जा रहा है। उन्होंने कहा कि लोक अदालत आम लोगों के लिए वरदान साबित हो रहा है। लोक अदालत के फैसले में दोनों पक्षों की जीत होती है और यह फैसला दोनों पक्षों को संतुष्ट करता है। उन्होंने कहा कि लोक अदालत में दिए गए निर्णय के विरुद्ध कहीं भी कोई अपील नहीं होती। लोक अदालत का निर्णय अंतिम निर्णय होता है। उन्होंने कहा कि लोक अदालत में जहाँ एक ओर लोगों के समय और पैसे की बचत होती है। वहीं दूसरी ओर न्यायालय से मुकदमों

का बोझ कम होता है। लोक अदालत में कुल पाँच बेंचों का गठन किया गया। बेंच संख्या 1 में जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 2 में एसीजेएम अजय कुमार श्रीवास्तव, बेंच संख्या 3 में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी राजीव कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 4 में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी लीडिया फ्रांसिस्का केरकेट्टा, एसडीओ व बेंच संख्या 5 में स्थायी लोक अदालत के अध्यक्ष सुरेन्द्र कुमार पाण्डेय ने मामले की सुनवाई की।¹²

जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार की ओर से व्यवहार न्यायालय परिसर में 30 मार्च 2019 शनिवार को मासिक लोक अदालत का आयोजन किया गया। लोक अदालत में पाँच बेंचों के माध्यम से कुल 48 वादों का निष्पादन किया गया। वहीं विभिन्न विभागों से 2 लाख 11 हजार 900 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई। लोक अदालत में कुल पाँच बेंचों का गठन किया गया। बेंच संख्या 1 में जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 2 में एसडीजेएम मो. उमर, बेंच संख्या 3 में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी राजीव कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 4 में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी कमलेश बेहरा व अनुमंडल दण्डाधिकारी और बेंच संख्या 5 में स्थायी लोक अदालत के अध्यक्ष सुरेन्द्र कुमार पाण्डेय ने मामले की सुनवाई की।¹³

जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार की ओर से व्यवहार न्यायालय परिसर में 25 जनवरी 2019 शुक्रवार को मासिक लोक अदालत का आयोजन किया गया। लोक अदालत में पाँच बेंचों के माध्यम से कुल 28 मामलों का निष्पादन किया गया। वहीं विभिन्न विभागों से एक लाख 18 हजार 300 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई। लोक अदालत में कुल पाँच बेंचों का गठन किया गया। बेंच संख्या 1 में जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 2 में सीजेएम विशाल श्रीवास्तव, बेंच संख्या 3 में न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी राजीव कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या 4 में न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी कमलेश बेहरा व अनुमंडल दंडाधिकारी, बेंच संख्या 5 में स्थायी लोक अदालत के अध्यक्ष सुरेन्द्र कुमार पाण्डेय ने मामलों की सुनवाई की।¹⁴ जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार कोडरमा के तत्वावधान में व्यवहार न्यायालय परिसर में 30 अगस्त 2019 शनिवार को मासिक लोक अदालत लगी। इसमें पाँच बेंचों के माध्यम से कुल 198 वादों का निष्पादन किया गया, जबकि विभिन्न विभागों से कुल 2,62,150 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई।

लोक अदालत में कुल पाँच बेंचों का गठन किया गया। बेंच संख्या एक में जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह, अधिवक्ता सुरेश कुमार व सुमन जायसवाल, बेंच संख्या दो में मुख्य न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी शेखर कुमार, अधिवक्ता धीरज जोशी व कुमार निशांत, बेंच संख्या तीन में न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी मिस लीडिया फ्रांसिस्का केरकेट्टा, अधिवक्ता संजय पांडेय व मनीष कुमार सिंह, बेंच संख्या चार में न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी इला कांडपाल एवं अनुमंडल दंडाधिकारी व अधिवक्ता राम विनय सिंह एवं बेंच संख्या पाँच में स्थायी लोक अदालत के अध्यक्ष सुरेन्द्र कुमार पाण्डेय, सदस्य बालेश्वर राम व ब्रज मोहन साह ने मामले की सुनवाई की। लोक अदालत में प्रभारी प्रधान जिला एवं सत्र न्यायाधीश रामाशंकर सिंह ने दावाकर्ता गीता देवी एवं कैलाष साव को प्रति 2,33,333 रूपये का चेक कुल 4,66,666 रूपये का चेक प्रदान किया। प्रधान जिला एवं सत्र न्यायाधीश के न्यायालय में लंबित वाद दावा वाद

संख्या 28ध18 के दावाकर्ता गीता देवी एवं कैलाश साव को उक्त राशि का चेक प्रदान किया गया। उल्लेखनीय है कि नवलशाही थाना अंतर्गत लालोडीह खेशमी निवासी कैलाश साव के पुत्र दिनेश साव की मौत सड़क दुर्घटना में हुई थी। झारखंड राज्य विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार, रांची के निर्देश के आलोक में जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार कोडरमा के तत्वावधान में व्यवहार न्यायालय परिसर में 21 सितम्बर 2019 शनिवार को राष्ट्रीय लोक अदालत का आयोजन किया गया, राष्ट्रीय लोक अदालत में कुल छह बेंचों का गठन किया गया था, जिसके माध्यम से कुल 300वादों का निष्पादन किया गया। इसमें लंबितवादों की संख्या 150 तथा प्री-लिटिगेशन के 150 मामले (बैंक ऋण एवं बीएसएनएल) शामिल हैं, जबकि विभिन्न विभागों से कुल 78,26,022 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई।¹⁵

इस मौके पर प्रभारी प्रधान जिला जज रामाशंकर सिंह ने कहा कि लोक अदालत शीघ्र, सस्ता, एवं सुलभ न्याय पाने का सशक्त माध्यम है। इसके माध्यम से जहाँ एक ओर लोगों के समय एवं पैसों की बचत होती है, वहीं लोगों को त्वरित न्याय भी मिल पाता है। कोडरमा के पुलिस अधीक्षक डॉ. एम. तमिल वाणन ने कहा कि लोक अदालत आज के परिवेश में किसी परिचय का मोहताज नहीं है, इससे समाज के अंतिम व्यक्ति को भी त्वरित व निःशुल्क न्याय प्रदान किया जाता है। जिला जज चतुर्थ विश्वनाथ शुक्ला ने कहा कि लोक अदालत के माध्यम से समाज के लोगों को सस्ता, सुलभ एवं सरल तरीके से न्याय मिलता है। जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह ने कहा कि लोक अदालत में दोनों पक्षों की जीत होती है। अपर समाहर्ता अनिल कुमार तिकी ने अपने संबोधन में कहा कि लोक अदालत दोनों पक्षकारों को संतुष्ट करते हुए अपना निर्णय प्रदान करता है। जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार के तत्वावधान में सिविल कोर्ट परिसर में 24 जून 2017 को मासिक लोक अदालत का आयोजन किया गया। प्रधान जिला एवं सत्र न्यायाधीश सह प्राधिकार अध्यक्ष प्रदीप कुमार श्रीवास्तव ने कहा कि लोक अदालत लोगों को शीघ्र, सस्ता और सुलभ न्याय प्रदान करने का सशक्त माध्यम है। इसमें छह बेंचों का गठन किया गया था। लोक अदालत में कुल 71वादों का निष्पादन किया गया। विभिन्न विभागों से कुल एक लाख 57 हजार 100 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई। बेंच संख्या एक में प्रधान जज कुटुंब न्यायालय ब्रजेश कुमार गौतम, अधिवक्ता निरंजन प्रसाद, नीरा जायसवाल, बेंच संख्या दो में जिला जज द्वितीय संजय कुमार सिंह, अधिवक्ता भुनेश्वर राणा, बेंच संख्या तीन में सीजेएम विशाल श्रीवास्तव, अधिवक्ता संजय कुमार सिंह, रीना कुमारी, बेंच संख्या चार में न्यायिक दंडाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी राजीव कुमार सिंह, अधिवक्ता प्रदीप कुमार, सुमन जायसवाल, बेंच संख्या पाँच में एसीजेएम अजय कुमार श्रीवास्तव, एसडीओ प्रभात कुमार बरदियार और बेंच संख्या छह में न्यायाधिकारी सूर्यमणी त्रिपाठी, स्थायी लोक अदालत सदस्य डॉली प्रधान ने मामले की सुनवाई की।

जिला विधिक सेवा प्राधिकार के तत्वावधान में 24 सितंबर, 2016 को सिविल कोर्ट कैंपस में लोक अदालत का आयोजन पूर्वाह्न 11 बजे से किया गया। इसके लिए 9 बेंचों का गठन किया गया था। शाम 4 बजे तक लोक अदालत का आयोजन हुआ। इसमें इन बेंचों के जरिए वन, उत्पाद, बिजली, बैंक और अन्य सुलहनीय जैसे 50 मामलों का निष्पादन किया गया। इसके

जरिए 60 हजार 500 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई। यह जानकारी प्राधिकार सचिव ए.के. श्रीवास्तव ने दी है।¹⁶

14 जुलाई 2018 राष्ट्रीय लोक अदालत में पाँच बेंचों का गठन किया गया था। बेंच संख्या एक में जिला जज प्रथम रामाशंकर सिंह व अधिवक्ता भुनेश्वर राणा तथा नीरा जायसवाल, बेंच संख्या दो में सी.जे.एम. विशाल श्रीवास्तव व अधिवक्ता संजय कुमार सिंह एवं शांति कुमारी थीं। बेंच संख्या तीन में अजय कुमार श्रीवास्तव, ए.सी.जे.एम., अधिवक्ता राम विनय सिंह व प्रदीप कुमार, बेंच संख्या चार में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी राजीव कुमार सिंह, सर्टिफिकेट ऑफिसर राजेश कुमार साहू व बचनदेव नाथ आर्या तथा बेंच संख्या पाँच में न्यायिक दण्डाधिकारी प्रथम श्रेणी पूजा व स्थायी लोक अदालत की सदस्या डोली प्रधान एवं जयश्री द्विवेदी ने मामलों की सुनवाई की। पाँच बेंचों के माध्यम से 130 वादों का निष्पादन किया गया। इनमें लंबित वादों की संख्या 103 तथा प्री-लिटिगेशन के 27 मामले (बैंक) शामिल हैं, जबकि विभिन्न विभागों से कुल 57,98,375 रुपए राजस्व की वसूली की गई है। उल्लेखनीय है कि इसमें कुल 6 वाद पाँच साल से अधिक समय से न्यायालय में लंबित मामलों का निष्पादन किया गया है।¹⁷

निष्कर्ष

यह विडम्बना रही है कि हमारी न्याय प्रणाली खर्चीली है। फलस्वरूप गरीब न्याय पाने में वंचित हो जाते हैं। कानूनी व्यवस्था के साथ उनके संपर्क में गरीब हमेशा पिसते रहे हैं। कानून उनके द्वारा कुछ रहस्यमय और निषेध के रूप में माना जाता रहा है, लेकिन लोक अदालतों ने उन्हें निःशुल्क तथा त्वरित न्याय दिया है। ये विवादों के निपटारे का वैकल्पिक माध्यम है। इसका उद्देश्य यह सुनिश्चित करना है कि देश का कोई भी नागरिक आर्थिक या किसी अन्य अक्षमता के कारण न्याय पाने से वंचित न रह जाए। कोडरमा जिले के व्यक्तिक अध्ययन से विदित होता है कि इन अदालतों से वर्तमान झारखण्ड में न्यायिक प्रक्रिया को नवजीवन मिला है, जो मुकदमों के बोझ तथा महंगे न्याय की समस्या से ग्रसित होकर निष्क्रिय सी हो गई थी। लोक अदालत द्वारा वादों के निपटारे में जिला स्तर के न्यायाधीश तथा प्रथम श्रेणी के दण्डाधिकारी सुनवाई कर तत्काल निर्णय लेते हैं। कइ बार एक से अधिक न्यायाधीश का पीठ बनाकर निर्णय लिए जाते हैं तथा वादियों को अपना वकील रखने या निर्धन वादियों को लीगल एड के माध्यम से वकील मुहैया कराये जाते हैं। इसके अतिरिक्त बातचीत और परस्पर समझौते का जो अवसर मुकदमे की प्रारंभिक अवस्था में खो दिया जाता है, वह झारखण्ड में लोक अदालत नामक नवीन व्यवस्था से देने का प्रयास किया गया है। इतना ही नहीं इन लोक अदालतों द्वारा दिए गए निर्णयों से पक्षकार या वादी-परिवादी संतुष्ट रहे अपितु झारखण्ड सरकार को राजस्व भी प्राप्त हुए। निष्कर्ष यह है कि लोक अदालतों के माध्यम से झारखण्ड न्याय प्रशासन समावेशी न्याय देने में सफल रहा है। परन्तु यह भी स्मरण रखा जाना चाहिए कि लोक अदालत सामान्य न्याय व्यवस्था का विकल्प नहीं, बल्कि एक पूरक प्रयास है।

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भारत में पर्यावरणीय राजनीति एवं पर्यावरण संरक्षा: चुनौतियाँ एवं समाधान

मो. अली हुसैन*

सार संक्षेप

पर्यावरण संरक्षा राज्य का एक महत्वपूर्ण दायित्व बन गया है। विकासशील देशों में विकास की होड़ में सरकार की नीतियाँ पर्यावरण को अनदेखा कर देती हैं। भारतीय व्यवस्था भी एक उदाहरण है। आंकड़ों के अनुसार भारत में पर्यावरणीय ह्रास, जैव विविधता में ह्रास, प्रदूषण एवं जलवायु परिवर्तन आदि चिंतनीय स्तर तक पहुँच गए हैं। फिर भी राजनीतिक मुद्दों में पर्यावरण को प्राथमिकता नहीं मिलती। दूसरी ओर पर्यावरण संरक्षा के प्रति आमजन भी उदासीन हैं। ऐसी परिस्थिति में पर्यावरण संरक्षा के समक्ष आने वाली चुनौतियों को चिन्हित करना तथा उनका समाधान सुझाना आवश्यक प्रतीत होता है। साथ ही पर्यावरण एवं उसकी संरक्षा में नीति प्रक्रिया तथा राजनीति की भूमिका, जिसे हम पर्यावरणीय राजनीति के नाम से जानते हैं, का आकलन समीचीन प्रतीत होता है। प्रस्तुत आलेख पर्यावरणीय राजनीति के सैद्धान्तिक ढाँचे में भारत में पर्यावरण संरक्षा में आने वाली राजनीतिक, प्रशासनिक एवं वैधानिक चुनौतियों पर प्रकाश डालने एवं उपाय सुझाने का प्रयास करता है।

विषय सूचक शब्द : पर्यावरणीय राजनीति, नीतियाँ, वैधानिक, जलवायु परिवर्तन, प्रशासन, जनसहभागिता

भूमिका

विडम्बना यह है कि एक तरफ जहाँ हमारे प्रधानमंत्री अंतर्राष्ट्रीय मंच पर जलवायु न्याय (Climatic Justice) की गुहार लगा रहे हैं, तो वहीं दूसरी ओर भारत पर्यावरण संरक्षा में सबसे पिछले पायदान पर है। याले सेंटर फॉर इन्भीरॉन्मेंटल लॉ एण्ड पॉलिसी द्वारा तैयार 2014 के पर्यावरण उपलब्धि सूचकांक (इन्भीरॉन्मेंटल परफॉरमेंस इन्डेक्स) के अनुसार भारत की कोटि (rank) 178 देशों में 155वां है। हम जानते हैं कि पर्यावरणीय संतुलन के बिगड़ने का मुख्य कारण मानवीय गतिविधियाँ ही हैं। मनुष्य वायुमण्डल में ग्रीन हाउस गैसों (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O) का उत्सर्जन विभिन्न तरीकों से करता रहा है। विकास के क्रम में उठाए गए सभी कदम पर्यावरण के विरुद्ध पड़े क्योंकि हमने इसे ध्यान में रखकर कदम नहीं उठाए। विपन्नता एवं आर्थिक पिछड़ापन

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से निपटने में पर्यावरण पर ही चोट पड़ता है। बड़े-बड़े डैम, सड़कें, उद्योगों की स्थापना आदि में हम पर्यावरण को छेड़ते रहे हैं। हमारी राजनीतिक व्यवस्था पर्यावरण स्वयंसेवियों को नजरअंदाज करती रही है। सुन्दर लाल बहुगुणा द्वारा संचालित चिपको आंदोलन या राजेन्द्र सिंह द्वारा जल संरक्षण के कार्य या मेधा पाटेकर द्वारा नर्मदा बचाओ आन्दोलन कुछ ऐसे उदाहरण हैं जिनका राष्ट्रव्यापी प्रसार नहीं हुआ और न ही उनके आधार पर ऐसी नीतियां बनाई गईं, जिससे हमारा पर्यावरण संरक्षित रह सके। आज विडम्बना यह भी है पर्यावरण को प्रदूषित जो भी करे फल सभी को भुगतना पड़ता है। एक ओर सम्पन्न देश या सम्पन्न वर्ग ज्यादा प्रदूषण करते हैं और दूसरी ओर गरीब देश एवं समाज का विपन्न वर्ग ज्यादा पीड़ित होते हैं। तीसरा महत्वपूर्ण तथ्य यह है कि पर्यावरण संरक्षा के लिए सर्वव्यापी प्रेरक की कमी है। प्राचीन काल से ही पर्यावरण की संरक्षा भारतीय संस्कृति की महत्वपूर्ण अंग रही है। धर्म के पालन के क्रम में राजा प्रजा दोनों प्रकृति की संरक्षा करते थे। परन्तु आज ऐसे तत्व का लोप हो गया है। मेरी मान्यता है कि ऐसी स्थिति की प्राप्ति केवल राजनीति से की जा सकती है।

बढ़ती भूमण्डलीय उष्मा एवं जलवायु परिवर्तन की स्थिति का विकासशील देशों खासकर भारत जैसे कृषि प्रधान देश की अर्थव्यवस्था एवं इसके प्राकृतिक पर्यावरण पर प्रतिकूल प्रभाव पड़ रहा है। वैज्ञानिकों ने यह अनुमान लगाया है कि दक्षिण और दक्षिणपूर्व एशिया के वायुमण्डल में CO₂ कार्बन डाईऑक्साइड का जमाव लगभग दुगुना हो गया है जिसका परिणाम यह होगा कि जल्द ही इस क्षेत्र में भारी वर्षा की आवृत्ति बहुत अधिक बढ़ जाएगी। इन परिवर्तनों से प्राकृतिक आपदाओं और महामारियों की संभावनाएं बढ़ जाती हैं। जलप्लाव (precipitation) और वाष्पीकरण (evaporation) के स्वरूप में परिवर्तन के कारण न केवल सतही जल अपितु भूमिगत जल का भी क्षरण हो रहा है जिसका सीधा प्रभाव आर्थिक गतिविधियों, मानव वस्तियों और मानव स्वास्थ्य पर पड़ रहा है (Sharma: 2008)। अर्थात् कृषि, शहरी जीवन, जंगलों की प्राकृतिक पर्यावरण और जलसंसाधन जैसे क्षेत्र इसके चपेट में आसानी से आ गए हैं।

प्राकृतिक आपदाओं का सीधा प्रभाव खाद्य सुरक्षा, स्वास्थ्य तथा आवासीय कुव्यवस्था के रूप में कृषि पर भी पड़ता है। भारत के उच्चावच में 7500 कि.मी. समुद्र तट पर समुद्री संसाधनों पर निर्भर रहने वाली आबादी चक्रवातों, सुनामी एवं तूफानों का सामना करती हैं। 65 प्रतिशत नदी घाटियों में रहने वाली आबादी बाढ़ एवं सूखे से ग्रसित हैं। उन आपदाओं का प्रभाव गरीबों पर अधिक होता है। इन आपदाओं के अतिरिक्त भूमि क्षरण का कुप्रभाव स्पष्ट दिखता है। कृषि वैज्ञानिकों का मत है कि 0.5° तापमान की वृद्धि से गेहूँ के उत्पादन में 10 प्रतिशत की कमी आ जाती है। इसके अलावा फसलों की अवधि में भी वृद्धि, फसलों के प्रकाश संश्लेषण की क्रिया में तथा हानिकारक कीटों में वृद्धि के कारण कृषि में प्रयुक्त खादों की क्षमता में भी कमी आ जाती है। कहने का तात्पर्य यह है कि यदि पर्यावरण संरक्षित होगा तो रोटी, कपड़ा और मकान की समस्या का भी हल आसानी से निकलेगा।

प्रस्तुत आलेख तीन मान्यताओं पर आधारित है - पहला, पर्यावरण में हास का मुख्य कारण प्रकृति नहीं बल्कि मानवीय गतिविधियां और उनसे उत्पन्न परिस्थितियां हैं। दूसरा, प्राकृतिक स्तर

पर वातावरण में हुए ह्रास की भरपाई प्रकृति स्वयं कर लेती है परन्तु मानवीय गतिविधियों द्वारा हुए ह्रास की भरपाई प्रकृति नहीं कर सकती तथा तीसरा, राजनीतिक कर्ताओं के बीच इस समस्या को राजनीतिक मुद्दे पर लाने में कोई दिलचस्पी नहीं होती क्योंकि इनसे उनको चुनावी लाभ नहीं मिलता। अतः इस निमित्त निर्मित नीतियों के कार्यान्वयन में ढिलाई आ जाती है।

सैद्धान्तिक अनुशीलन

प्रस्तुत विवेचन में दो पद महत्वपूर्ण हैं – पहला पर्यावरणीय राजनीति एवं पर्यावरणीय न्यायशास्त्र। 1990 की दशक से पर्यावरणीय राजनीति विषय का प्रादुर्भाव हुआ (Dryzek et al.:1998)। इससे हमारा तात्पर्य ऐसी राजनीतिक व्यवस्था से है जिसमें मानव और प्रकृति द्वारा एक-दूसरे को प्रभावित करने वाले तत्वों का प्रबंधन सही तरीके से किया जा सके। इस प्रकार यह पर्यावरण का वैज्ञानिक अध्ययन करना या समाज का पर्यावरणीय अध्ययन करना नहीं है अपितु यह राजनीतिक निर्णयों का पर्यावरण पर पड़ने वाले प्रभावों, राजनीतिक संरचनाओं की पर्यावरण संरक्षा में भूमिका तथा उन कारणों का अध्ययन करना है जिससे पर्यावरण एक राजनीतिक मुद्दा बनता है अथवा नहीं बनता है। इसमें राजनीतिक संस्थाओं का सार्वजनिक पर्यावरणीय संदर्भ में मूल्यांकन को प्रेरित किया जाता है (Garner: 1995)। अर्थात् पर्यावरण के प्रति सकारात्मक या नाकारात्मक सरकारी प्रतिक्रियाओं तथा इस विषय पर बने नीतियों एवं कानूनों में सतत् विकास की बाधाओं की पहचान कर निर्णय निर्माण हेतु उपाय सुझाना भी पर्यावरणीय राजनीति का ही उद्देश्य है (Dryzek et al.: 1998, Harris: 2014)। पर्यावरण संरक्षा में नीतियों को लागू करने हेतु कई विधियां बनती हैं तथा समय-समय पर उनकी न्यायिक व्याख्या भी होती है। इसी क्रम में प्रकृति के प्रति संरक्षा का भाव हमारी नैतिकता में सम्मिलित होती है। इस प्रकार पर्यावरण संरक्षा संबंधी विधियां, न्यायिक प्रक्रिया एवं नैतिकता (morality) को समेकित रूप से हम पर्यावरणीय न्याय की संज्ञा देते हैं (Verma: 2019)। भारत में पर्यावरण संरक्षा में दो सौ से अधिक कानून, नियम एवं परिनियम बने हैं जिनके आधार पर न्यायालयों एवं प्राधिकरणों द्वारा निर्णय लिए जाते हैं जिसमें इन न्यायालयों द्वारा कुछ मानक तय किए गए हैं जैसे प्रदूषकों द्वारा भरपाई (polluters must pay), मौलिक अधिकार, मानवाधिकार, विकास एवं पर्यावरण में संतुलन आदि प्रमुख हैं (Ibid.)।

वैधानिक चुनौतियां

पर्यावरण संरक्षा भारतीय संस्कृति का प्रमुख अंग रहा है। प्रचीन काल या यूनं कहें कि भारतीय सभ्यता के उदय से ही इसकी चिंता की जाती रही है। भारतीय शास्त्र परम्परा में वेदों से लेकर पुराणों एवं उपनिषदों में भी प्रकृति को संरक्षित रखने के उपदेश मिलते हैं जिसका पालन तत्कालीन शासकों की जिम्मेवारी थी। कहने का तात्पर्य यह है कि यह हमारी सांस्कृतिक विरासत रही है। परन्तु आज अंतर्राष्ट्रीय एवं राष्ट्रीय परिपेक्ष्य में सुनिर्दिष्ट रणनीतियों का निर्माण और उसपर अमल करने की उत्कटता में कमजोरी दृष्टिगोचर होती है। इससे संबंधित विधायनों या निर्मित कानूनों पर दृष्टि डालें तो पता चलता है कि आजादी के पूर्व से हमारे देश में कतिपय

कानून बने हैं और आजादी के बाद खास कर 1980 की दशक से ऐसे कानूनों में वृद्धि हुई है जिन्हें हम दो श्रेणियों में रख सकते हैं - पहला सामान्य कानून और दूसरा पर्यावरण निर्दिष्ट कानून। इस प्रकार भारत में बजाप्ता पर्यावरणीय न्यायशास्त्र का निर्माण हो गया। जिसके तहत मुकदमों का निपटारा हुआ है। इन वादों के निपटारे में समय तो लगता ही है साथ ही इनमें न्यायपालिका का रूख जनता के हितों एवं उनके अधिकारों पर अधिक महत्व देने के प्रति है। मुकदमों के निपटारा पर दृष्टि डालें तो पता चलेगा कि इनके द्वारा लोकोपेक्षी पर्यावरण प्रबंधन की दिशा में न्यायिक निर्णय हुए। निर्णयों में आमजन द्वारा प्रदूषण फैलाने के पक्ष पर ध्यान नहीं दिया जाता। उदाहरण के लिए पटाखे नहीं फोड़ने के निदेश का पालन नहीं करने, पराली जलाने तथा यत्र तत्र कचरा फैलाने पर रोक लगाने संबंधी निर्णय नहीं दिए गए। यह पाया गया है कि कानून और उनके पीछे लगे ताकत तो ठीक हैं परन्तु नागरिकों एवं राजनीतिक कर्ताओं द्वारा उनका अनुपालन पूरे मन से नहीं किया जाता और इन कानूनों के कार्यान्वयन हेतु उपलब्ध तंत्र पर्याप्त नहीं हैं। इसके अतिरिक्त क्षेत्राधिकार की ओभरलैपिंग, इसके निमित्त पुलिस संरचना की अपर्याप्तता तथा कमजोर राजनीतिक-प्रशासनिक ईच्छा संबंधी समस्याएं भी इसमें बाधा पहुंचाते हैं (Ibid.)।

नीतिगत चुनौतियां

विभिन्न अवसरों पर एवं अंतरराष्ट्रीय सम्मेलनों के आलोक में समय-समय पर नीतियां एवं कार्यक्रम शुरू किए जाते रहे हैं जैसे ग्रीन हाउस गैस उत्सर्जन, अवैध खनन, भूमण्डलीय उष्मा, जलवायु परिवर्तन, ऊर्जा के वैकल्पिक स्रोत, जंगलों का संरक्षण, वन रोपण, जैव संरक्षा, साफ-सफाई, सतह एवं भूमिगत जल संरक्षा, वायु प्रदूषण, मृदा संरक्षण आदि। पिछले डेढ़ दशकों में पर्यावरण की दिशा में गंभीरता से नीतियां बनीं हैं। क्योटो प्रोटोकॉल 1997 के बाद खासकर दिल्ली घोषणा 2002 से भारत में पर्यावरण संरक्षा हेतु कई नीतियां बनाई गईं जो मुख्य रूप से जलवायु परिवर्तन, ऊर्जा, स्वास्थ्य, कृषि, गैर कानूनी उत्खनन, आपदा प्रबंधन, जल एवं वायु प्रदूषण आदि विषयों से संबंधित रहीं हैं। सन् 2002 में राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य नीति बनाई गई जिसके तहत यह कहा गया कि पर्यावरण संरक्षा संबंधी जो भी कदम उठाए जाएं उसमें स्वास्थ्य-परक और रोगों से संबंधित जोखिम को कम करने के उपाय किए जाएं।

2006 में एक वृहद् या अम्ब्रेला नीति 'नेशनल इन्वीरॉन्मेंट पॉलिसी' का निर्माण किया गया जिसमें उपरोक्त सभी वर्णित नीतियों को समाहित करते हुए नए उपायों से पर्यावरण की संरक्षा के कदम उठाने का संकल्प है। इसमें जलवायु परिवर्तन पर विशेष ध्यान दिया गया है जिसमें ग्रीन हाउस गैसों के उत्सर्जन में कमी करना, सतत विकास को प्राथमिकता तथा जल संसाधन, वनसंपदा, तटीय क्षेत्र, कृषि तथा स्वास्थ्य पर जलवायु परिवर्तन के प्रभावों एवं एडैप्टेशन या अनुकूलन का आकलन करना प्रमुख है। साथ ही साथ भारतीय उद्योगों में क्लीन डेवलपमेंट मेकानिज्म को प्रोत्साहित करना और अन्य देशों एवं अंतरराष्ट्रीय संगठनों से सहयोग करना भी महत्वपूर्ण स्थान रखते हैं। यहाँ नेशनल पॉलिसी फॉर फारमर्स 2007 का उल्लेख आवश्यक है जिसके तहत जलवायु परिवर्तन के अनुसार खेती की विधियों में अनुकूलन, वैकल्पिक भूमि एवं

जल के प्रयोग तथा सूखे एवं बाढ़ से निपटने की रणनीतियों को प्राथमिकता दी गई है। नीतियों की श्रृंखला में सर्वाधिक महत्वपूर्ण भारत सरकार द्वारा 30 जून 2008 को जारी आठ सूत्री एक्सन प्लान है जिसमें 2017 तक मिशन स्तर पर लक्ष्यों की प्राप्ति का संकल्प लिया गया जो इस प्रकार था - नेशनल सोलर मिशन (वैकल्पिक ऊर्जा स्रोत के रूप में सौर ऊर्जा का उपयोग), नेशनल मिशन फॉर एन्हांस्ड एनर्जी एफिसियेंसी (2012 तक 10000 मेगावाट की बचत करना), नेशनल मिशन ऑन ससटेनेबल हैबिटैट (शहरी इलाकों में कचड़ा प्रबंधन और ईंधन मितव्ययिता तथा रिसाइकिलिंग), नेशनल वाटर मिशन (20 प्रतिशत तक जलप्रयोग में मितव्ययता), ससटेनिंग हिमालयन इको सिस्टम (जैव विविधता, वनाच्छादन तथा हिमालय क्षेत्र में पर्यावरणीय मूल्यों का पालन), नेशनल मिशन फॉर ग्रीन इण्डिया (23 से 33 प्रतिशत तक वानिकी का लक्ष्य प्राप्त करना), नेशनल मिशन फॉर ससटेनेबल एग्रीकल्चर (जलवायु के अनुसार कृषि के अनुकूलन के उपाय) और एसट्रेटैजिक नॉलेज फॉर क्लाइमेट चेंज (जलवायु पर शोध के लिए संस्था एवं राशि की व्यवस्था तथा अंतर्राष्ट्रीय सहयोग का संकल्प)। परन्तु इनका न तो समुचित कार्यान्वयन हुआ और नहीं जनसहभागिता को प्रोत्साहित किया गया।

राजनीतिक एवं प्रशासनिक चुनौतियां

राजनीतिक चुनौतियां: पर्यावरण संरक्षा के लिए इतने अधिक कानूनों एवं नीतियों के बावजूद भारत द्वारा लागू किए गए वन, मत्स्यपालन और जल संसाधन को छोड़कर सभी नीतियों एवं उपायों के अध्ययन के पश्चात् यह मूल्यांकन किया गया है कि भारत विश्व में 155वां स्थान रखता है। इस आकलन में पाया गया कि भारत स्वास्थ्य तथा वायु प्रदूषण मानकों से सबसे पीछे है। यानि भारत पर्यावरण संरक्षा के मामले में अंतिम पायदान पर है। द एनर्जी एण्ड रिसोर्स इन्सिट्यूट द्वारा 2014 में किए गए सर्वेक्षण में पाया गया कि शहरी क्षेत्रों में लोगों को पर्यावरण ह्रास, भूमंडलीय उष्मा तथा जलवायु परिवर्तन, हरित छाजन (green cover) तथा पक्षियों की बहुल प्रजातीयता का लोप (loss of diversity of birds) जैसी परिघटनाओं का ज्ञान है। इसके अलावा जल एवं वायु प्रदूषण में वृद्धि को भी वे स्वीकारते हैं। 75 प्रतिशत लोग जल के लिए म्यूनििसिपल सप्लाई पर निर्भर करते हैं जिनमें आधे से अधिक गरीब तबके के लोग हैं जो जल का शुद्धिकरण नहीं करते। इसके अलावा यह भी तथ्य उजागर हुआ कि हमारे शहरी क्षेत्रों में कचड़ा प्रबंधन ठीक से नहीं किया जाता जो लोगों के स्वास्थ्य पर बुरा प्रभाव डालते हैं। ऐसी परिस्थिति में यह विचार करने की आवश्यकता है कि राजनीतिक एवं प्रशासनिक स्तर पर क्यों नहीं गम्भीरता से पहल किए जाते हैं? विभिन्न कानूनों एवं नीतियों के होते हुए भी हम पर्यावरण संरक्षा के मामले में हमारे पिछड़ने का मुख्य कारण यह है कि हमारे राजनीतिक कर्ता (politicians) अपनी राजनीतिक लाभ को प्राथमिकता देते हैं। लोगों की प्राथमिकताएं भी बुनियादी आवश्यकताओं में होती है जैसे रोजगार, आवासीय सुविधाएं, सबसिडाइज्ड वस्तुओं की उपलब्धता, पानी-बिजली की उपलब्धता आदि। फलतः पर्यावरण ह्रास का ज्ञान होते हुए भी वे पर्यावरण को बुनियादी आवश्यकता में नहीं रखते। इसीलिए राजनीतिज्ञों को पर्यावरण के मामले को प्राथमिकता में पीछे रखना पड़ता है।

राजनीतिक दलों के चुनाव घोषणा पत्रों में भी पर्यावरण प्राथमिकता पर नहीं होता है। वे गरीबी उन्मूलन, रोजगार, और अर्थव्यवस्था के उन्नयन पर केन्द्रित होते हैं। सकल घरेलू उत्पाद को बढ़ाने पर ज्यादा बल देते हैं। राजनीतिज्ञ औद्योगिक जगत को नाराज नहीं करना चाहते जो पर्यावरणीय विषयों को मुनाफा में बाधक मानते हैं (Telegraph: 2014)। लोक सभा चुनावों में नरेन्द्र मोदी ने बनारस के मतदाताओं का समर्थन प्राप्त करने के लिए गंगा को स्वच्छ करने का वादा किया। ठीक उसी प्रकार केजरीवाल ने सीवेज व्यवस्था ठीक करने की बात की, परन्तु दोनों में से किसी ने पर्यावरण और लोक स्वास्थ्य को सुधारने के लिए क्या योजना रही इस पर कुछ नहीं कहा। इनमें इनका उद्देश्य मतदाताओं से जुड़ने का होता है। पर्यावरण संबंधी जो मुद्दे होते हैं उनमें निवारण के उपाय नहीं होते या उनका विस्तार नहीं होता। भारतीय जनता पार्टी ने अपने घोषणा पत्र में जल संकट से निपटने के लिए इतनी खर्चीली योजना (डीसेलाईनेशन और नदियों की जोड़ने की योजना) काल्पनिक-सा प्रतीत होता है (Verma: 2018)। जल संरक्षण के मशहूर स्वयंसेवी राजेन्द्र सिंह ने एक बार कहा है कि 'ये राजनीतिज्ञ इतना कहते तो हैं गंगा हमारी माँ है और उन्हें बचाएंगे। परन्तु ये अर्थहीन जुमले हैं जो हर चुनाव में कहे जाते हैं।' इतना ही नहीं सत्ता प्राप्ति के बाद भी राजनीतिज्ञ पर्यावरण संरक्षा संबंधी अंतर्राष्ट्रीय प्रसंविदाओं में निर्धारित मानकों एवं राष्ट्रीय स्तर पर निर्मित विधियों एवं नीतियों के प्रति संजीदगी नहीं बरतते। इस निमित्त बने प्रशासनिक संगठनों एवं संस्थाओं का अनुश्रवण नहीं करते। फलस्वरूप भारत पर्यावरण प्रदूषण में कम योगदान देते हुए भी संरक्षा में सबसे पीछे है।

प्रशासनिक चुनौतियाँ: भारत में प्रदूषण को नियंत्रित करने के लिए नियंत्रक एजेंसियों एवं संगठनों का निर्माण किया गया है जो पर्यावरण संबंधी कानूनों और नीतियों को कार्यान्वित कराते हैं। हम जानते हैं कि आज के बाजार की शक्तियों की प्रबलता के कारण प्रदूषण कम करने में किसी को रुचि नहीं होती इसलिए इन एजेंसियों को प्रदूषण की रोकथाम के लिए तत्पर रहना होगा। ऐसी एजेंसियों में प्रदूषण नियंत्रण बोर्डों का बड़ा महत्वपूर्ण स्थान है। परन्तु ये बोर्ड पर्यावरणीय संरक्षा और विकास को एक सूत्र में बांधे रखने में प्रभावकारी नहीं रहे हैं। मूल्यांकनात्मक अध्ययनों से उजागर हुआ है कि इनके राह में कई रोड़े हैं - जैसे अपर्याप्त तकनीकी एवं वैज्ञानिक मानव संसाधन, हितसमूहों का प्रभाव, क्षेत्राधिकार संबंधी समस्याएं, दण्डकारी प्रावधानों का अभाव, न्यूनतम जांच मानक का अभाव, उद्योगों की हानिकारक गतिविधियों पर पर्दा डालने की प्रवृत्ति तथा कार्य संस्कृति का क्षीण होना। इसके अतिरिक्त पर्यावरण संरक्षा में कभी-कभी कई विभागों के बीच समन्वय की आवश्यकता होती है जिसके अभाव में काम कमजोर पड़ जाता है (CAG: 2016)। यह देखा गया है कि पर्यावरण नौकरशाही के अप्रभावकारी होने के कई कारण हैं जैसे सरकार एवं प्रदूषकों के बीच हित का टकराव, राज्य और केन्द्र सरकारों की प्राथमिकताओं के बीच विभेद तथा विभिन्न राज्यों के बीच खींचाव। परियोजना शुरू होने के पूर्व सहमति देने के पूर्व इम्पैक्ट एसेसमेंट रिपोर्ट का अनुपालन का नहीं होना, पर्यावरण संरक्षा सरकारी एजेंसियों को विभिन्न कानूनों के तहत बिना शक्तियों के क्षमता से अधिक जिम्मेवारियों का दिया जाना। उदाहरणार्थ हम देखते हैं कि जल एवं वायु प्रदूषण नियंत्रण कानून के तहत बने प्रदूषण नियंत्रण बोर्डों की स्थिति मात्र परामर्शदात्री है। उनके पास एक मात्र प्रभावकारी हथियार सहमति प्रमाण

पत्र जारी करना है (CAG: 2016)। दूसरा तथ्य विभिन्न प्राधिकरणों की शक्तियों में ओभरलैपिंग का होना है जैसे प्रदूषण नियंत्रण बोर्डों के अलावा शहरी स्वशासी निकायों को भी उद्योगों को अनुज्ञप्तियां या लाइसेंस जारी करने का अधिकार है।

जन सहभागिता संबंधी चुनौतियां

एक पक्ष जनसहभागिता का भी है। पर्यावरण के प्रति लोगों के रूख का अध्ययन किया गया जिससे ज्ञात होता है कि लोग पर्यावरण के हास एवं उसके दुष्प्रभावों से अवगत हैं परन्तु संरक्षा में तत्पर नहीं होते (TERI: 2014)। 1991 के रियो डिक्लेयरेशन में जनसहभागिता की वकालत की गई है। यह सर्वविदित है कि बिना लोकभागीदारी के कोई भी नीति सफल नहीं हो सकती है। यह भी एक महत्वपूर्ण तथ्य है कि पर्यावरण नौकरशाही की संरचना सरकारी कर्मियों की है। जितने भी पर्यावरण संरक्षण अभिकरण हैं उनकी संरचना में नागरिक समाज की कोई भागीदारी नहीं है अर्थात् जनसहभागिता का कोई स्थान नहीं है (Praneetha: 2013)। अन्य कार्यक्रमों की तरह पर्यावरण नीतियों का कोई लक्ष्य समूह भी नहीं है जिसके कारण नागरिक समाज में कोई हित समूह का अस्तित्व नहीं है फलतः जनसहभागिता का सर्वथा अभाव होता है (Verma: 2018)। दूसरी तरफ लोगों को उद्योगों द्वारा प्रदूषण का दंश झेलना पड़ता है और इन साधन संपन्न और राजनीतिक पहुँच वाले उद्योगपतियों का विरोध नहीं कर पाते क्योंकि पर्यावरण संरक्षा हेतु बने संगठनों में उनकी भागीदारी नहीं होती (Planning Commission of India)।

निष्कर्ष

हमारे राजनीतिक कर्ताओं या राजनीतिज्ञों को पर्यावरण के प्रति वास्तविक रूप से संवेदनशील होना पड़ेगा और साथ ही लोगों को भी। यानि लोगों के बीच इस विषय पर और अधिक जागरूकता बढ़ाने की जरूरत है। इतना ही नहीं पर्यावरण संरक्षा हेतु निर्मित एजेंसियों एवं सरकारी संगठनों को जनसहभागी प्रकृति का बनाना होगा ताकि आम लोगों की आवाज नीति निर्माण एवं उनके कार्यान्वयन में सुनी जाए। हम गरीबी और बुनियादी आवश्यकता की प्रतिपूर्ति को हम नजरअंदाज नहीं कर सकते परन्तु सरकारी तंत्र संवेदनशील तथा प्रतिबद्ध रहे और सतत विकास को हर हालत में प्राथमिकता दे तो लक्ष्य की प्राप्ति की जा सकती है। अंततः सबसे ज्यादा जरूरी है एक समेकित नीति के निर्माण की ओर पर्यावरण नौकरशाही को पर्याप्त कुशल मानव संसाधन, वित्त, समुचित दण्डनीय अधिकार और जनसहभागी बनाना होगा। यदि पर्यावरण अक्षुण्ण रहेगा तो ही रोटी, कपड़ा और मकान की समस्या का भी हल आसानी से निकलेगा।

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स्वच्छता एवं स्वास्थ्य के प्रति आदिवासियों में सजगता: स्वच्छ भारत अभियान के आलोक में उराँव महिलाओं का एक अध्ययन

बिजेता रानी एवं सीमा डे*

सार संक्षेप

स्वास्थ्य मानव की अच्छी वृत्तियों की एक पहचान है एवं शारीरिक स्वच्छता के साथ-साथ मानसिक स्वच्छता भी जरूरी है। स्वच्छता के दो पहलू हैं - व्यक्तिगत और सार्वजनिक। हमारे देश में शारीरिक एवं सार्वजनिक स्वच्छता की अभाव ही बहुत-सी बीमारियों का कारण है। व्यक्तिगत स्वास्थ्य में केवल एक व्यक्ति के शारीरिक एवं मानसिक स्वास्थ्य तथा सामुदायिक स्वास्थ्य का संदर्भ समाज, परिवेश तथा आवासीय स्थान से है। महात्मा गाँधी ने स्वच्छता को व्यक्ति एवं समाज के लिए आवश्यक बताया और दक्षिण अफ्रीका सहित भारत में इसका प्रयोग भी किया। इसी आलोक में प्रस्तुत आलेख आदिवासियों में स्वच्छता की प्रवृत्ति के परीक्षण हेतु एक प्रयास करता है। हमारे प्रधानमंत्री मोदी ने भी 'स्वच्छ भारत अभियान' चलाया है तथा सम्पूर्ण भारत को खुले में शौच मुक्त या ओ.डी.एफ. करने का संकल्प लिया है। यहाँ यह देखना आवश्यक प्रतीत होता है कि अनुसूचित जनजातियों की महिलाओं पर इन विचारों का क्या प्रभाव पड़ा है? प्रस्तुत शोध के लिए कांके प्रखण्ड के छह गांवों को लिया गया है। ग्राम स्तर पर किए गए सर्वेक्षण के परिणाम बताते हैं कि पुरुषों की तुलना में अधिकांश उराँव महिलाएं अपने आसपास स्वच्छता को बनाए रखने का प्रयास करती हैं। काफी महिलाएं ताजा हरी सब्जियों का प्रयोग करती हैं तथा सब्जी काटकर धोती हैं। परन्तु लगभग तीन चौथाई उराँव महिलाएं शौच के लिए खुले में खासकर एकांत क्षेत्र जैसे खेत, जंगल, निर्जन स्थान आदि का प्रयोग करती हैं। लगभग आधी महिलाएं, जिनमें शारीरिक कमजोरी और कमर दर्द की शिकायत थी, गरीबी के कारण अपना उपचार नहीं कराती। अस्पताल दूर रहने के कारण इलाज नहीं कराने वाली महिलाओं का परिमाण बहुत कम है वहीं अज्ञानता और लापरवाही वस इलाज नहीं कराने वाली महिलाओं की संख्या ज्यादा है।

विषय सूचक शब्द: जनजाति, उराँव, महिला, स्वच्छता, स्वास्थ्य, झारखण्ड

परिचय

झारखण्ड में 32 जनजातियाँ निवास करती हैं। लेकिन आज सिर्फ तीन-चार जनजातियाँ ही उन्नत अवस्था में हैं, उसमें उराँव जनजाति एक प्रमुख जनजाति है। झारखण्ड की जनजातियों में संख्या

* लेखिका द्वय गृह विज्ञान विभाग, राँची विश्वविद्यालय, राँची के संकाय में कार्यरत हैं;

के दृष्टिकोण से यद्यपि ये संथालों के बाद द्वितीय स्थान पर हैं परंतु जीवन स्तर तथा जागरूकता के दृष्टि से ये सर्वोपरि हैं। 2011 की जनगणना के अनुसार झारखण्ड की जनजातियों की संख्या 8,6450,42 है, झारखण्ड में उराँव जनजाति की संख्या 1,716,618 है (Census 2011)। भारत की अधिकांश जनता गांवों में निवास करती है। यहाँ की सीधा सादा जीवन और सौम्य एवं सौहार्द्रपूर्ण वातावरण आज भी गरिमा लिए हुए हैं, परन्तु वहाँ का स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी वातावरण उपेक्षित है। स्वाधीनता के पश्चात् सरकार तथा समाज का ध्यान आकृष्ट हुआ है। व्यक्ति और समाज के कल्याण के लिए शारीरिक और वातावरण की स्वच्छता महत्वपूर्ण है। मानसिक एवं व्यवहारिक स्वच्छता से ही समाज का कायाकल्प तथा देश का उत्थान संभव है।

परिवार, समाज तथा राष्ट्र की संरचना में व्यक्ति विशेष का अपना ही महत्व है। सभ्यता और संस्कृति को आगे बढ़ाना भी उसका प्राकृतिक धर्म है जो उसके आत्मबल, कल्याण कामना तथा उत्तम विचार से आती है। स्वस्थ शरीर में ही स्वस्थ विचार पनपते हैं। स्वास्थ्य का अर्थ शरीर एवं मस्तिष्क की ऐसी अवस्था से है जिससे सभी कार्य सुचारू रूप से हो सके। एक स्वस्थ व्यक्ति ही पारिवारिक तथा सामाजिक दायित्वों को भली प्रकार से निर्वाह कर सकता है। आज सरकार तथा सामाजिक संस्थाओं का ध्यान ग्रामीणों के असंतोषजनक स्वास्थ्य पर है जिनपर राष्ट्रीय स्वास्थ्य स्तर निर्भर है। स्वस्थ रहना प्रत्येक व्यक्ति का परम कर्तव्य है। शरीर को मात्र रोगों से बचाकर रखना ही स्वास्थ्य नहीं है बल्कि इसका अभिप्राय सम्पूर्ण शारीरिक, मानसिक एवं सामाजिक अवस्था में स्वस्थ रहने से है। शारीरिक स्वास्थ्य का तात्पर्य शरीर के अंगों में पारस्परिक सामंजस्य रखते हुए, शरीर के सही क्रियान्वयन से है। शरीर को स्वस्थ रखने के लिए शक्ति की जरूरत होती है जो हमें भोजन के पोषक तत्वों से प्राप्त होती है। पर्याप्त पोषण अच्छे स्वास्थ्य की नींव है। स्वास्थ्य मनुष्य देश का अमूल्य रत्न है। शारीरिक स्वास्थ्य में त्वचा, दांत, बाल, मुँह, आंख, नाक, हाथ, पैर, आराम तथा नींद, व्यायाम, मनोरंजन, शरीर की स्थिति तथा शरीर की समस्त कार्य-प्रणाली एवं सफाई सम्मिलित है (शर्मा 2005)।

धार्मिक व सामाजिक प्रतिबंध भी हमारे पोषण में किसी न किसी रूप में गिरावट पैदा करते हैं। भोजन सम्बन्धी कुछ भ्रान्तियां भी हमें समुचित पोषण से वंचित रखती है। माताओं की धारणा है कि बच्चा जबतक स्तनपान करता है तो बच्चा पूर्ण पोषण प्राप्त करता रहता है और वह उसे लम्बे समय तक के लिए स्तनपान कराती ही रहती है तथा ऊपर का कोई आहार नहीं देती जिस कारण बच्चे का पोषण स्तर निम्न हो जाता है (आर्य 1990)।

स्वस्थ नागरिक समाज एवं राष्ट्र की निधि है। व्यक्ति की अस्वस्थता का प्रभाव उसकी कार्यक्षमता पर पड़ता है जिसका सीधा संबंध सम्पूर्ण राष्ट्र एवं समाज के विकास में अवरोध से है। अनुसूचित जाति एवं जनजाति आज भी जीवन की सुख सुविधाओं से वंचित वर्ग है। ये जनजातियां दूरस्थ स्थानों, जंगलों, पहाड़ियों, गांवों एवं दूरदराज के इलाके में रहते हैं। अतः उनतक स्वास्थ्य सुविधाएं पहुंचाना सहज कार्य नहीं है। जनजाति समूह आज भी स्वास्थ्य सुरक्षा हेतु जागरूक नहीं है और बीमारियों से निजात पाने के लिए वह अंधविश्वासों में जकड़ी परंपराओं का आश्रय लेते हैं (सारस्वत 2008)।

सम्पन्न उरांव जनजातियों का मुख्य भोजन भात, मकई, महुआ, गेहूं एवं जौ था। उरद तथा कलई दाल प्रयोग करते थे। सब्जी वे कभी-कभी ही खाते थे। जंगली पौधे, फुटकल के पत्ते, वृक्ष के पत्ते वे सब्जी के रूप में प्रयोग करते थे (टोप्पो, 2009)। जनजातीय समाज उपलब्ध ज्ञान से अनभिज्ञ है। उनका जीवन स्तर, शिक्षा स्तर एवं स्वास्थ्य स्तर अति निम्न है। दुर्गम पहाड़ी क्षेत्रों में निवास करने वाली जनजातियों के पास स्वास्थ्यगत आधारभूत संसाधनों का अभाव, शिक्षा का अभाव, जागरूकता के अभाव के कारण कई रोगों से ग्रसित हैं। मलेरिया, डिप्थेरिया, हैजा, पीलिया, टीबी जैसी रोगों से पीडित है। आज के युग में स्वास्थ्य किसी भी व्यक्ति, समाज, राष्ट्र की प्रथम आवश्यकता है (बखला, 2013)। स्वास्थ्य मनुष्य तथा समाज के विकास का एक महत्वपूर्ण सूचक है। जनजातीय समाज में स्वास्थ्य संबंधी अवधारणा जटिल है। वर्तमान समय में उरांव जनजाति में स्वास्थ्य की स्थिति अच्छी नहीं है इसका मुख्य कारण ग्रामीण परिवेश तथा जागरूकता की कमी है। लोगों में खुले में शौच के दुष्परिणाम की भी कम जानकारी थी (इमाम 2015)। कुमारी एवं कुमारी (2016) ने बताया कि सिर्फ 24 प्रतिशत महिलाएं ही समय पर भोजन करती थी। वे प्रतिदिन के भोजन में चावल का सेवन ज्यादा करती थी। उनके आहार में दूध, दही, दाल एवं फल प्रतिदिन नहीं था।

भारत गाँवों का देश है। जिसकी लगभग 70 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या गाँव में निवास करती है। जहाँ एक तरफ शहरी क्षेत्र तीव्र गति से विकास कर रहा है वहीं दूसरी तरफ ग्रामीण भारत में गरीबी, अशिक्षा, बेरोजगारी, स्वास्थ्य का अभाव, कुपोषण, सुरक्षित एवं पर्याप्त पेयजल की कमी आदि समस्याएं विकराल रूप धारण किए जा रही हैं। देश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में स्वास्थ्य की समस्या वहाँ की सामाजिक, आर्थिक एवं अन्य परिवेशीय स्थितियों के कारण विकराल रूप धारण करती जा रही है। अतः ग्रामीणों के लिए राज्य सरकार एवं संघीय सरकार द्वारा कई प्रकार के कार्यक्रम एवं नितियाँ क्रियान्वित किए जा रहे हैं, परन्तु इन स्वास्थ्य कार्यक्रमों को प्रभावी रूप से लागू करने के लिए नई-नई तकनीकों की आवश्यकता है। स्वास्थ्य मानव जीवन की एक अनमोल सम्पत्ति है। स्वास्थ्य किसी भी समाज की आर्थिक प्रगति के लिए अनिवार्य है। जो भी व्यक्ति अथवा समाज स्वास्थ्य की दृष्टि से पिछड़ा हुआ है वह न केवल विकास की दृष्टि से पिछड़ जाएगा, बल्कि ऐसे समाज में जीवन मूल्यों की स्थापना करना भी बेहद कठिन है। अच्छे स्वास्थ्य के अभाव में व्यक्ति और व्यक्तियों से निर्मित समाज अपने गुणों के अनुरूप सर्वश्रेष्ठ प्रदर्शन करने में सक्षम नहीं हो पाता। मानव जीवन में स्वास्थ्य के इसी महत्व को स्वीकारते हुए इसे राज्य सूची में शामिल किया गया है, क्योंकि राज्य आम आदमी से सीधे तौर पर जुड़ा हुआ है।

स्वतन्त्रता से पहले देश के ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों में प्रतिवर्ष संक्रामक रोगों से करीब 13 लाख लोग काल-ग्रास हो जाते थे। आजाद भारत में गाँवों के स्वास्थ्य परिदृश्य में काफी सुधार हुआ है हांलाकि अभी भी इस दिशा में बहुत कुछ किया जाना बाकी है। इसमें कोई संदेह नहीं है कि पहले गाँवों में निरक्षरता और अन्धविश्वास के चलते बहुत लोग की मौत हो जाती थी, लेकिन अब स्थिति पहले जैसी नहीं है। गाँवों में शिक्षा के प्रचार-प्रसार से ग्रामीण लोगों में नई जागरूकता आ रही है। सरकारी योजनाओं के कारण भी सकारात्मक प्रभाव पड़ा है। स्वास्थ्य नीति आज

हमारे देश की एक महत्वपूर्ण नीति है और पंचवर्षीय योजनाओं का प्रमुख हिस्सा है। आज हमारे देश में स्वास्थ्य सेवाओं का अभाव नहीं है। बल्कि उसका सही तरीके से क्रियान्वयन व सभी व्यक्तियों तक सेवाओं को पहुँचाना एक अहम् चुनौती है जिसे अच्छे स्वस्थ प्रशासन से ही पूरा किया जा सकता है।

जनजातीय समाजों में स्वास्थ्य और रोग की समस्या रही है जिसका समाधान मुख्यतः सामाजिक-आर्थिक-सांस्कृतिक उपागमों एवं व्यवहार के द्वारा किया जाता रहा है। स्वास्थ्य एवं रोग संबंधी समस्याएं मानव समाज की सार्वभौमिक समस्याएं हैं। प्रत्येक समाज में स्वास्थ्य की दशाओं को अनुकूल बनाने तथा व्याधिकीय परिस्थितियों के नियंत्रण के लिए विभिन्न प्रकार के विश्वास, मूल्य एवं व्यवहार प्रतिमानों का प्रचलन रहा है। आदिम एवं परम्परागत समाजों में स्वास्थ्य रोग एवं चिकित्सा संबंधी विश्वासों, मूल्यों एवं व्यवहारों का अपना पृथक अस्तित्व न होकर यह सम्पूर्ण संस्कृति के विभिन्न अंग रहे हैं। आधुनिक जटिल समाजों में प्रकृति, जीव और सामाजिक पर्यावरण से संबंधित दृष्टिकोणों में महत्वपूर्ण परिवर्तन हो रहे हैं। यह परिवर्तन न केवल जीवन की भौतिक दशाओं वरन् मूल्यों, विचारों और दृष्टिकोणों से भी संबंधित है।

आज के आधुनिक जटिल समाज में स्वास्थ्य और रोग की समस्याएं जितनी अधिक सामाजिक-आर्थिक दशाओं से संबंधित हो गई है उतना विशुद्ध प्राकृतिक या जैवीय दशाओं से नहीं। जनजातीय समाज में सामाजिक-आर्थिक स्तर, व्यवसाय, आय, जीवन स्तर और जीवन शैली का अन्तर स्वास्थ्य दशाओं के अध्ययन महत्वपूर्ण परिवर्तन है। इस संबंध को वैज्ञानिक रूप से जानने की आवश्यकता है। अतः वर्तमान अध्ययन में यह जानने का प्रयत्न किया जा रहा है कि किस प्रकार परिवार की इकाई, रोग की इकाई बनती है। उपचार के लिए कोई रोगी विशेष को नहीं बल्कि समस्त परिवार को स्वास्थ्य परिचर्या पर ध्यान देना होगा। इस अध्ययन का उद्देश्य उराँव महिलाओं में स्वच्छता एवं स्वास्थ्य के प्रति दृष्टिकोण है।

शोध विधि

प्रस्तुत शोध का यूनिवर्स झारखण्ड की आदिवासी महिलायें थीं जिसमें से कांके प्रखण्ड के छह गाँवों से 300 उराँव महिलाओं को प्रतिचयनित किया गया है। प्रतिचयन के दैव निदर्शन विधि से प्रत्येक गाँव से 50-50 महिलाओं को प्रतिचयनित किया गया। उनका स्वच्छता तथा स्वास्थ्य के प्रति दृष्टिकोण से संबंधित जानकारी प्राप्त करने के लिए साक्षात्कार विधि से अनुसूचि की सहायता से आंकड़ा एकत्र किया गया। आंकड़ों का सारणीयन एवं उनका विश्लेषण सामान्य सांख्यिकी सिद्धान्तों की सहायता से किया गया तथा निष्कर्ष निकाला गया।

स्वच्छता एवं स्वास्थ्य के प्रति जागरूकता

स्वच्छता स्वास्थ्य का पहला चिन्ह है। व्यक्तिगत स्वच्छता के साथ-साथ वातावरण की स्वच्छता आवश्यक है। स्वच्छ शरीर में रोगाणुओं से रक्षा होती है। भारत में अधिकांश बीमारियों का कारण खराब पर्यावरण स्वच्छता है। ग्रामीण क्षेत्रों की स्वच्छता एक समस्या है।

सारणी 1: उरांव महिलाओं में स्वच्छता के प्रति जागरूकता

क्र.	आवास के आस-पास स्वच्छता	संख्या	प्रतिशत
1.	अच्छी	231	77
2	गंदी	57	19
3.	सामान्य	12	4
आवास का कूड़ा-कचरा			
1.	घर के पास	54	18
2	घर से दूर	222	74
3.	गड्ढे में	24	08
आवास की सफाई			
1.	प्रतिदिन	192	64
2.	1-1 दिन के अंतराल	60	20
3.	2-दिन पर	38	12
4.	सप्ताह में एक बार	12	4

सारणी 1 से स्पष्ट है कि अधिकांश 77 प्रतिशत महिलाएं अपने आसपास स्वच्छता बनाएं रखती थी, 74 प्रतिशत महिलाएं घर से निकलने वाले कुड़ा-कचड़ा को घर से दूर डालती थी तथा 64 प्रतिशत अपने घरों की सफाई प्रतिदिन करती थी।

सारणी 2: खानपान के संबंध में उरांव महिलाओं की जागरूकता

क्र.	खाना पकाने में ऊर्जा के साधन	संख्या	प्रतिशत
1.	लकड़ी	51	17
2.	उपला/गोएठा	36	12
3.	कोयला	126	42
4.	स्टोव	18	06
5.	हीटर	06	02
6.	गैस	63	21
ख. उपकरण का उपयोग			
1.	केवल मिट्टी का बर्तन	-	-
2	स्टील का बर्तन	048	16
3.	एल्युमिनीयम का बर्तन	135	45
4.	उपरोक्त सभी	117	39
ग. प्रतिदिन सब्जी बनाने की प्रवृत्ति			
1.	धोकर काटना	54	18
2	काट कर धोना	246	82

3.	सब्जी ढककर पकाना	231	77
4.	सब्जी खुला पकाना	69	23
5.	सुखी सब्जी	60	20
6.	ताजी हरी सब्जी	105	35
7.	दोनों	135	45

नोट - मल्टीपल रेस्पॉन्स के कारण उत्तरों का प्रतिशत निकाला गया।

सारणी 2 से स्पष्ट है कि ज्यादातर 42 प्रतिशत महिलाएं ईंधन के रूप में कोयला का इस्तेमाल करती थीं। सिर्फ 2 प्रतिशत ही हीटर का उपयोग करती थीं। खाना पकाने में 45 प्रतिशत अल्मूनियम के बर्तन का प्रयोग करती थीं। आंकड़ों के अनुसार 82 प्रतिशत महिलाएं सब्जी काटकर धोती थीं तथा 77 प्रतिशत सब्जी ढककर पकाती थीं। 45 प्रतिशत खाने में ताजा और सुखी सब्जियों का प्रयोग करती थीं।

आहार व्यवहार

सारणी 3: उराँव महिलाओं की आहारीय आदत

क्र.		संख्या	प्रतिशत
नास्ते एवं भोजन में अन्तराल			
1.	दो घंटा	06	02
2	चार घंटा	114	38
3.	कोई निश्चित समय नहीं	180	60
भोजन की आवृत्ति			
1.	दिन भर में एक बार	12	04
2	दिन भर में दो बार	57	19
3.	दिन भर में तीन बार	231	70
महिलाओं में प्रतिदिन भोजन ग्रहण किए जानेवाले खाद्य पदार्थ			
1.	भात, दाल, सब्जी	105	35
2	भात, हरी साग, माड़, झोर	180	60
3.	भात, मांस, मछली	15	05
अनाज लेने की स्थिति			
1.	चावल	72	24
2	मडुआ	42	14
3.	बाजरा	06	02
4.	ज्वार	09	03
5.	गेहूँ	06	02

क्र.		संख्या	प्रतिशत
5.	मक्का	78	26

नोट - मल्टीपल रेस्पॉन्स के कारण उत्तरों का प्रतिशत निकाला गया।

सारणी 3 से पता चलता है कि 60 प्रतिशत उरांव महिलाओं के खाने का कोई निश्चित समय नहीं था, 70 प्रतिशत दिनभर में तीन बार खाना खाती थी, 60 प्रतिशत भात, हरी साग, माड़ झोर खाती थी तथा सिर्फ 5 प्रतिशत ही भात के साथ मांस, मछली खाती थी। अधिकांश ग्रामीण जनता अभी भी संतुलित भोजन के महत्व से अनभिज्ञ है। गोपालन एवं अन्य (2002) के अनुसार चावल, गेहूँ और मोटे अनाज जैसे ज्वार, बाजरा, रागी आदि भारत के मुख्य खाद्यान्न है। ये कैलोरी-प्राप्ति के सस्ते से सस्ते साधन हैं। भारत के अधिकांश जन समूह को आहार द्वारा ये 70 से 80 प्रतिशत तक कैलोरी प्रदान करते हैं। आहार में खाद्यानों की ही प्रधानता होने के कारण, ये खाद्यान्न भारतीय सामान्य आहार के पौष्टिक तत्वों के महत्वपूर्ण साधन हैं। अधिकतम खाद्यानों में 6 से 12 प्रतिशत तक प्रोटीन होते हैं। अनाजों में बहुधा खनिज लवणों की कमी होती है, और चावल में तो खनिज-कैल्शियम और लौह बहुत ही कम होते हैं। परन्तु रोगी में कैल्शियम बहुतायत से पाए जाते हैं बाजरा भी लौह का एक उत्तम साधन है दालों में प्रोटीन अधिक होते हैं। दैनिक आहार में दालें जिस मात्रा में खाई जाती हैं उस मात्रा में उनमें अधिक खनिज पदार्थ प्राप्त नहीं होते परन्तु अंकुरित करने पर विटामिन सी सार्थक मात्राओं में बढ़ जाता है अतः अंकुरित दाले विशेषकर अंकुरित मूँग और चना इस विटामिन का उत्तम साधन बन जाती है।

सारणी 4: उराँव महिलाओं में हड़िया/नशा पीने की स्थिति

क्र.	नशा लेने की स्थिति	संख्या	प्रतिशत
1.	हड़िया पीना	120	40
2	धुम्रपान करना	69	23
3.	पान खाना	27	09
4.	तम्बाकू खाना	.75	25
5.	इनमें से कोई नहीं	09	03
हड़िया पीने के कारण			
1.	नशा के लिए	30	10
2.	स्फूर्ति के लिए	45	15
3.	आमोद-प्रमोद के लिए	75	25
4.	सामाजिक प्रथा	200	66.7
हड़िया पीने के लाभ			
1.	पीलिया, लू एवं दस्त में लाभदायक	12	30
2	थकान दूर करने में	95	31.7
3.	पेट को ठंडा रखने में	231	77

हड़िया से नुकसान

1.	पारिवारिक कलह	69	23
2.	कई तरह की बीमारी	41	13.7
3.	आर्थिक हानि	57	19

नोट - मल्टीपल रेस्पॉन्स के कारण उत्तरों का प्रतिशत निकाला गया।

सारणी 4 से स्पष्ट है कि केवल 3 प्रतिशत महिलाएं ही ऐसी थीं जो किसी भी प्रकार के नशा का सेवन नहीं करती थीं। जनजातीय लोगों के स्वास्थ्य से संबंधित समस्याओं में नशीले पेय पदार्थों का सेवन भी एक महत्वपूर्ण समस्या है। महुआ से भी नशीला पेय पदार्थ बनाया जाता है। यह पारम्परिक मदिरा इनके घरों में महिलाओं द्वारा बनाई जाती है। कभी-कभी इनकी अधिक मात्रा लेने से मृत्यु तक हो जाती है।

आदिवासी समाज में हड़िया का सेवन भोजन के रूप में किया जाता है। इसका उपयोग करने से जौंडिस तथा बावासिर में लाभदायक होता है। यह चावल को पकाकर जड़ी-बुटियां मिलाकर तैयार की जाती है (हांसदा 2016)।

शौचालय के उपयोग की प्रवृत्ति

सारणी 5: उपयोग में लाए जाने वाले शौचालयों का वर्गीकरण

क्र	शौच जाने की स्थिति	संख्या	प्रतिशत
1.	शौचालय	57	19
2.	सामूहिक शौचालय	21	07
3.	खुले में	222	74
	योग	300	100

सारणी 5 से स्पष्ट है कि 74 प्रतिशत महिलाएं आज भी शौच के लिए खुले में ही जाती हैं। यद्यपि सरकार द्वारा इन क्षेत्रों में शौचालय बनाने का कार्य किया जा रहा है। प्रकृति के नजदीक होने के कारण ये दैनिक निवृत्ति के लिए खुले क्षेत्रों का ही प्रयोग करती हैं।

निष्कर्ष एवं सुझाव

एक स्वस्थ व्यक्ति ही अपने परिवार एवं समाज के दायित्व को भली प्रकार से निर्वाह कर सकता है। स्वस्थ रहने के लिए शुद्ध वायु, सूर्य की रोशनी, स्वच्छ पेयजल, पौष्टिक आहार, स्वच्छता, निद्रा तथा व्यायाम आवश्यक है। व्यक्तिगत स्वास्थ्य से कार्यक्षमता में वृद्धि, रोगों से लड़ने की क्षमता, बिमारियों से बचाव, हृष्ट-पुष्ट एवं सुदौल शरीर तथा रोग मुक्त होता है। भोजन का स्वास्थ्य से घनिष्ठ सम्बन्ध है। पर्याप्त पोषण अच्छे स्वास्थ्य की नींव है। उरांव आदिवासियों की आदतें एवं प्रवृत्ति स्वास्थ्य एवं स्वच्छता के प्रति अच्छी नहीं हैं जिसके कारण उनमें मॉर्बिडिटी

अधिक है। ग्रामीण स्वास्थ्य सुधार के लिए आवश्यकता है - कूड़ा संग्रह के लिए व्यवस्था, शौचालय की व्यवस्था, स्वच्छ व शुद्ध पानी की व्यवस्था, धुआरहित चूल्हे की व्यवस्था, मवेशियों को निवास स्थान से दूर रखने की व्यवस्था, अस्पताल की व्यवस्था, हाट की व्यवस्था तथा कुएं की सफाई की व्यवस्था। स्वास्थ्य शिक्षा के लिए ग्रामीण जनता को स्वास्थ्य संबंधी विषयों पर जानकारी देने की जरूरत है ताकि स्वस्थ जीवनयापन की दिशा में समुचित मार्गदर्शन मिल सके। गांवों में स्वच्छता तथा स्वास्थ्य के ज्ञान का प्रसार करना अत्यन्त ही आवश्यक है। जीवन शैली में बदलाव लाकर व्यक्ति एक स्वच्छ समाज ही नहीं बल्कि एक स्वच्छ राष्ट्र का सृजन भी कर सकता है।

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