

ISSN 0302-9298

Contemporary SOCIAL SCIENCES

Approved by University Grants Commission (No. 41795)
Global Impact Factor : 0.765; General Impact Factor : 2.495
Index Copernicus ICV : 62.45; NAAS Rating : 2.88; InfoBase Index : 3.64

Founder
S. S. Shashi

Chief Editor
Dharam Vir

Volume 28, Number 2 (April-June), 2019



Research Foundation International, New Delhi

Affiliated to United Nations Organization (UNO)

(Autonomous, Regd. Recognized Charitable Organization of
Social Scientists, Authors, Journalists & Social Activists)

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Double-blind Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed Quarterly International Journal
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Contemporary Social Sciences (CSS) is a quarterly peer reviewed & refereed international journal published since 1972 under the auspicious of Research Foundation (an autonomous, registered (1972), recognized charitable organization of social scientists, authors, journalists and social activists). The journal is published regularly in the months of March, June, September and December. The annual subscription is ₹ 2000 in India and US \$ 80 abroad, including postage by Registered Post/ Airmail. All the subscriptions must be prepaid in favour of M/S Saksham Computers, payable at Meerut.

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ISSN 0302-9298; DOI : 10.29070/CSS

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Sub-National Debt Sustainability Analysis : The Case of Indian State of Karnataka

Nikita Pahwa*

This study checks debt sustainability of Karnataka state, in long run, in its Pre and Post Fiscal Responsibility Legislation (FRL) era. Applying the Domar's model of fiscal sustainability indicator analysis and Engle Granger co-integration techniques to establish the long-term relationship between expenditure and receipts, the study analyses the finances of Karnataka government during the period of 1991-2015. This analysis divides the whole period of study in four phases, i.e. 1991-96 and 1997-2002 as pre FRL era and 2003-08 and 2009-15 as post FRL era. The debt in Karnataka state turned out to be sustainable. However, certain issues of negative primary balance, increasing debt growth rate as compared to interest rates and increased variability of its revenue receipts did emerge out of this analysis. The major implications of this analysis are the warning signs for the Karnataka state, which the policy makers can use, while planning the state finances. The aim of the study is to provide an application of domars framework, which then can be used by other Indian states, to maintain their debt sustainability.

[**Keywords** : Debt, Debt management, State and local budget and expenditures, State and local borrowing]

1. Rationale

Sub national finances are of the utmost importance in case of India. With the advent of decentralization of finances, state government's responsibility of

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spending on public good and services has increased. Initially in India, the federal structure of polity and governance was of two tiers; namely; the Central and the State governments. The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendment accorded a new, third tier of government, in the form of rural and the urban local bodies. Given the decentralized form of government, the responsibility of the state government has increased, in terms of expenditure and debt management. Sub National governments, which incurs more than 3/4th of the total expenditure on social services and more than half on economic services, collects only one third of total government receipts. This increased responsibility of expenditure, has fallen short of states own tax revenues and inter governmental transfers from the centre, and thus making states dependant on borrowings (Kaur et al, 2014). These borrowings need re-examination in the light of State's repayment capacity.

Borrowings per se are not bad, if utilized for productive purposes. However, when not employed in an in-efficient manner, they can lead to fiscal indiscipline. The fiscal position of all the State governments in India deteriorated during 1997-98 to 2003-04, but improved 2004 onwards. This improvement attributes itself to Fiscal responsibility and Budget Management Act (FRBMA) as called at the central level or Fiscal Responsibility Legislation (FRLs), at State level. The fiscal consolidation initiatives by the Centre, complemented by debt and interest relief measures, further helped in improving the macroeconomic situation of Indian economy. It also led to a high growth rate phase and reversal of interest rate cycle in mid 2000s. Majority of the Indian States have adhered to their targets of fiscal sustainability except few, which are still struggling.

Karnataka was one of the first States, to implement its FRL, in 2002, ahead of every other Indian State. Just after the implementation of FRL, State was able to achieve its target of fiscal deficit under 3 percent, before 2006. Furthermore, State reduced its revenue deficit to nil by 2004-05, and achieved a surplus in revenue account by then. Even though, the state achieved its basic targets of fiscal adequacy quickly, when viewed from the perspective of long run debt sustainability there exists plethora of issues that requires analysis and policy attention. It is with this spirit that this study tries to expand the literature on Sub National fiscal sustainability analysis, for Indian States. This detailed Domar's indicator based analysis is one the first attempts, made on the finances of the Karnataka State. This study can be considered as motivation for other Indian states to carry out debt sustainability analysis, periodically, so that the targets of fiscal deficit at sub-national and national level can be maintained.

2. Objective

The objective of this study is twofold. First, is to analyze the current fiscal situation of Karnataka state finances in Pre and Post FRL Era, by using Domar's sustainability analysis. For this purpose, study fragments itself into four Phases :

Two Pre FRL periods from 1991-1996, 1997-2002, and two post-FRL phases from 2003-2008, and 2009-2015. The second objective of this study is to check the long run debt sustainability of the state. For this purpose, the study uses Inter temporal Budget constraint approach, and tests unit root of the debt, total revenue, and expenditure series. Furthermore, the study also applies two-step Engle Granger tests of co-integration, to derive the conclusion regarding long run sustainability.

This paper discusses the literature review and various studies that have analyzed the issue at both the National and the Sub National level, pertaining to India in section 2. Theoretical framework of indicator based analysis, based on Domar's model of sustainability, is elaborated in section 3. Section 4 emphasizes on data source and methodology. Section 5 provides the situation analysis of major fiscal indicators, for the Karnataka State. Section 6 provides major findings from sustainability analysis to derive some major policy conclusions and section 7 concludes.

3. Literature Review

Many studies have tried to test the debt sustainability of Indian states, at both aggregate, as well as individual state level. Report Submitted by Dholakia, Mohan & Karan (2004), to the Twelfth Finance Commission, underlined the issue of increasing Sub National Government (SNGs) debt and its credible magnitude. The report concludes, fiscal stance of SNGs to be highly unsustainable. Ianchovichina et al. (2006) studied the fiscal sustainability of Tamil Nadu and pointed out that fiscal policy in state has been ambitious and challenging. Furthermore, study concluded that the State has a lot of fiscal space to expand its infrastructure expenditure without hurting its fiscal sustainability. Raju (2007) studied the fiscal sustainability of all Indian States in aggregation and questioned if states can continue with same expenditure-receipts pattern indefinitely or not, and if they can maintain solvency in future. Except the overall gap indicator, all the other indicators showed poor performance, for all the Indian States. Misra and Khundrakpam (2009), studied state governments finances during 1991-92 to 2007-08, concluded that at the state level, the average primary revenue balance has not been adequate to meet the interest payments. The liabilities were unsustainable as per the Present Value Budget Constraint Approach (PVBC).

Makin & Arora (2012) in their study of all Indian States, for period 1991-2010, found that despite high rate of interest on debt, the possibility of increase in growth of public debt, without bound, is minimal. It was mainly due to high growth rates of GSDP at Sub National level. This study further cautioned about existing high level of public debt as a proportion of GSDP, which was above the 25 % mark. With an economic slowdown, the vicious circle of high interest premium demanded by creditors might put the States in trouble. This paper reinforced that all the Indian States needs to focus on their primary budgets, in order to achieve long run sustainability as a whole. In a study of three States, i.e; Kerala, West Bengal, and

Punjab, Das (2013), found that none of the states attained full fiscal sustainability. Kerala and Punjab attained partial sustainability, as compared to West Bengal, which is far away from the target, as its future surpluses will not be enough to cover its debt servicing. Furthermore, to reach long run equilibrium, revenue account needs special attention, in case of all the three States.

Nayak and Rath (2014) studied debt sustainability for seven special category States, for period of 1991-2009, using Domar sustainability criteria. Except Arunachal Pradesh, all other States met the debt sustainability conditions. The study concluded that a high amount of outstanding liabilities could put the fiscals of Arunachal Pradesh in trouble, in case the borrower defaults. Study by Dutta et al (2010), on fiscal sustainability of Assam, for the period of 1991-2010, found only little stress in fiscal situation of the State. Overall sustainability targets were found to be under control of the state. Dasgupta et al (2012), examined six Indian states from 2003-2012, and found out that only three out of six states were financing their revenue expenditure from their tax receipts. This actually meant that these three states could use their borrowings for productive purposes of capital expenditure. The analysis concluded that all states maintained their debt/GSDP ratio for the period of analysis.

Dutta & Dutta (2014), who studied the fiscal sustainability of Assam for 1991-2010, pointed out persistently large and fluctuating fiscal deficit. Occurrence of revenue deficit was major reason for a higher fiscal deficit. The paper found presence of co-integration between revenue and expenditure as well as revenue receipts and total expenditure, to provide the evidence of fiscal sustainability in long run for the state.

Kaur et al (2014) analyzed 20 Indian States through indicator based empirical analysis from 1980 to 2013. The study indicates that there exist co-integration between government revenue and expenditure, which leads to satisfaction of inter temporal budget constraint. In addition, this study calculates a fiscal policy response function that responds in stabilizing manner, to increase in debt, thereby concluding sustainability of debt at the aggregate State level. Maurya (2014) conducted a study on Uttar Pradesh, which employs Domar sustainability and budget constraint approach, to check the debt sustainability condition for the state. Conducted for a period of 1991 to 2013, the study used co-integration technique, to find long-term debt sustainability, however finds no evidence for their hypothesis. Overall, the fiscal health of UP indicates to be sustainable in post FRL years.

Narayan (2016) in its analysis for Haryana's debt sustainability, used indicator based analysis of Domar's framework as well as Present Value Budget Constraint approach. The study concludes that debt is sustainable for the state of Haryana; however, in comparison to other States the debt sustainability of the state has deteriorated over a period of time.

4. Domar's Sustainability Framework and Budget Constraint Approach

Academic literature and multilateral policy discussion uses the definition of sustainability with increasing frequency, but uses them in different context at different places (Balassone and Franco, 2000, Chalk and Hemming, 2000). Definition of debt sustainability affects the assessment of the issue of debt sustainability.

In his pioneering work, Domar in 1994, pointed out that primary deficit path of an economy is sustainable as long as the real growth of the economy remains higher than the real interest rates. Buiter in 1985 argued that a policy that keeps net worth of public sector to output ratio, at current level, can be considered as a sustainable policy. Blanchard, in 1990s, defined sustainability based on two conditions a) the ratio of debt to GDP should initially converge back to its original position and b) the present discounted value of the ratio of primary surplus to GDP should be equal to the current level of debt to GDP. Buiter (1985), Blanchard et al(1990) and Blanchard(1990), consider debt level of an economy to be sustainable if the country's debt to GDP ratio remains stable and further if the economy generates debt stabilizing primary balance to cover the debt in future. Conventional budget constraint analysis is an accounting based approach and can be understood with the following equation :

$$B_t = (1 + r)B_{t-1} - PB_t$$

It mainly depicts that debt at the beginning of the period t, i.e. B_t equals past period debt, including interest payment but adjusted for primary balance. Primary balance (PB) can be either a surplus (PS) or a deficit (PD). Hence, a fiscal policy is sustainable if the initial stock of debt is equal to the sum of present discounted value of primary surpluses. Furthermore, inter temporal budget constraint is satisfied only if the discounted sum of end period debt converges to zero and becomes zero. This is transversality condition, which requires that for an economy, debt should not grow more than the interest rates. Expressed in terms of GDP, the GDP growth rate should be lesser than the interest rates so that the discounted terminal period debt ratio converges to zero. Hence, this means that in case of a positive initial public debt, the sum of cumulated discounted future public surpluses should exceed the sum of the cumulated discounted future public deficits. However, if the rate of growth of GDP were higher than the interest rate, there would be reverse stabilizing effect on the ratio of debt to GDP.

In summary, if the rate of growth of economy is higher than the growth of rate of interest, than it is possible for an economy to finance its deficits. Among various sustainability indicators, used in various analyses, the following set of variables are final for this study. Table-1, presents a comprehensive list of variables, which are put to test to analyze the debt sustainability, in context of Karnataka State, for period ranging from 1991 to 2015.

Table-1 : Indicator Analysis Parameters Description

SI. No	Indicators	Symbolic Representation	Interpretation
1.	Rate of growth of debt (D) should be lower than rate of growth of nominal GDP (G)	$D - G < 0$	This assesses the sustainability in aggregate terms, which means that the growth rate of GDP should exceed the growth rate of rate of interest.
2.	Rate of growth of debt (D) should be lower than effective interest rate (i)	$D - i < 0$	
3.	Real rate of interest (r) should be lower than real output growth (g)	$r - g < 0$	
4.a.	Primary balance (PB) should be in surplus	$PB/GDP > 0$	Tests the sustainability from revenue account perspective. Additional condition is that primary revenue balance should be in surplus, to repay the current debt stock.
4b.	Primary revenue balance (PRB) should be in surplus	$PRB/GDP > 0$	
5a.	Revenue Receipts (RR) as a per cent to GDP should increase over time	RR/GDP	Revenue should be rising and there should be less variability in terms of the revenue generation, which mainly means consistent flow of revenue receipts over the years, to meet debt requirements.
5b.	Revenue variability should decline over time	$CV(RR/GDP)$	
6a.	Debt to revenue receipts ratio should decline over time	D/RR	Debt as a ratio to revenue receipts, tax revenue and own tax revenue receipts should be falling over time.
6b.	Debt to tax revenue ratio should decline over time	D/TR	
6c.	Debt to own tax revenue ratio should decline over time	D/OTR	
7a.	Interest burden defined by interest payments (IP) as a per cent to GDP should decline over time	IP/GDP	Interest payments as proportion to GDP, revenue expenditure as well as revenue receipts should be falling overtime
7b.	Interest payments (IP) as a per cent of revenue expenditure (RE) should decline over time	IP/RE	
7c.	Interest payments (IP) as a per cent of revenue receipts (RR) should decline over time	IP/RR	

Source : Kaur et al. (2014)

5. Data Source and Methodology

This study seeks to analyze the performance of FRL implementation in Karnataka (implemented in 2002). Therefore, the period of analysis is in fragments of four phases. First two phases belongs to Pre-FRL era from 1991-1996 and 1997-2002. The other two phases are post-FRL from 2003-2008, and 2009-2015. Variables required for indicator based analysis (presented in Table-1) are; debt, nominal and real GSDP of Karnataka, effective rate of interest (i), real rate of interest (r), Primary balance, revenue receipts, outstanding debt, total receipts, tax revenue, own tax revenue, interest payments, revenue receipts and revenue expenditure. Data for all of these variables is available from State Finances by Reserve Bank of India (RBI). Data for State wise GSDP is available from Central Statistical Organization (CSO). The inflation rate of economy is from World Bank database.

5.1 Inter Temporal Budget Constraint

5.1.1 Test for Stationary

In empirical literature, the debt sustainability analysis extends from simple indicator based study to testing of inter temporal budget constraint. This process requires to check the stationarity of debt series as well as to check the co-integration between total government receipts and total expenditure. While the stationarity of the debt series indicates statistical reversion towards its mean values after temporary disturbances, the presence of co-integration indicates co-movements and anchoring of fiscal imbalances.

It is with this motive that first we need to identify for the stationarity of the series, by applying Unit root test. This study uses, Phillips Perron test of checking stationarity. After that the study employs Two Step Engle Granger Method of co-integration to check for long run sustainability of debt.

5.1.2 Inter temporal Budget Constraints

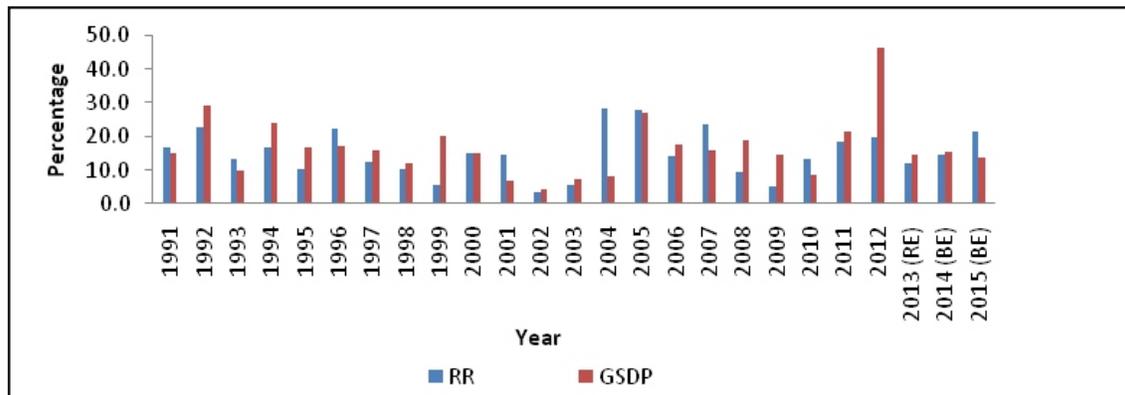
This testing of inter temporal budget constraint requires few pre requisites to be fulfilled. This test checks if the past behaviour by variables like fiscal deficit, government revenue, and expenditure can continue indefinitely without promoting adverse response from investors, who finance their borrowings. The inter-temporal budget constraint, works under the assumption that the funding of interest payments are not made from the new debt issuances imposes restrictions on the time series properties of government expenditure and revenues. (Kaur et al). To satisfy this condition, it is required that government expenditure, revenue, and debt stock, all becomes stationary at first difference. In case the revenue expenditure and receipts are integrated of Order I(1), and co integrated as well, the ECM mechanism would push the economy's finances towards the level required

by the inter temporal budget constraint and hence assure fiscal and debt sustainability in Long Run (Cashin and Olekalns, 2000).

6. Fiscal Situation In Karnataka (1991-2015)

Karnataka government witnessed a decline in its growth of revenue receipts from 16.3 percent in 1991 to 3.2 percent in 2002. The revenue receipts picked up after implementation of FRL and reached a growth rate of 28 % in 2005 and stood at around 895 billion in 2014 with annual growth rate of 15 % for 2013-14. The revenue receipt, has fallen as, compared to pre FRL era. The rate of growth of GSDP remained higher than growth rate of revenue receipts, except for few years of 1996, 2001, 2004, 2007 and 2010 (Exhibit-1). The period of 2007-10, witnessed a decline in receipts, due to lower tax rates measures that government undertook to stabilize the state economy after recessionary trends of the crisis of 2007.

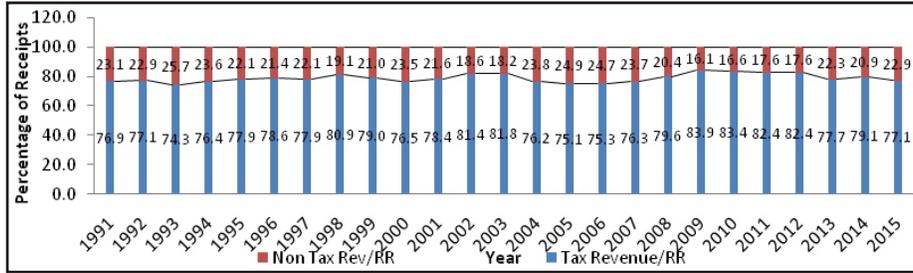
Exhibit-1 : Revenue Receipts & GSDP Growth Rates- Karnataka (1991-2015)



Source : State Finances : A Study of Budget, RBI

In terms of total revenue, the proportion of tax revenue as percentage of revenue receipts has increased in Post FRL period of 2003-2015 to 79.3% as compared to the Pre FRL era of 1991-2002, of 77% (Exhibit-2). However, on the other hand, a decline is observed in non-tax revenue as proportion to revenue receipts from 22.1% in Pre FRL era to 20% in Post FRL era. The biggest concern lies in the falling proportion of non-tax revenue category as proportion to total revenue receipts overtime. The non tax revenue which is a summation of Own Non Tax Revenue and Grants from centre has mainly seen a decline, due to falling share of own non tax revenue category. This category has seen a decline from 12.9% in pre FRL Era of 1991-2002 to 7.9% in post FRL Era (Table-2). The main reason for falling revenue, in this category is, dwindling shares of economic and social service. Even though the government has increased expenditure on these categories, the return and cost recovery from these departments has been abysmally low (Gayathri., K., 2014). The decline in non-tax revenue is been compensated by an increase in grants from centre, which has seen an increase of 3 percentage points from pre to post FRL period.

Exhibit-2 : Proportion of Tax and Non-Tax Revenue out of Total Revenue Receipts



Source: State Finances, RBI

Table-2 : Details of Receipts in Karnataka as proportion to total revenue receipts (1991-2015)

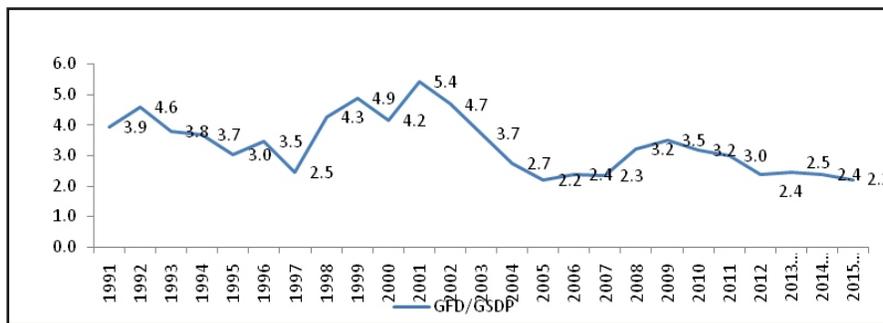
Year	State Own Tax Revenue (SOTR)/ Revenue Receipts (RR)	Share in Centre Tax/RR	Own Non Tax Rev/RR	Grants from Centre/RR
1991-2002	60.4	17.2	12.9	9.5
2003-2015	63.8	15.6	7.9	12.6

Source : State Finances, RBI

With regard to Tax revenues, the state has witnessed a fall in share of Central Taxes from 17.2% in Pre FRL period to 15.6% in Post FRL era. The fall in share of central taxes, attributes to change in formula of devolution overtime, based on the development of the State. This fall has been more than compensated by an increase in States own tax revenue during the same period from 60.4% in 1991-2002 to 63.8 % in 2003-2015 (Table-2).

In terms of deficit management, state averted disaster faced during 1990s and early 2000's by implementing Fiscal Responsibility legislation (FRL) Act. Fiscal prudence, with other stringent reforms in practice, resulted in falling Gross Fiscal Deficit (GFD). The GFD fell from an average of 4.0 percent during 1991-2002 to under 3.0 percent (FRL Target for Karnataka GFD) i.e. at 2.7 percent during 2003-2015 (Exhibit-3).

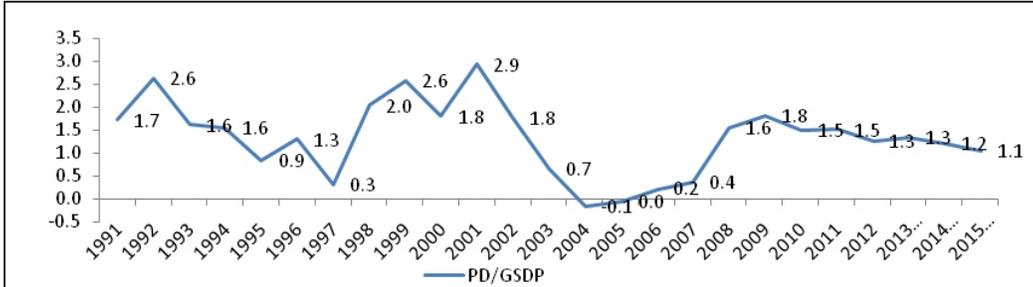
Exhibit-3 : Gross Fiscal Deficit as percentage to GSDP-Karnataka (1991-2015) Source: State Finances : A Study of Budget, RBI



Source : State Finances : A Study of Budget, RBI

Primary deficit as a percentage of GSDP, witnessed similar decline from pre to post FRL period. Primary deficit has reduced from an average of 1.7 percent of GSDP in 1991-2002 to 0.9 percent during 2003-2015 (Exhibit-4).

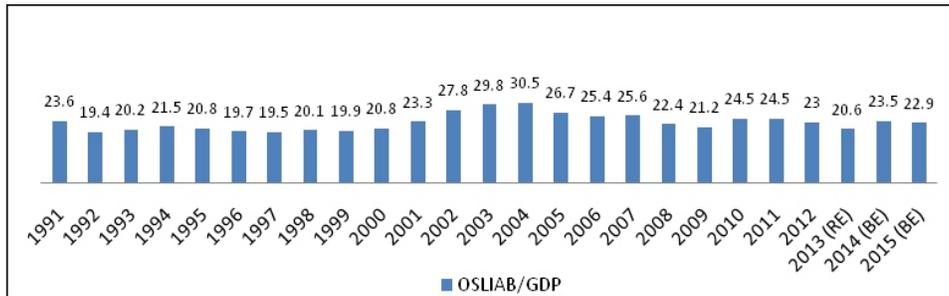
Exhibit-4 : Primary Deficit (PD) as percent to GSDP-Karnataka (1991-2015)



Source : State Finances : A Study of Budget, RBI

In terms of its outstanding liabilities, the State has not shown much improvement, overall debt as percentage to GSDP has reduced marginally from 23.6 percent in 1991 to 22.9 percent in 2015. The post FRL average has worsened as compared to pre FRL period from 21 percent of GSDP during 1991-2002 to 24 percent during 2003-2015 (Exhibit-5).

Exhibit-5 : Outstanding Liability as percent to GSDP -Karnataka (1991-2015)



Source : State Finances : A Study of Budget, RBI

Overall, the fiscal position of Karnataka has improved for some of its basic indicators. However, an in depth analysis of various indicators, based on Domar sustainability model and inter temporal budget constraint approach, would be helpful to understand in-depth situation of finances in Karnataka.

7. Sustainability Analysis

The sustainability analysis for major indicators is presented in Table-3. Carried out from 1991-2015, the analysis is divided in four phases; 1991-1996, 1997-2002, as periods for Pre FRL era, and 2003-08, 2009-15 as post FRL era. Among various major indicators, the first three are most crucial ones. As can be noticed, from the first indicator the difference between debt and growth of the GDP which was expected to be negative, remained positive during first two phases, however, the post FRL situation improved and growth rate of debt reduced, while that of GDP increased. Second indicator, that requires growth rate of debt to be lower than

effective interest rate has not performed up to the mark. This indicator has remained positive in all four phases, whereas it was expected to be negative, thereby not fulfilling transversality condition. This can become a major concern for the State, where its debt is growing faster than the effective interest rates, on loans, for these debts. The third condition of real rate of interest (r) should be less than real growth rate of output (g) was satisfied for three phases out of four, and the average of post FRL period has been around -6.1 percent.

Indicator 4a and 4b measures whether the State will be able to pay off its debt or not. In case of 4b the primary revenue balance as percentage to GSDP, has remained negative throughout, in all four period of analysis, where the desirable outcome is positive. Even though, the fiscal policy target of low deficit has been achieved by the State, the ability to pay off the debt in future has not been in focus, and this makes States finances very unsustainable. Primary balance as percent to GSDP has remained positive as expected throughout the analysis

Table-3 : Sustainability Indicator for Karnataka (1991-2015)

SI. No	Indicators	Symbolic Representation	Phase			
			I 1991-96	II 1997-02	III 2003-08	IV 2009-15
1.	Rate of growth of debt (D) should be lower than rate of growth of nominal GDP (G)	$D - G < 0$	0.18	6.52	-4.22	-4.47
2.	Rate of growth of debt (D) should be lower than effective interest rate (i)	$D - i < 0$	7.19	5.90	1.97	6.69
3.	Real rate of interest (r) should be lower than real output growth (g)	$r - g < 0$	-4.40	0.50	-4.30	-7.80
4a.	Primary balance (PB) should be in surplus	$PB/GDP > 0$	0.016	0.019	0.004	0.014
4b.	Primary revenue balance (PRB) should be in surplus	$PRB/GDP > 0$	-0.018	-0.008	-0.028	-0.018
5a.	Revenue Receipts (RR) as a per cent to GDP should increase over time	RR/GDP	0.15	0.13	0.15	0.12
5b.	Revenue variability should decline over time	$CV(RR/GDP)$	0.05	0.06	0.07	.11

6a.	Debt to revenue receipts ratio should decline over time	D/RR	1.37	1.60	1.74	1.52
6b.	Debt to tax revenue ratio should decline over time	D/TR	1.79	2.03	2.25	1.88
6c.	Debt to own tax revenue ratio should decline over time	D/OTR	2.28	2.61	2.81	2.33
7a.	Interest burden defined by interest payments (IP) as a per cent to GDP should decline over time	IP/GDP	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01
7b.	Interest payments (IP) as a per cent of revenue expenditure (RE) should decline over time	IP/RE	0.13	0.15	0.15	0.10
7c.	Interest payments (IP) as a per cent of revenue receipts (RR) should decline over time	IP/RR	0.13	0.17	0.15	0.10

Source : Author's Calculation

Indicator in 5a and 5b checks the variability in receipts of the state finances. This indicator requires the state to have constant flow of receipts, in order to meet its debt obligations with ease. The coefficient of variation of RR/GDP, which is expected to be decreasing, has increased over the years after 2002. In addition, RR/GDP has fallen overtime from .15 during Phase I to .12 in Phase IV, which indicates towards falling revenue as proportion to GDP. Indicators in 6a, b and c measures the growth of debt of the State i.e; Debt as percent to own tax revenue, revenue receipts and total revenue. The value of these should ideally fall over the years, for sustainability. In case of Karnataka, debt increased immediately after the implementation of FRL in 2002, in the phase of 2002-08, for all the parameters. However, a small decline from 2002-08 to 2009-15 has been witnessed in all three; but there is still scope of improvement for the State in this regard. The final indicator of sustainability in 7a, b and c requires interest burden to fall over the years with proportion to revenue expenditure, revenue receipts and as proportion GSDP. Karnataka, which saw a marginal increase in all three variables during 2002-08 as compared to 1997-02, has seen a marginal decline in the last phase of analysis.

In totality, even though the overall situation has improved for the state, concerns regarding its negative primary revenue balance, higher rate of growth of

debt as compared to the growth rate of effective interest rate (transversality condition) and higher variation in revenue receipts, can pose as concerns for the Karnataka's economy in future. Furthermore, debt as proportion to GDP, revenue receipts and own tax revenue has increased overall from Phase I to Phase IV, which is not a sign of good fiscal health.

8. Inter Temporal Budget Constraint : Unit Root Test and Co integration Analysis

Now as discussed earlier, the stationarity of debt, total revenue and expenditure series and their co integration can indicate whether the fiscal position of the State will remain sustainable in future or not. All the three series were tested by Phillips Perron test of stationarity, and all were found to have a unit root, which was corrected after first differencing (Table-4). The debt series, which attained stationarity after first differencing, depicts the long run sustainability of debt in case of Karnataka.

Moving ahead, the revenue and expenditure series which have the same order of integration $I(1)$, was tested for long run co-integration. In order to check co integration, this study employed Engle Granger Two step method. After running the regression between total receipts and total expenditure, the residual of the regression was tested for stationarity. Residual of the regression turned out to be stationary, with p value of 0.00 with Test statistics of -15.68, which was significantly lower than the values at 1% (-3.7), 5% (-2.7) and 10% (-2.9) level of significance. This suggests that long run fiscal positions of Karnataka state to be sustainable in long run.

Table-4 : Phillips Perron Test of Unit Root Results-Karnataka

Variable	At Level				At First Difference			
	Intercept		Intercept and Trend		Intercept		Intercept and Trend	
	Coefficient	P Value	Coefficient	P Value	Coefficient	P Value	Coefficient	P Value
Debt	-2.7	.07	-3.2	.10	-7.6	0.00	-7.8	0.00
Revenue	.81	.99	-5.38	0.00	-14.9	0.00	-28.60	0.00
Expenditure	.19	.96	-4.5	.00	-10.58	.00	-13.0	0.00

Source : Author's Calculation

9. Conclusion

This study aimed at checking the debt sustainability for the state of Karnataka, analyzed the finances of the state during 1991-2015. The whole study

was divided into four phases, from 1991-1996 and 1997-02 as pre FRL era to 2003-08 and 2009-15 as post FRL era. By applying the Domar sustainability indicator based analysis and inter-temporal budget constraint approach, it was found out that the debt is Karnataka state is sustainable in long run. However, few concerns regarding its negative primary revenue balance, increasing debt growth as compared to effective interest rate growth emerged. Another concern regarding variability in its revenue receipts emerged during the analysis, which requires attention on the part of policy makers. Furthermore, debt as proportion to revenue receipts, GSDP and own tax revenue has increased, overall, from Phase I of 1991-1996 to Phase IV of 2009-15 of the analysis.

Furthermore, another concern that needs policy attention with regard to Karnataka is the tax revenue that has reached a plateau. In this scenario, the state has to utilize its existing taxes very efficiently. Apart from tax revenue, the non-tax revenue has also been deteriorating, because of falling return on economic and social services. This study provides further scope of studying the debt sustainability of all other Indian states individually. This framework can be further used by other Indian states to test their debt sustainability repeatedly.

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Socio-Economic Status of Women Vendors : A Case Study

*Mayanglambam Lilee**

Though our social history has witnessed the changing status and role of women in every walk of their respective lives, some scholarly research on women issues depict the presence of occupational gender segregation in contemporary society. However, role of women in socio-economic activities has assumed global significance and informal sector has acquired great contribution over the years as a source of livelihood and employment for women. Correspondingly, there have been an ever increasing number of contemporary women vendors including street vendors all over the world. One such example is the world's largest "Women Market" known as 'Ima Keithel/ Nupi Keithel', which is exclusively run by women only in Manipur, Northeast India. Considering the increasing number of women markets in Manipur, this paper reports some findings of an ICSSR, New Delhi sponsored research project on status of women vendors at Kakching Market. More precisely, the article explores the present socio-economic profile of women vendors in the market situation of Manipur.

[**Keywords** : Women vendor, Occupation, Socio-economic status, Market situation, Manipur]

1. Introduction

Visibility of women in the formal market sector does not have a long history. Women were even kept devoid of active involvement in respectable business at market level due to the assigned unequal sex-based division of labour in public and private domain. Patriarchal ideology views males as 'producers' who provide materials and other needs to their women and children. Women on the contrary are

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treated as 'Consumers' whose place is in the household and perform socially defined roles of cooking and child rearing (Ray and Phukan, 1999 : 108). Gradually, women started visiting at market areas that too as consumer or buyer only. Later on, women activist of western countries started sloganeering and fighting for their rights and liberation in early 18th centuries. Unlike in western countries, Indian women were motivated by male leaders to participate in social reform movements based on social issues. In case of Manipur, historical reasons compelled women to come out from four walls and start small trade at market for livelihood and survival of their respective families.

Today, numbers of women centric issues have been fiercely debated in academics as well as political circles in all over the world. There is a long history on how women's studies emerged and a lot of facts and ideas have been developed in other areas of gender studies. However, social histories on the emergence and evolution of women centric markets are hardly intervened from sociological perspectives especially on gender roles and development at the market situation. Therefore, the present study critically analyses various issues or challenges of women vendors with special focus on their socio-economic status (SES). Though, our social history has witnessed the changing status and role of women in every walk of their respective lives, some scholarly research on women issues depict the presence of occupational gender segregation in contemporary society. It was especially visible ever when women started to get involved in economic activities including paid jobs at public domain. One such domain is the 'Women Market' in Manipur, a small state in the Northeast India.

2. Objectives and Methodology

The main objective of the paper is to explore the present socio-economic status of women vendors in the market situation of Manipur. More precisely, the present article attempts to understand the present socio-economic status of women vendors in Kakching market after throwing light on a brief history of why and how Manipuri women were brought to market from inside the four walls. As far as the methodological design of this paper is concerned, this paper uses available secondary data on the select theme apart from using primary data collected through interviews, personal observation, and field experiences. As per official record of Kakching Municipal Council (KMC) as on August 2017, there are 499 licensed sheds allotted for women vendors and 72 non-licensed sheds allotted for tribal women inside the premises of women market in Kakching Bazar. On top of this, there are around 1000 women street vendors in and around Kakching market. Out of the total 571 sheds, 200 sample women vendors were interviewed. Before analyzing the primary sources on the socioeconomic profile of women vendors in the Kakching market, the brief historical accounts on the emergence of women markets in Manipur is discussed on next page :

3. Women Market and Women Vendors in Manipur : The Research Gap

Contributions of women have always been crucial for Manipuri society at any historical period of this region. As far as the exact date of establishment of women market in Manipur is concerned, there is no clear indication of the beginning of a proper market. However, the historical roots of women vendor in formal market that was called Sana Keithel can be traced to 1580 AD during the then king Mungyamba (1562-97 AD). It is also mentioned in Hodson's 'The Meitheis' (1908 : 23) that in Imphal many markets were established during 1592-1652 and most of them were run by women in open air. Goswami (2014) noted that Ema market (literary meaning mother market aka women market) also came into the scene roughly during late 1500 A.D. Gradually, Ema market at Imphal became a rendezvous point for incorporating the ideas of women into the decision-making processes of Manipuri society. Whereas, Kakching is a medium sized town in the Kakching District of Manipur and it is inhabited by scheduled caste population called Lois. The origin of a market in Kakching is still an area which demands in-depth research. However, a review of relevant literature (Ibohal 2001, Gourachandra 2002, Pramodini 2017, etc.) points towards the start of the establishment of Kakching market in 1780s. According to Shri Leishangthem Chandrakumar Singh of Kakching Khunyai (cited in Ibohal, 2001 : 99), seven women vendors started to seat at the newly established Kakching market in every alternate day of a week during the Burmese War or Awa Lan (1819-1826).

Academic intervention on women issues in market situation is one of the emerging areas in women and gender studies across the country. Some recent studies on women vendors including street vendors (Pramila 2014, Rekha and Minimol 2017, Mishra 2018, Thakur et. al. 2018, etc.) highlighted the grievances and challenges faced in due course of continuing their business. In case of Manipur, review of women market centric literature (Urmila 2002, Michael 2003, Barua and Anita 2004, Bejeta 2013, Seromina 2013, Bharati 2014, Devi 2016, Panwar 2017, etc.) also clearly shows the success and limitations of the empowerment of women in Manipur through economic empowerment as owners of vendors. However, review of available studies on the theme points towards prominent research gaps such as previous studies focused only on Kwairamband Market/Women Market in Imphal City thereby neglecting other Women Markets located in different districts of the state. Although findings of many previous studies highlighted the socio-economic profile of the women sellers in the main market of Manipur, there was not a single study on the women vendors of Kakching market, claimed to be the second largest market in Manipur. Detailed findings on the socio-economic status of women vendor in Kakching market are given on next pages :

4. Data Analysis and Interpretation

The concept 'status' in a narrow sense refers to the position that an individual is expected to hold in a group or a community and the expected behaviour from the person holding such a position in any given society is his/her 'role'. Chapin (1928:99) has offered the classic definition of socio-economic status as 'Socio-economic status is the position that an individual or a family occupies with reference to the prevailing average standards of cultural possessions, effective income, material possessions and participation in group activity of the community'. National Centre for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2008) defined socioeconomic status (SES) as an economic and sociological combined measure of a person's work experience and of an individual's or family's economic and social relation to others, based on income, education and occupation. Kuppuswamy and Singh (1967 : 62) highlighted the importance of assessing the socio-economic status of the people in India by quantifying the requisite variables so that it could be measured more precisely and accurately. For the purpose of this research paper, the prime focus is to give comprehensive socio-economic profile of the women vendor and their families with respect to their economic and social relation to others, based on occupation, education, and income levels. Considering the above conceptualizations, an interview schedule was prepared to gauge the socio-economic status of women vendors in Kakching market. Collected data were tabulated and analyzed through SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences). The following section highlights the socio-economic status of women vendors using tabular presentation of data followed by interpretations.

In the present study the sample respondents are classified into four categories based on their respective age. Age of an individual is one of the determining factors as far as respect and status of a person in Manipuri society is concerned. The following Table - 1 shows age wise classification of women vendors and it was found that the respondents' age vary between 21 to 90 years.

Table-1 : Age wise distribution of women vendor

Age group	No. of Women Vendor	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21-40	40	20.0	20.0
41-60	98	49.0	69.0
61-80	56	28.0	97.0
Above 81	6	3.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

The above Table-1, the highest number of respondents i.e. 98 (49 per cent) were in the age group of 41-60 years, followed by 56 (28 per cent) in the age group of 61-80 years, 40 (20 per cent) in the age group of 21-40 years. There were only 6 (3

per cent) of women vendors who were above 81 years of age. The predominance of women vendors in the age group of 41-60 years over other age categories was found to be clearly visible.

Table-2 : Respondents by Age and Marital Status

Age	Marital Status			Total
	Married	Widow	Single/Unmarried	
21-40	28 (70.0)	8 (20.0)	4 (10.0)	40 (100.0)
41-60	72 (73.5)	22 (22.4)	4 (4.1)	98 (100.0)
61-80	24 (42.9)	32 (57.1)	0	56 (100.0)
Above 81	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	0	6 (100.0)
Total	126 (63.0)	66 (33.0)	8 (4.0)	200 (100.0)

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

The above Table-2 reveals that 63 per cent of the respondents are married and also the highest number 98 (49 per cent) of women vendors were between 41-60 years of age. Out of the total 200 sample women vendors, 66 (33 per cent) were widowed and the remaining 8 (4 per cent) were unmarried or single. Among the age groups 21-40 years and 41-60 years, a huge majority of the respondents were married while 20 per cent and 22.4 per cent of women vendors were widowed, and only 10 per cent and 4.1 per cent of them respectively were unmarried. Unlike in earlier two age groups, majority of respondents in the age groups 61-80 years and above 81 years were widowed. None of the respondent who was above 61 years was single or unmarried though the number of widowed women was high in the last two older age groups.

Table-3 : Respondents by Type of Family

Type of Family	Respondent	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Nuclear	82	41.0	41.0
Joint	112	56.0	97.0
Other	6	3.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

In contemporary India, the predominant family type is nuclear family as per number of studies. On contrary, this research found majority (56 per cent) of the respondents belonging to the joint family. 41 per cent of them were living in nuclear family and whereas, the remaining 3 per cent were found to be in others/ third family category. Here 'others' means those women who were having joint kitchen and living together with their unmarried son or daughter and/ or youngest married son, etc. From the collected data, it is also found that 45 per cent of respondents belonged to families of the size ranging between 5-8 family members and 44 per cent of them have 1-4 members in their respective families. It means that

there were least 11 per cent of respondents whose family size were above 9 members.

Table-4 : Distribution of Respondents by Number of Dependents at Home

No. of Dependent	Respondents	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-3	118	59.0	59.0
4-6	48	24.0	83.0
7-9	30	15.0	98.0
No one	4	2.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

The above Table-4 reveals the distribution of respondents by number of dependents at home. In connection with type of family and its size, it was observed that majority (59 per cent) of women vendors were having 1-3 dependent(s). Subsequently, 24 per cent of them have dependents ranging between 4-6 members while 15 percent had 7-9 dependent members. Only 2 per cent of respondents were independent earner since all of other family members are financially independent. Overall, this table shows the economic responsibilities of women in their respective families regardless of their age groups and health conditions.

Table -5 : Respondent by Social Category and Religion

Category	Religion				Total
	Hinduism	Sanamahism	Christianity	Islam	
SC	144 (94.6)	12 (85.7)	0	0	156 (78.0)
ST	0	0	30 (100.0)	0	30 (15.0)
OBC	6 (5.4)	2 (14.3)	0	6 (100.0)	14 (7.0)
Total	150 (100.0)	14 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	200 (100.0)

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

As mentioned above, this research project was conducted at Kakching Market, a Scheduled Caste town which is literally known as *Loi* community of Manipur which has been categorized as Scheduled Caste as per Presidential Notification after India Independence (Lilee, 2015 : 136-141) village due to historical reasons. Out of the total 200 sample respondents, 78 percent of women vendors were scheduled caste (SC) from Kakching town itself while 15 per cent of them were scheduled tribe (ST) from surrounding hill areas like Khunbi, Langol, Lamlong Khullen, Machi, Minou, etc. The remaining 7 percent of respondents were belonging to other backward class (OBC) and all of them were from nearby villages like Keirak, Sekmaijing, Sora, Wabagai, etc. The above Table-5 depicts the religious affiliation of the respondents along with their respective categories. Out of the total 200 respondents, 150 respondents were Hindus and a majority (94.6 per cent) of them were found to be SCs of Kakching in the present study. Only 7 per cent of

respondents across all religions were found to be OBCs. Out of the 156 SC respondents, 12 (85.7 per cent) of them are following traditional or indigenous religion (Sanamahism). All the 30 tribal women vendors belonged to ST and were following Christianity whereas all six Muslim women vendors were following Islam and belonged to OBC category. In an overall, there is diversity among the women vendors in this market in terms of religion as well as social category.

At present, Kakching Market is under the supervision of Kakching Municipal Council (KMC) and to have a license card has become mandatory for women vendors as well as general shopkeepers with an exception of those women street vendors. Nevertheless, the present study includes both license holder and non-license holder women vendors. The following Table-6 shows that majority (67 per cent) of the respondents including street vendors were non-license holder. It means that the majority of the vending sheds were own by someone else. While 66 (33 per cent) of women vendors were seating on their own sheds having unique license numbers too.

Table-6 : Respondents by Trading Item, Educational Qualification and License Holder

License Holder	Trading Item	Educational Qualification					Total
		I-V	VI-X	XI-XII	UG	Illiterate	
Yes	Consumable	7 (87.5)	12 (75.0)	6 (100.0)	0	18 (56.2)	43 (65.2)
	Non-Consumable	1 (12.5)	2 (12.5)	0	4 (100.0)	10 (31.2)	17 (25.8)
	Mixed Items	0	2 (12.5)	0	0	4 (12.5)	6 (9.1)
	Total	8 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	66 (100.0)
No	Consumable	12 (42.9)	8 (33.3)	4 (25.0)	2 (20.0)	21 (37.5)	47 (35.1)
	Non-Consumable	10 (35.7)	10 (41.7)	10 (62.5)	8 (80.0)	11 (19.6)	49 (36.6)
	Mixed Items	6 (21.4)	6 (25.0)	2 (12.5)	0	24 (42.9)	38 (28.4)
	Total	28 (100.0)	24 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	56 (100.0)	134 (100.0)
Grand Total		36 (18.0)	40 (20.0)	22 (11.0)	14 (7.0)	88 (44.0)	200 (100.0)

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

Commodities available in the women market have been divided into three categories, i.e. Consumable, Non-Consumable and Mixed Items. Consumable items like grocery and eatable items like fruits, vegetables, spices, fish, tea and cooked foods, etc. constituted 90 (45 per cent) of vending items while 66 (33 per cent) of them were engaged with non-consumable items including tailoring, cloths, gold ornaments, household and agricultural utensils, plastic toys and decorative

items, handicraft products, etc. The third category is the mixed type and it was found that 44 (22 per cent) of women vendors were selling both consumable and non-consumable items. Though education is one of the determining factors for the socio-economic status of any society, the largest number, i.e. 88 (44 per cent) of women vendors were found to be illiterate. It was found that illiteracy was high among the women vendors in general but it was much higher among the license holders. 32 out of 66 license holder women were illiterate as compare to 56 out of 134 non-license holders. Selling of mixed items in the women vendors, i.e. both consumable and non-consumable items were far more common among the non-license holders as compared to license holders.

Table-7 : Respondents by Age, Type of Family and Self Finance Seller

Self Finance Seller	Type of Family	Age				Total
		21-40	41-60	61-80	Above 81	
Yes	Nuclear	12 (50.0)	38 (54.3)	6 (15.0)	2 (50.0)	58 (42.0)
	Joint	12 (50.0)	30 (42.9)	32 (80.0)	2 (50.0)	76 (55.1)
	Others	0	2 (2.9)	2 (5.0)	0	4 (2.9)
	Total	24 (100.0)	70 (100.0)	40 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	138 (100.0)
No	Nuclear	8 (50.0)	14 (50.0)	2 (12.5)	0	24 (38.7)
	Joint	8 (50.0)	12 (42.9)	14 (87.5)	2 (100.0)	36 (58.1)
	Others	0	2 (7.1)	0	0	2 (3.2)
	Total	16 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	62 (100.0)
Grand Total		40	98	56	6	200

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

It is interesting to note that 138 (69 per cent) out of 200 women vendors were financially independent when they started their respective small-scale business at market while the remaining 62 (31 per cent) were not self finance seller. They gave varied reasons from where and how they manage their business without borrowing money or taking financial assistance from others. For example, women vendors who sell fish can collect fish from the owner of the fish firm without immediately paying the price but she can pay the mutually agreed price to the owner of the firm later in the late evening only after selling the fishes. So, literally she can earn profit without investing the principal from her own pocket. A rich woman vendor often shares some selling items to another poor woman vendor and under one mutual agreement they sold the items in different locations of the market. This is how they manage to sell all the items and make profit in order to feed their respective families. Some women vendors took their capital from rich Mahajan (moneylenders) in the form of money or trading items and they returned the valued amount after selling the items without much argument. This is how

they continue their business. Moreover, another plausible reason for why majority of the respondents were self finance seller is the very fact that 97 per cent of the respondents were living on their respective own houses and only the remaining 3 per cent were living in rented house.

Table-8 : Respondents by Type of Vendor and Reason to Start your Business

Type of Vendor	Reason to Start Business				Total
	Livelihood	Earning & time pass	Husband's insufficient earning	Money problem	
Rented	22 (45.8)	30 (62.5)	10 (31.2)	42 (58.3)	104 (52.0)
Owned	26 (54.2)	18 (37.5)	22 (68.8)	30 (41.7)	96 (48.0)
Total	48 (100.0)	48 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	72 (100.0)	200 (100.0)

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

Vendors in the 'Women Market' can be broadly divided into two types, namely rented vendor and owned vendor. In the first category, women were selling their trading items in a rented shed and majority (52 per cent) of women vendors were found to be in the category of rented vendors. Whereas, 48 per cent of respondents were seating and selling on their own sheds. Though all the sheds were under the same concerned Municipality, women in varied sheds or types of vendors were paying different fees ranging from Rs. 5 per day to Rs. 300 and above per month. However, for all license allotted seats (sheds), municipality can fixed the rent rate from time to time. It was found that women came out to market for vending because of different reasons. Nearly one fourth of them came out to earn livelihood and an equal percent of respondents started vending items in the women market for earning coupled with time pass as the main reason. The most common reason among the women vendors behind starting business was found to be 'money problem' in their respective families. The smallest portion of the women vendors also came out to the market for business purpose to supplement their husbands whose earnings are not sufficient to run their respective families.

Table-9 : Respondents by Balance of Lost and Profit

Lost and Profit	No. of Respondents	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Always earn profit	144	72.0	72.0
Earn so-so, no big lost ever	20	10.0	82.0
Lost sometime	32	16.0	98.0
Always lost	4	2.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Figures in parentheses show percentages to their respective totals

The Table-9 reveals the fact-sheet of the balance between lost and profit of women vendors doing business in the market. On the basis of collected information on lost and profit, women vendors were broadly classified into four sections. Firstly, those who were always earning profit; secondly, those who earn so-so but have never faced big lost; thirdly, those who lost sometimes; and fourthly, those who were facing lost all the time. Majority (72 per cent) of women vendors were always making profit from their selling items, i.e. there was no lost in their business. Second highest (16 per cent) women vendors were expressing that they were in debt or lost sometimes in their business while 10 per cent of them were maintaining a balance between lost and profit but had never face a huge lost by selling their respective items. Only 2 per cent of the respondents are facing lost all the time.

Table-10 : Respondents by Saving

Saving	No. of Respondents	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	30	15.0	15.0
No	170	85.0	100.0
Total	200	100.0	

Although, a huge majority of the women vendors were making profit between below Rs.100 to above Rs.500, Table-10 made an effort to know whether the women vendors have saving habits or not. It reveals that 85 per cent of them could not save their respective profits for future uses. Only 15 per cent of the women vendors were in a position to save their earnings.

5. Concluding Remarks

The patriarchal ideology of males as 'producers' and females as 'consumers' seems to be not fully applicable to the case of women vendors in the market situation of Manipur who are actively involving in overall socio-economic development of their families and society as a whole. This paper clearly and comprehensively depicts the present socioeconomic status of women vendors and associated issues. Age of the women were above 21 years and almost half of the respondents were in the age group of 41-60 years which is considered as most hard working and productive age. About 33 per cent of widowed women vendors were managing to run the household without much help from others. Similar observation was found in the market also as there was no child labour in the entire market and women vendors were managing at their own at the best level. Majority of the women vendors belong to joint family and were having dependents at home. There is diversity among the women vendors in this market in terms of religion as well as social category. Majority of the vending sheds were own by someone else

and selling of mixed items in the women vendors, i.e. both consumable and non-consumable items were far more common among the non-license holders as compared to license holders. Almost all the women vendors were making profit with exception of a very few vendors. Even though they are making profits, 85 per cent of the women vendor could not save their respective profits for future uses. The present paper suggests that there is need for a scientific study to assess what kind of role 'gender' can play in a market situation like that of women market either in reinforcing the gender exclusion or in bringing gender inclusiveness in a patriarchal society like Manipur.

Acknowledgments

This paper reports some findings of the Indian Council of Social Science Research, New Delhi sponsored research project on 'Gender Dynamics, Market and Empowerment' conducted during 2017-18. The author is grateful to the ICSSR, New Delhi for funding the said research project.

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The Changing Mind of Gandhi from Non-Cooperation to Cooperation : Council Entry Programme of Congress during Post-Constitutional Reforms (1935)

Shreya Pathak*

Gandhi adopted non-cooperation as a tool for Indian masses to win Swaraj in 1920 by leading the mass movement of non-cooperation at national level. He regarded non-cooperation as a divine weapon without which achievement of Swaraj would be impossible to accomplish. He extended this to council entry programme as election were to be held after the introduction of the new Government of India Act 1919 and requested the masses not to send any representative from their constituency to the Councils. But, after the decision of ending civil disobedience movement in 1934 there were many members of Congress who were in favour of council entry programme by participating in the election of 1934 and also in 1936 elections which are conducted on the basis of the provisions of newly introduced constitutional reforms by the Government of India Act 1935. Gandhi played an important role in this change of policy regarding entry of the Council as Congress Socialist Party, the newly emerged socialist wing of Congress was never in favour of participating in the elections. Gandhi, however, managed to get majority votes in favour of council entry resolution by convincing many members. The debate and deliberations over the issue of council entry, participation in election and sudden change of Gandhi's view from non-cooperation to council entry programme is the core focus of this paper. This papers is an attempt to study the political situation of the time, different viewpoints and emerging factions in Congress regarding the council entry programme

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policy and under what circumstances Gandhi decided changed his previous policy regarding council entry and motivated and supported Congress members to participate in election.

[**Keywords** : Congress, Gandhi, Nehru, Government of India Act 1935, constitutional reforms, Council entry programme, Provincial elections, Swaraj]

Gandhi once put forward the weapon of non-cooperation in front of the Indian masses to win Swaraj in 1920 by leading the mass movement of non-cooperation at national level. He remarked that non-cooperation is a weapon worth its weight in gold, in fact it's a divine weapon and explained non-cooperation in his speech at Dakore on 27th October, 1920 that it is not hatred or revenge, but it is the righteous action of a righteous person and if he was unable to impress upon all the beauty and necessity of non-cooperation, then Swaraj would be an impossible achievement. He regarded non-cooperation as the only remedy to win Swaraj.¹ This non-cooperation was not only a political and economic weapon as boycott was used in 1905, but was much deeper than that. It had a very profound base with a spiritual touch. Gandhi also extended this to council entry programme as India was soon to witness council elections after the introduction of reforms by implementation new Government of India Act 1919. He requested the Indian masses not to send any representative from their constituency to the Councils.

The seeds of non-violence and non-cooperation that Gandhi had sown at the Congress session of Nagpur had yielded a rich crop. He made a hurricane tour all over India and visited various places and regions such as Bombay, Poona, Aligarh, U.P., Bengal, Assam, Madras, Punjab and many more to explain, to spread, and to get implemented his message of non-cooperation. In his address to the masses at Mehmdabad on 1st November 1920 he mentioned two pre-requisite conditions to offer non-cooperation successfully, "One, self-suffering or non-violence. Even if we accept the view that non-violence is only a weakling's business, it is impossible to show you any other method, so long as you have not acquired the strength of fighting with arms. The second condition is single-hearted concord between Hindus and Muslims, between all the communities of the country. You cannot offer non-cooperation against the Government, unless and until you fulfil these two conditions. The first step to it is abstaining from sending any representatives to the Councils and withdrawing children from Government schools. This done, you have as good as won Swaraj."²

Indian National Congress met at a special session in Calcutta in September 1920 where, under Gandhi's suggestion, it adopted the programme of progressive, non-violent, non-cooperation for the redress of Khilafat and Punjab wrongs and establishment of Swarajya in place of reforms that the nation decided to boycott. The resolution itself stated in part, "withdrawal by candidates of their candidature for election to the Reformed Councils and refusal on the part of the voters to vote for any candidate who may, despite the Congress advice, offer himself for election."³ While moving the resolution Gandhi said, "Non-cooperation, as you will see from the Resolution itself, has been conceived as a measure of discipline

and self-sacrifice. Unless we are able to evolve discipline, non-co-operation is impossibility. Non-co-operation in an angry atmosphere is an impossibility... I venture to claim for this scheme of non-co-operation that if this has sufficient response in the country, I make bold to reiterate the statement that you can gain you Swaraj in one year under my conditions, no by passing this Resolution by.”⁴

The question of council entry programme again came on the fore as a prominent issue in the political arena of India after the introduction of another constitutional reform by implementation of Government of India Act 1935. The Act of 1935 finally came as a challenge to the Indian people and the Indian leadership. Provincial Autonomy lost its very essence with the vast ordinance making power, special responsibilities and discretionary powers that empowered the Governor, and the Governor General. Communal electorate not only continued in the Act, but was extended to other communities. By this time, Gandhi had retired himself from the active life of Congress politics and announced to withdraw all his connections with Congress in order to devote his time to village reconstruction programme. But, practically, Gandhi dominated every discussion. In the words of Dr. B.Pattabhi Sitaramayya, “The fact that Gandhi ceased to be a four anna member since October 1934 did not cut off his interest in the Congress. He has been the unofficial adviser and referee arbitrator, and judge of Congress affairs these six years.”⁵ In his statement of September 17, 1934 Gandhi lent his full support to the Council entry programme inspite of the fact that Congress had incessantly condemned the Act much before its enactment in its Bombay session in 1934. Due to the establishment of Congress Socialist Party in 1934, there was a prominent group that was vehemently against the council entry programme as it would mean compromising with the government at some level. The paper expostulates why and under what circumstances the same Gandhi ushered Congress to adopt the policy of council entry programme in 1936, who in retrospection, regarded non-cooperation as the only remedy to win Swaraj.

The Government of India sent a confidential circular to all Provincial Government dated November 23, 1934 cautioning them against Congress move towards rural people. The circular states, “...the Congress will be in a position to claim that it represents rural interests as well as urban... We cant take his (Gandhi’s) statements at their face value...It is clear that Mr. Gandhi had once again shown himself to be a very astute political leader, and his mental and physical vigour is reported to be unabated”. It was a long note concluding that rural reconstruction is possibly a very astute and subtle attempt to pave the way for a further Civil Disobedience campaign on a much large scale than before and supported to a greater extent by rural population.”⁶ People’s attention was gradually being drawn to the necessity of capturing the Legislatures again in the absence of any possibility of starting a fresh campaign of Civil Disobedience Movement. On April 1st, 1934, a conference of Congressman thinking on the line of capturing the Legislature was convened in the house of Dr. Ansari in Delhi. This

conference, presided by Dr. Ansari, decided that Swarajya Party should be revised and those Congressmen who were not engaged in any constructive work should be allowed to contest the next election as member of Swaraj Party. It also decided that the Congress must accept the challenge of this election and must prove its hold over the people. The election should be fought on two main issues :

1. To get all repressive laws repealed.
2. To reject the proposals contained in the White Paper.

It was decided in the Conference that Dr. Ansari, Dr. B. C. Roy and Bhulabhai Desai would meet Gandhi and ascertain his views on the proposal. Accordingly on April 4th they met and told Gandhi that they wanted to revive Swaraj Party, which meant fighting the next election. As Gandhi had already decided to suspend Civil Disobedience Movement, he readily agreed to the proposal. Encouraged by Gandhi's blessings and support, it was decided to call a another conference which met at Ranchi on 2nd May with more than hundred members. Ansari again presided the conference where proposal for accepting Council entry programme was moved by Chaudhury Kaliquzzaman of United Provinces and was accepted with only four dissenting voters.⁷

During the AICC meet at Patna on 18th -19th May, there were still some voices against the Council entry programme as well as against suspension of Civil Disobedience Movement. Scanting expected opposition, Gandhi himself moved the resolution for Council entry. Gandhi's persuasive speech and cogent argument made the passage of resolution easier. He made it quite clear that there was a large section among Congressmen who believed in Council entry and in the absence of any other programme it would be wrong for the Congress to debar them from entering Legislatures. It was decided that a Parliamentary Board of 25 members would be formed with Dr. Ansari as President and the selection of members were left to Ansari and Mahamana Malviya. Acharya Narendra Dev and other socialist colleagues opposed the whole scheme. In May 1934, Congress Socialist Party was established with Acharya Narendra Dev and J.P.Narayan as its sponsors. CSP was opposed the Council entry programme. Even at Patna session of AICC, it was mostly from socialist members that opposition to Council entry came. CSP by its own constitution remained an integral part of the Congress, accepting majority principles of Congress, but reserving its right to differ in details and programme of work. CSP leaders met Gandhi on July 1st. Gandhi in general approve their programme of ameliorating condition of peasant and workers, but he cautioned them against advocating violence in furtherance of their programme of class struggle.

Before Bombay session, Gandhi gave a statement on September 17, 1934, where he announced to withdraw all connections with Congress. It was a long statement with main point that he had been feeling for sometime that there was vital difference in outlook between Congress leader and himself. He felt that non-violence and truth are two cardinal factors of Satyagraha and these two

principles are not being properly observed by Congressmen. Such a statement from a political leader engaged in fighting the greatest imperialist power of the world was somewhat unusual. In this statement, he staunchly support Council entry programme. He thought that 'in the absence of general scheme of civil resistance, a Parliamentary Party within the Congress was a necessity'. But Gandhi practically dominated every discussion. The Council entry programme was formally accepted in Bombay session. Though Gandhi retired from the Congress, he used to attend practically all the meetings of Working Committee and AICC.⁸

The Lucknow session of Congress which commenced on 12th April 1936 proved momentous for the nation. Accompanied by seven of its ex-presidents, including Gandhi, J.L. Nehru, began its proceedings amid exuberant enthusiasm and high expectations of the assembled delegates. Presidential speech was of two and a half hours. Describing the new Act as 'a charter of slavery' he announced, 'To this Act our attitude can only be one of uncompromising hostility and a constant endeavour to end it.'⁹

The crux of the problem was whether to contest the election to the coming provincial legislatures and to accept office under the provisions of the new Act or not. On this vital question, the clash between the two wings of the Congress was most apparent. The younger rank and file, led by Nehru and Bose, adhered to the Left whereas the old guard belonged to the right. The left wing leaders decided to carry on a campaign to prevent the Congress accepting office under the provisions of Act 1935. But some right wing leaders like M.A.Ansari, B.C.Roy urged in a joint statement that Congress should not only enter the legislatures under the new constitution, but 'should occupy all places of power, initiative and vantage in its struggle for freedom'.¹⁰ Almost all members were in favour of contesting the elections. Kriplani wrote to Rajendra Prasad 'nobody could have imagined that there was such a strong opinion for accepting office' and predicted that Nehru's attitude would make the situation 'a little difficulty'¹¹ In his speech at the Subjects Committee meeting in Lucknow on 11th April, 1936, just a day before the commencement of the open Congress session, Nehru expressed his view on the issue of Office Acceptance. His view on this over heated issue was important as he was to be the incumbent the very next day. He accepted that there were two different view points on this, one of those who were in favour, the reformists; and other of those who were against the office acceptance. He openly expressed his views against the reformists and regarded it preferable to delay taking any decision over the issue. Though postponement means hesitancy and indecision, but taking any decision at that time would lead to an enormous problem of split in Congress. He expressed his apprehension in confidence, "We ought to try and approach this question with a certain mentality- that mentality is that we cannot afford to split up, and break up the Congress. We may even differ now, to agree later and work together. Occasionally we may act in different ways, but I will certainly do my utmost to try to function so as to help the growth of that mentality and common action in the Congress."¹² However, Nehru continued to air his

uncompromising opinions on this matter. According to him acceptance of office would inevitably involve co-operation with British imperialism.

Nehru discussed the matter in detail in his presidential speech in Lucknow session, There is only one straight course open to us, to go to the people with our programme and make it clear to them that we cannot give effect to the major items in it under present conditions, and therefore, while we use the platform of the legislatures to press that programme, we seek to end these imperialist bodies by creating deadlocks in them whenever we are in a position to do so. Those deadlocks should preferably take place on those programmes so that the masses might learn how ineffective for their purposes are these legislatures. The Congress President felt that under the prevailing circumstances there was no other choice but to contest the election, but made it clear that the Congress should seek election on the basis of detailed political and economic programme, with the demand for a constituent assembly in the forefront. 'One of the principal reasons for our seeking election will be to carry the message of the Congress to the millions of voters and to the scores of millions of the disfranchised, to acquaint them with our future programme and policy, to make the masses realize that we not only stand for them but that we are of them and seek to co-operate with them in removing their social and economic burdens.' The election was thus, an opportunity for the Congress to carry its ideals to the people at large through election propaganda programme at an elaborate level "While we use the platform of the legislatures to press that programme, we seek to end these imperialist bodies by creating deadlocks in them whenever we are in a position to do so" he said.¹³

The main attention of the country got diverted towards the prospects of Provincial Autonomy. The India political parties got ready for the electoral fray much in advance. On one hand, every party was unhappy with the so called autonomy, yet, on the other, most parties wanted to make the best use of the election to serve their respective purposes. Thus, the main question that was discussed at the Lucknow session was the attitude of the Congress towards Government of India Act and the question regarding the entering of the legislatures. In Nehru's words, "The Lucknow session of the Congress was full of conflicts, each side trying to pull its own way."¹⁴ For the Congress, the election was desirable for educating the people, and after the victory, for utilizing the popular verdict for attaining higher objectives. Nehru sum up the Congress purpose in the election in these few words, "I will not ask you to cast a single vote in favour of the Congress if you do not wish to vote for independence."¹⁵

Congress adopted the election manifesto on 22nd August 1936 in AICC Bombay meet. It clarified the principle involved in contesting the election. The purpose was to prevent the operation of forces calculated to strengthen alien domination and exploitation of India people, but not to co-operate in any way with the Act, rather 'to combat it and seek to end it'. It further clarifies the Congress purpose to contest the elections was to "carry out, in so far as is possible, the

Congress policy of rejection of the Act and to resist British imperialism in its attempts to strengthen its hold on India and its exploitation of Indian people...activity in the legislature, should be such as to help in the work outside, in the strengthening of people, and in the development of the sanctions which are essential to freedom."¹⁶ According to the manifesto, though reforms were inadequate and completely incapable of yielding "any substantial benefits, yet the Assemblies might be used by Government to further exploitation and repression; and that had to be resisted." The manifesto said, "Activity in the Legislatures should be such as to help in the work outside in strengthening of the people and in development of sanctions which are essential to freedom."¹⁷

Electioneering was in full swing all over the country when Congress met in its 50th session at Faizpur on 27-28 December 1936 under the presidentship of Nehru, which was a special Congress session in the sense that it was the first session that was organized in rural area with the purpose to come into contact with the masses. Nehru presidential address, "We go to the legislatures not to cooperate with the apparatus of British imperialism, but to combat the Act and seek to end it, and to resist in every way British imperialism in its attempt to strengthen its hold on India and its exploitation of the Indian people...We are not going to the legislatures to pursue the path of constitutionalism or a barren reformism...The elections must be used to rally the masses to the Congress standard, to carry the message of the Congress to the millions of voters and non-voters alike, to press forward the mass-struggle. The biggest majority in a legislature will be of little use to use if we have not got this mass movement behind us, and a majority built on compromises with reactionary groups or individuals will defeat the very purpose of the Congress."¹⁸

Thus, Gandhi, who once non-cooperated with the Government and refused to participate in the elections after the Government of India ACT 1919 was introduced, now after one and a half decade was of the view that Congress should participate in the election and adopt council entry programme in the exigencies of the time. P. Sitarammaiya had beautifully said about Gandhi's political ideas and its implications, "Gandhi's philosophy is not for local application. It is not conceived as a remedy for a local wrong. It is meant as a panacea for a universal malady. And nothing has ever made him compromise his principles, eternal and abiding in character, and bend them to the exigencies of the times. Expediency as opposed to principle is not in his lexicon or make up. Not that he has not agreed to compromises, for compromise is the very essence of Satyagraha, but that his principles and philosophy do not admit of discounts or premiums in moral transactions."¹⁹

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Making the First Democratic Constitution of Nepal

*Badri Narayan Gautam**

This paper is focused on the process of drafting the first democratic constitution of Nepal, 1959, which is concentrated on the history of political activities that occurred soon after the fall of Rana regime to the first ever election in Nepal. The preparation of the paper is based on historical documents and key interviews of political leaders. The paper states that, the King Mahendra, who decided to establish a royal dominance from his four years of micro-study of transitional politics after the Rana regime by primarily working for putting Nepali Congress Party away. The King allied himself with the people who envied Nepali Congress and their glorious history of revolution. Given the context, the party had to leave the topic of constitution assembly because of the perceived threat to the possible democratic election. Because of the tricky strategies and diplomacy of the King in the environment of jealousy and carelessness in the part of contemporary political leaders, King Mahendra was able to bring out the constitution with special rights by removing the issue of Constituent Assembly.

[Keywords : Rana regime, Constituent Assembly, Election, Constitution building]

1. Background

King Tribhuvan announced for the provision of constituent assembly on chosen by the people will run the government on 18 February 1951 following the end of Rana Regime but he himself could not implement it. In the the volatile transitional environment created in the context of political leaders's, the King himself too intended to take power in his hands. After the death of King Tribhuvan, who had been increasing the influence of the palace by dividing the

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Congress rulers to concentrate the power in the palace, King Mahendra showed even more autocratic in nature. Mahendra wished to rule the country with ultimate power and to do so he took on the policy of removing the political parties from the beginning. From that point, achievement of revolution of 1951 came to a state of being lost. Congress along with other parties started a peaceful revolution for truth as Congress believed that the achievements from previous revolution should not go in vain. The revolution also known as *bhadraawagya* (gentleman protest) revolution put huge pressure on Mahendra who could not stand against it and on 15th December 1957 he was forced to make a declaration according to which general election was to be held from 18th February 1959.

The political parties considered positive for the election announcement made by the King and agreed to stop the movement and participate in the election. However, after the start of election process, instead of conducting the election for the formation of parliament as said before, the King said that the subject of constituent assembly itself has been terminated. After this decision made by the King, again a condition of political polarization was created in Nepal. The people who were afraid of Nepali Congress Party having a revolutionary history able to bring institutional change in the country and therefore supported the King's decision. In that context, Nepali Congress decided to take part in the election in order to change the conditions via parliament in the future. The process that started on the chairmanship of the government by Suwarna Samsher from Nepali Congress worked hard dealing with King Mahendra's autocratic character and as a result the environment for general election was created. Given the background, this paper is focused on the analysis of the 1959 constitution making process.

2. Beginning

Since the end of Rana regime and before gaining the Kingship, Mahendra was aware that the congress party should be weak to make the monarchy strong. King, who was analyzing all the political activities after the end of the Rana regime, had already planned it secretly. He first, appointed people who were easy to manipulate and loyal to make the secret campaigning successful (Thapa, 14th March 2013). Then he visited the western districts in the name of being familiar with the condition of the nation and problems of the people. He was accompanied by Bhupalman Singh, Minister of Tour as his trusted persons. He gained information about the social elites, political activists of the visited districts beforehand so as to make opinion about them, as well as, he met few of them to travel camp and learned about the political condition and Nepali congress. Such meetings were usually conducted after the official welcome/greeting programs where he used to ask about the social and political personalities and he used to be specific by calling out their names, he used to make it clear that he had all the information in order to have an influence and tried to find out the truth about the acquired information as well (Sharma, 29th October 2001). He did not fully trust on

the people who provided him with information and hence called some of the people in front of the tour minister and asked them for the information. Sometimes when the information contradicted their perception the tour minister himself countered the situation and convinced the King (Thapa, 5th August 2012). These events clearly indicate the intention of the King against the institutionalization of the democratic system how the loyal persons of the King tried to please him.

Nepali congress was aware of the King's intentions, so they ran a campaign called people awakening campaign which made the organization strong and by uniting people who were supporters of democratic method they started a revolution. The King came to a conclusion from the information he gathered that Nepali congress would not be the majority under any circumstances (Sharma, 2009 : 226) and talked to his close advisors and listened to their opinions. Based on their opinions instead of being bad named for not conducting the election, he decided to let it happen so that he could manipulate a parliament where no one would have the majority (Dangol, 1999 : 77). In order to verify this we can look at the verification provided by Biseshworprasad Koirala according to which the King conducted the election only after verifying that congress wouldn't be the majority (Sharma 1998 : 210-212). Mahendra who wanted to rule alone even before he became a King and even after he became a King he only let the election take place when he was sure that he would be the dominating party and after that constitution building process was initiated. Mahendra who considered Nepali congress an enemy even though they were responsible for downfall of Rana regime and his policy and actions caused the palace to be a centre which would not let democratic system to be institutionalized, an unfortunate event in the timeline of Nepal-Nepali and the Palace.

From ancient times due to the trend of respecting the rule of law, Kings used to make the law so that the ministers would work accordingly with the law. For the purpose of making the law in 1375, King Jayasthiti Malla ordered a scholar named Manik to study Naradsmriti and introduced a book of law named nyayabikasini (Manabnyasastra) (Panta, (ed.), 2008. Bhumika Khanda). In order to solve the problems that comes to life of a man in accordance to law and to identify mistakes and punishments that book was used and was an important part of the constitutional history of Nepal. After that, Nepal was ruled by the Shah dynasty and then due to various ups and downs fell under the familial rule of the Ranas. In order to not let the society with strong religious roots be affected, while working with the law and while making official decisions the words of religious texts were also considered. In order to reevaluate the problems that were created during such conditions, Junga Bahadur again created a Muluki Ain. The muluki Ain created by stating that "by the royal decree of King Surendra Bikram Shah" was enacted immediately and commonness was bought in the justice system (Shree 5 kosarkaar, 11th June 1965 : 19-21). The order of Shree Tin (honorable status of Rana prime minister) itself used to be the law in those situations, so according to the situation

the definition was updated, however the existing law was silent about the operation of the country, which was the same until the changes made in 2007.

The practices developed from long term exercises, traditions became the source of law in times that came (Yadav and more (ed.). 18th February 2017 : 88). From King Ram Shah to Rajendra Bikram many reforms were made due to which the law was made in Nepal. The revolution that started due to the autocratic rule of the Ranas brought an outcome because of which King Tribhuvan got an opportunity to make the announcement of 18th February 1951, who ended the Rana regime and made a government that consisted of both Ranas and congress. In order to work on these changing times law was necessary. After that, Nepal interim Governance Legislation 1951 was created by the government and implemented on 11th April 1951. The constitution considered to be the first constitution made by the King for his people contained legislative proposal that people elected constituent assembly would be firstly elected and then would come up and constitution and based on the constitution the country would be ruled (Singh, 1983 : 662, Gautam 2009 : 27). Even though it was stated as above the King defied those and acted for his own benefit and started a conspiracy. From among the congress he found people who believed in things like on a monarchical country like Nepal constituent assembly cannot exist so the declaration made by the King on 18th February 1951 is wrong, on a monarchical country the source of constitution is King etc. and asked them to make a draft of constitution (Joshi, 2006 : 118-123). Joshi states that Due to excitement of becoming a confidant of the King he created a template of the constitution and gave it to the King, and presented it on the conference conducted by Nepali Congress on 1957 and gained approval on it.

King Mahendra who desired strengthen the monarchy, made the parties weak and made them except the parliamentary elections and worked on bringing a constitution accordingly. On 16 March 1958, he created the draft commission by giving the responsibility to draft a new constitution as announced on 1 February 1958 (Yadav and more (ed.), 18th February 2017 : 112). On the leadership of public service commission's then president Bhagwatiprasad Singh, members Suryaprasad Upadhyaya, Randheer Subba and Ramraj Panta, member secretary Horaprasad Joshi were the ones enlisted for the commission (Dahal, 2001 : 31-32; Devkota, 1959 : 598-599). No matter what he thought on the inside, the King wanted to show that he was with the democratic system, so he added people from within the parties as members and member secretaries of the commission. It can be clearly seen that the involvement of Nepali congresses' Horaprasad Joshi, Surya Prasad Upadhyaya and Rana's Gorkha Parisad's President Randheer Subba was because of their loyalty to the king. He wanted to show that he had a clean image and he was moving forward with democratic sense. For that purpose, the appointment of a British citizen and constitution expert Sir Iver Jennings in Constitution draft committee as international advisor (Pandit, August/September 2006 : 11). Jennings was considered an expert and made advisor on the constitution

draft committee, he was an expert on constitution with affiliation to Cambridge University. It's stated that after receiving an invitation from then government and King about creating a constitution for Nepal in a clear manner he came to Nepal (Dhungel, 2011 : 2). B.P. Koirala also proposed him believing that he would not obstruct the democratic rights of people as he had created a constitution for Srilanka earlier and the King agreed to put him on the commission (Sharma (ed.), 1998 : 203). This shows that Jennings was appointed only after Nepali congress accepted it.

3. Another Step

It was clearly mentioned in the interim government legislation that the constitution would be made by the constituent assembly which proved that the King's declaration of election and constitution building process was against that law. If such a situation was not dealt immediately, it would be considered questionable in the future, so in order to not let that happen on 12th may 1958 he issued the 4th amendment on interim constitution under which the sentence assembly's election was removed and was replaced with the sentence one constitution for Nepal unless made and implemented, the operation of the country and the interim government's main objective was to conduct election of the parliament (Singh, 1983 : 683-685). In this way the King removed the subject of constituent assembly and enhanced the mobility by constitutionalizing his will and work.

King Mahendra wanted to constitutionally take all the rights related to the operation of the country. Without showing his desire he ordered the Constitution draft commission to do their work and showed as if a he was with them but he was secretly he was working for his own ambitions. The King understood that all other parties showed resentment towards the congress, so he worked against the congress to win them over. The other parties did not care that the palace was getting strong because of the King's actions as it was harming the congress, and did not realize that it would harm them as well in the future, this action made the palace very strong (Sharma, 6 July 2002). In the meantime, the King sent the draft of constitution produced by Horaprasad Joshi to IverJenning. Jennings on the process of modifying the constitution took suggestions from the political parties and draft commission and political leaders, and created a draft of the constitution and through the council of ministers he made sure that it would reach to the King (Joshi, 2006 : 125-126). The situation was such that people were not completely sure that the election would happen as constitution was not ready even though the time of election was coming nearer, but due to Jennings's work people started to believe that it would happen which brought a huge wave of happiness among the people. Constitution Draft commission, which was supposed to be working tenderly was very slow, and Jennings one after another presented three drafts (Dhungel, 2011 : 2-3).

After reading his draft the King was impressed and was always ready for discussion but the ministers, parties, government and the officers of the commission were not ready as mentioned. (Dhungel, 2011 : 3). In such condition the King himself consulted others and asked them to create a clear draft which would help modify Jennings' draft. After learning of the King's wishes, Jennings made it clear that he would not be able to provide another draft as he foresaw a situation where the election could not be held in time as the draft cannot be modified in the given time. He had given the right to make the necessary changes in the third draft, but he had a condition where he was to be shown the final draft (Dhungel, 2011 : 3). After Jennings' return to Britain the King had the freedom to change the draft as he liked and he started consulting his confidants. In the end the draft approved by the council of ministers was only allowed to be issued after the changes that King wanted to make (Parmananda, 1982 : 200). None of the parties dared to talk against the constitution prepared by the King which was made to make him strong and powerful which brought the newly introduced democratic system in danger. This was a huge mistake made by the politicians.

Even after understanding the wish and perception of the King, Jennings had created a draft which included democratic values and validation of it with the members of the commission. In a situation when the King became interested, the congress gave its consent to run the country in a democratic pattern after conducting an election on the basis of the right to vote given by the constitution (Singh, 22nd January 1988). It is mentioned that due to above mentioned reasons, Suryaprasad Upadhyaya who was assigned by Nepali Congress without doubt translated the draft given by Jennings after consulting first with Horaprasad Joshi first and again with the politician Subarna Samsher (Joshi, 2011 : 372). Then other modifications were done with the help of the central politicians of Nepali Congress in which the continuous pressure was given by the King for privileges and the draft was finalized (Sharma, 6 July 2002; Panthi, 11 November 2001).

Even though King Mahendra's tricky and conspiracy trend caused problems, the participation and flexibility of Nepali congress could be seen. As a result a constitution draft which protected the rights of both the King and the parliament and contained original element which would make the King responsible and dynamic was created (Sharma (ed.), 1998 : 204).

Ganeshman Singh who was always against the power provision of the King in constitution, however, B.P. Koirala accepted it to have the parliament elections toward democracy. As per the assumption that the King should not be made powerful he continued to be in disagreement till the very end. Bisheshworprasad Koirala had understood the intent behind his actions. So they had tried to convince the politicians bring the politics out from the palace to the people through election (Basnet, 20th June 2012 : 5). In this way, even with the presence of some dissatisfaction, Nepali congress agreed to the constitution draft so the King would not get any excuses to stop the election. After that the council of ministers, which

after one last discussion, including the opinions of all the others concluded on a point and presented it to the King.

Jenning had tried to make the constitution draft as easy and short as possible, but the politicians did not have the ability to understand the used language and the legal words that were used. None of the politicians thought and discussed about the meaning of the various provisions in the constitution. In contrast, the King who had studied carefully studied it became cautious. It was the reason behind the success of the King and implementing it soon. As a result King gained more rights, and in case of constitutional failure an environment for King to become autocratic could be made (Dhungel, 2011 : 3-4). King's intent of exploiting the selfish tendency, shortsightedness, and hunger for power of the politicians had worked.

The King intended to create instability by showing that the election did not happen due to Nepali congress as he did not want the congress to be strong. The congress was aware of this and was working to create an environment where the constitution could be implemented. So a privilege was given to the King, according to which in order to save the Kingdom in case of extreme instability the King could implement his privilege to do as he pleases (Dhungel, 2011 : 4). The King who was trying to delay everything even when the due date was nearing, only agreed to implement the constitution after a situation where his throne would be safe was created. Furthermore, he also made sure that he also made sure that his supremacy would be validated and also secured his right to make changes in the constitution in case of turmoil.

4. Proclamation

The King who only agreed to implement the constitution after obtaining absolute power, implemented the "constitution of Nepal 2015" on 12th February 1959. On a programme conducted on Basantapur Hanumandhoka, Kathmandu, a royal decree was announced in which it was mentioned that the King, for the betterment of people, wishing for their prosperity has provided the constitution draft created by the commission constituted by him with suggestions from council of ministers (His majesty Mahendra, 12th February 1959 Royal Decree). The King tried to state the fact that he was the only constitutional source by saying that the constitution was made because he allowed it by using his royal power. He neglected the topic of constituent assembly and declared his supremacy even he had agreed to the idea of constituent assembly before. Because none of the politicians spoke against it the basis for royal redundancy was created behind which the thought of taking care of this after the election by gaining power in the parliament was present among the politicians.

5. Concluding Remarks

King Tribhuwan, who was not honest about declaring the constitution made by the constituent assembly as the main law of the country started working to bring

royal supremacy in the country. After the fall of Rana regime, the politicians were full of jealousy, anger, lack of political efficiency and maturity etc. The people from the palace and foreign powers who wanted their grasp on the country's politics became active and started working to do so. These internal and foreign powers played role in increasing the distance between the King and the Nepali Congress Party in order to fulfil their selfish desires and tried to suppress the achievements of the revolution of 1951. As a result, King's constitution discarded the topic of constituent assembly and the party also accepted it otherwise the election itself could not be held. Finally, the election was possible as per the Constitution of Nepal, 1959 resulting in two-third majority of the Nepali Congress Party.

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Liberalism and the Predicament of Conceptualizing Marginalization vis-à-vis Scheduled Castes and Tribes

*Amrita Shilpi**

The liberal conception of equality includes the legal and social dimensions. It necessitates the elimination of arbitrary advantages in a social and economic system, irrespective of the cause whether the inequality has resulted from one's choice or that of another. Thus, attempts were made to integrate the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes into society and politics through 'modern' political institutions. Departing fundamentally from the individualist premise of the equality principle it was proposed to have rights as legal entitlements that would also be obligations on the members of civil society. As a result within the constitution, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had a set of rights and the state a set of duties, to eradicate discriminatory practices. Keeping this vision in the backdrop, attempt has been made in this paper to situate tenets of liberty, equality and justice in conceptualizing marginalization vis-à-vis Scheduled Castes and Tribes. The paper is broadly divided into two sections. The first section discusses the liberal concepts of democracy, equality, equity, inclusion, recognition and justice. The second section tries to explain the concept Marginalization within the liberal framework.

[**Keywords** : Liberalism, Marginalization, Equality, Equity, Inclusion, Recognition, Justice]

1. Introduction

In recent years, there has been much discussion on the state as a subject of theoretical and empirical enquiry. The early 1970s witnessed a series of democratic

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transitions in Europe, Africa and Asia. This transition was supported by liberals as well as social democrats on the grounds that democracy and development were not only compatible but also mutually reinforcing. It was reasserted that democracy created the conditions for enhanced levels of popular involvement in decision making, which was more inclusive and in the process created better developmental outcomes. It was assumed on the liberal principles that citizens in a democratic society possess equal opportunities for political participation.

However, in plural societies the right to participation was denied to certain sections of citizens due to several factors. This created conditions of marginalization where people had limited or no access to power, resources and over all socio-economic development. Along with that there had been a parallel shift in the discourses of development in terms of multi cultural theories in which the minority sections of the society had been viewed in light of rights, justice, freedom and equality.

Equality was adhered as a cardinal value by the framers of the Constitution of India, considering the deep roots of group inequalities entrenched in the society. To deal with these basic inequalities in the Indian social structure, the introduction of constitutionally protected preferential treatment of these groups was considered necessary. A mere right to vote and equality of opportunity it was widely recognized is insufficient to secure meaningful, effective social and political equality. Thus apart from several general provisions to the right of equality special constitutional measures were taken to protect and advance the interests of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Bhagava and Reifield, 2005 : 36). The makers of the constitution wished to extend the idea of equality of opportunity to all human beings in the social and political sphere. This required the government to treat all those in its purview as equals, as entitled to equal concern and respect. The goal of equality of opportunity was the removal of obstacles in the way of an individual realizing individual's potential. The liberal conception of equality includes the legal and social dimensions. It necessitates the elimination of arbitrary advantages in a social and economic system, irrespective of the cause whether the inequality has resulted from one's choice or that of another. Thus, attempts were made to integrate the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes into society and politics through 'modern' political institutions. They visualized its realization through the constitution and the legislative process, as well as the representative bodies that would set right the social and economic injustice. They were very much aware of the inequality of treatment based on caste and tradition. It was considered necessary to take into account the special claims of certain communities which had for centuries been excluded from position of equality and respect. Departing fundamentally from the individualist premise of the equality principle it was proposed to have rights as legal entitlements that would also be obligations on the members of civil society. As a result within the constitution, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had a set of rights and the state a set of duties, to eradicate discriminatory practices.

Keeping this vision in the backdrop, attempt has been made to situate tenets of liberty, equality and justice in conceptualizing marginalization vis-à-vis Scheduled Castes and Tribes.

The paper is broadly divided into two sections. The first section discusses the liberal concepts of democracy, equality, equity, inclusion, recognition and justice. The second section tries to explain the concept Marginalization within the liberal framework.

2. Liberal Debate on Democracy, Equality, Equity and Inclusion and Justice

We come across a number of definitions of Democracy. Schumpeter (1965 : 269) defines democracy as a national political system in which people, political parties, and groups are free to pursue their interests according to peaceful, rule-based competition, negotiation and cooperation within an institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of a competitive struggle for the people's vote. Dhal (1971 : 3) extends the range of requirements to eight, including freedom of association and expression, eligibility for public office, alternative sources of information, and institutions for making governments accountable to voters' wishes. Huntington (1991 : 7) uses the procedural notion when he argues that a polity is democratic 'to the extent that its most powerful collective decision makers are selected through fair, honest, and periodic elections in which candidates freely compete for votes and in which virtually all the adult population is eligible to vote'. Gordon White (1998 : 19) defines democracy as a set of institutional procedures to guarantee basic civil and political rights and allow political competition between political forces usually organized through parties. For David Held (1991 : 138-72) democracy means a form of government in which in contradistinction to monarchies and aristocracies, the people rule. Democracy entails a political community in which there is some form of political equality among the people. Held brings forth 12 variants (models) of democracy that have evolved from the ancient to modern times. Thus, democracy understood in procedural sense calls for political participation of the citizens who are free to choose between the alternative policy agenda of various political parties.

The stability of this democracy depends much upon the participation of the citizens: their sense of identity, how do they perceive and work together with people of different identities, their desire for participation in political affairs, their initiatives of abiding by their duties as citizens etc.

Since the paper looks into marginalization of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes it is very important to understand their sense of identity and belongingness in the system. When one talks about asserting political rights and taking decisions, what is the perception of these groups about themselves, about representatives from their group and how is this decision influenced by the

presence of other local actors. Are the groups able to organize themselves? Are the elections fair, honest, and periodic? Do they participate in the decision making?

Participatory notions of democracy relied on the ability of citizens to take a full and active role in decision making.... that is, 'rule by the people'. Rule by the people implied twin principles of popular control and political equality (Beetham, 1994 : 157-172). Political equality is a part of the broader concept of equality that liberal philosophy advocates.

The philosophy of liberal equality entails each person to start their life with an equal share of society's resources. The resources available to a person include opportunities for skill development, personal accomplishment and the exercise of opportunities. The idea of equality of opportunity is based on the premise that people's destiny should be shaped according to their choices and not by their circumstances. In the way of pursuing a personal ambition, success or failure should be determined by one's performance and not by one's race, class or sex (Kymlicka, 2002 : 58). Right to political participation, freedom of expression, equality before law are some basic rights that should be equally extended to each individual in a society. Thus social inequalities are undeserved and should be removed to give each person an equal opportunity to acquire social benefits.

This premise leads to the concept of equity and justice. Individualism is regarded as the foremost concern of liberalism. Rights based liberalism begins with the claim that individuals are separate, persons with different aims, interests and conceptions of good. So the need is of framework of rights that will enable people to realize their capacity as free moral agents, with respect for a similar liberty for others. While criticizing this individualistic view Communitarians emphasize that it ignores the communal sentiments and identities. They argue that due to its emphasis on the individualism, liberalism cannot be trusted to deal adequately with the question of status and rights for ethnic communities, most of which are minorities within the state. While liberals advocate a distinction between the 'right' and the 'good', between framework basic rights and liberties, and the conceptions of the good that people may choose to pursue within the framework, the communitarians counter it on the grounds that an individual is a situated self whose freedom and well-being is possible within community only. The political rights of citizens (especially the right to participate in different forms of democratic governments), recognition of group differentiated rights, as well as citizens' obligations towards the state and the society thus emerge from this debate.

The contemporary rights based liberals, whether Rawls (1971) or Nozick (1974), consider every individual as an end and not just as a means, and thus try to find out principles of justice that embody it. In spite of that there is no consensus over the concept of justice that should prevail. Rawls arrives at a theory of justice on which social and economic inequalities are permitted only if they benefit the least well off, where as in Nozick's view justice embodies voluntary exchanges and transfers alone, with no option of redistributive policies.

The contemporary debate on the nature of justice focuses on the distinction between procedural justice and substantive justice. The proponents of procedural justice (Spencer, Hayek, Friedman, Nozick) hold that the market mechanism creates necessary conditions for the most efficient use of resources, any artificial social policy designed to disturb this process will lead to a wastage of the rare material and human resources. So the quest for justice should aim at evolving reasonable rules, exemplified in competitions, such as races, which should be applied impartially to all categories. Spencer, following Darwin's principle of 'natural selection' and 'survival of the fittest', asserts that any state help to the weak and handicapped would mean depriving the capable of their share. Hayek suggests that the state should positively promote competition (Held, 1999 : 258) and not function as an instrument of distributive justice (Hayek, 1960 : 87). Nozick opines that "Individuals have rights, and there are things which no person or group may do to them (without violating their rights). So strong and far reaching are these rights that they raise the question of what, if anything, the state and its officials may do" (Nozick, 1974 : ix) The state has no authority to redistribute the property of citizens...no right to interfere in the market, even to increase its efficiency.

The proponents of substantive justice opine that justice consists in ensuring a just distribution of 'primary goods' which include rights and liberties, powers and opportunities, income and wealth, means of self respect etc. Rawlsian idea of justice advocates an equal share of social goods to all. The central idea of Rawls's 'general conception of justice' is that all social primary goods - liberty and opportunity, income and wealth, and the bases of self respect- are to be distributed equally unless an equal distribution of any or all of these goods is to the advantage of the least favoured (Rawls, 1971 : 303).

Treating individuals as equal does not mean removing all inequalities but only the ones that are to the disadvantage to someone else. Inequality is allowed only if it is to the advantage of the least well off. However there are some social goods that have more importance than others and cannot be sacrificed for others (for e.g. equal liberties are more important than equal opportunity which in turn is more important than equal resources). In justice as fairness, the concept of right is prior to good (Rawls, 1984 : 41-42). Principle of justice follows a particular order which is ranked according to the principle of 'lexical priority' (Rawls, 1971 : 302-03). Dworkin (1984 : 60-79) is sympathetic to certain welfare rights and maintains that 'governments must be neutral' on the question of good life and the political decisions must be "independent of any particular conception of the good life or what gives value to life."

3. Cultural Diversity and the debate on Inclusion

There has been a major development in the discourses of development in terms of multi-cultural theories in which the minority sections of the society have been viewed in light of rights, justice, freedom and equality.

Recent years have witnessed a number of theories that try to accommodate moral and cultural diversity under liberalism. Two strands of multiculturalist arguments have evolved in the due course. The first is methodological and parallel arguments that are used by the communitarians with regard to the nature of the 'self' or the ethical subject. The second role is less communitarian in the sense that it is employed by the political liberals (Raz, 1986; Kymlicka, 1995) in order to provide a foundation and context for liberal values such as autonomy (Kelly, 2002 : 5). Isaiah Berlin was one of the first to stress cultural pluralism. Berlin, in his conception of plurality of ends, opines that freedom of choice is 'a truer and more humane ideal' than the alternatives. Rawls in his *A Theory of Justice* tries to deal with the question of moral plurality (Berlin, 1984 : 303).

Many critics of John Rawls's resurrection of liberalism and the social contract tradition drew on the familiar arguments employed by social contract theorists concerning the 'atomistic' and 'asocial' nature of person or the moral subject. Rawls used the idea of choosing the subject behind the veil of ignorance, which denies that subject of knowledge of crucial aspects of her identity, as a way of justifying his two principles of justice. Communitarians such as Sandel, Taylor, MacIntyre etc criticized this conception of the person on the grounds that it employs a narrowly atomistic approach. By this they meant that it presupposes that the person or the self can be detached from all the contingent aspects of personality provided by society, history culture and family without undermining its capacity to choose its ends or rules that should govern its interactions with others.

The methodological point is a renewal of a perennial debate in social theory about the priority of the individual or the collective (Kymlicka, 2002). The question which communitarians pose is "equality amongst whom"? Individual as an unencumbered self or as a situated self? Citizens as individuals or as members of the group, that they belong to? The communitarian critics (following Hegel) of Kantian view question the claim for the priority of the right over the good and the picture of the freely choosing individual it embodies. According to Hegel, this kind of approach (Moralitat) is too abstract and individualistic as it overlooks the fact that individuals are inevitably embedded in historical practices and relationships (Taylor, 1984 : 181). Communitarians propose a more contextual and community sensitive approach where individual is a creation of a community and each of us owes our identity to a community in which one is brought up..... our choices are framed in the context of a community not as detached, individual identity (Kymlicka, 1995).

The argument of the communitarians is that citizenship is as much a matter of rights as it is of identity and belonging. Young (1990) opines that social groups provide the contexts within which our identities are shaped, and consequently that the way these social groups are treated has a bearing on the treatment of individual who carry those group characteristics. Her view is that identity is absolutely a

social construction and that in modern pluralistic societies that construction takes place in complex overlapping contexts.

In Walzer's (1970 : 218) view the citizen stands to the state not only as an individual but also as the member of a variety of other organizations with which the state must relate in relating to them. Raz (1986) while discussing the politics of recognition and difference proposes that the kinds of goals available to individuals and the value they assign them are shaped by the social forms or practices of the society. Kymlicka (1995) propounds that culture provides the moral context for autonomous lives. It is 'an intergenerational community, more or less institutionally complete, occupying a given territory or homeland, sharing a distinct language and history.' For him, culture is a moral resource that provides the lived structures of values, beliefs and obligations required to make autonomy possible.

The arguments of the multiculturalists try to make space for various groups existing within the state but are denied equal citizenship rights (Bhagava and Reifield:: 2005:49). The discussion is based on the relationship of the group and the individual with the state respectively. They assert that due to its emphasis on the individualism, liberalism cannot be trusted to deal adequately with the question of status and rights for ethnic communities, most of which are minorities within the state (Van Dyke : 32). The ties between individual citizens and the political community are direct as well as mediated. The citizen stands to the state not only as an individual but also as the member of a variety of other organizations with which the state must relate in relating to them (Walzer, 1970 : 218). Diversity encompasses the ethnic groups differentiated by language, regions, religion, caste etc. In order to protect diversity and curb homogenization, demands have been made for special rights for minorities in form of cultural community rights, separate representation and self government rights (Kymlicka, 1995 : 18).

The issues of minority within minority, gender relations, caste hierarchy bring back the focus on the liberal tenet of equality of opportunity for every individual and the need for state intervention. The egalitarian liberals (Rawls, Dworkin) favour the welfare state and a scheme of civil liberties together with some social and economic rights, such as rights to welfare, education, health care etc.

Here we come to the discussion on the issues of *Recognition and Redistribution*.

Redistribution, as we have discussed above, comes from the liberal tradition. Rawls' and Dworkin's theories of distributive justice, seek to blend the traditional liberal emphasis on individual liberty with the egalitarianism of social Democracy. Their concepts of justice try to justify socio-economic redistribution. On the other hand, term recognition, is derived from Hegelian philosophy, specifically the philosophy of consciousness. To quote Nancy Fraser (2003 : 11), "In this tradition, recognition designates an ideal reciprocal relation between subjects in which each

sees the other as its equal and also as separate from it. This relation is deemed constitutive for subjectivity; one becomes an individual subject only in virtue of recognizing, and being recognized by, another subject. Thus, "recognition" implies the Hegelian thesis, often deemed at odds with liberal individualism, that social relations are prior to individuals and inter subjectivity is prior to subjectivity. Unlike redistribution, moreover, recognition is usually seen as belonging to "ethics" as opposed to "morality," that is, as promoting substantive ends of self-realization and the good life, as opposed to the "rightness" of procedural justice. Richly elaborated by existentialist thinkers at mid-century, recognition theory is currently undergoing a renaissance, as neo-Hegelian philosophers such as Charles Taylor and Axel Honneth are making it the centerpiece of normative social philosophies aimed at vindicating 'the politics of difference'."

The politics of redistribution is related to 'class politics', while the politics of recognition is understood by 'identity politics'. Fraser contrasts the two paradigms of redistribution and recognition in four areas: conception of injustice, cure for injustice, conceptions of the collectivities that suffer injustice and understandings of group differences (Fraser, 2003 : 12-16).

4. Conceptualizing Marginalization vis-à-vis Scheduled Castes and Tribes

Marginalization is defined primarily in terms of participation (or relative exclusion from participation) which includes institutional representation, fair inclusion in the schemes of social protection and support and in the system of rights applicable to social, economic, political context. The problematic of marginality and insecurity relates to the politics of belonging which entails the rights of participation (Nolutshungu, 1996 : 30). Dickie-Clark cites four important conditions that are necessary for Marginalization to develop. They are: unequal contact situation; hierarchical interaction situation where the higher group acts as reference point of the lowly placed community; social barrier which prevents the lowly placed community from participating fully in life of the reference group, and status inconsistency or ambiguity in defining the interaction situation properly, giving scope to dilemma in choosing proper mode of behaviour. When these conditions arise a certain section of the society is denied recognition by other members. Denial of recognition is interpreted as denial of self-realization of the subject or her capacity for achieving a "good life." For the proponents (Taylor and Honneth) of this view, misrecognition is explained as impaired subjectivity and damaged self-identity. Taylor states, "non-recognition or misrecognition ... can be a form of oppression, imprisoning someone in a false, distorted, reduced mode of being. Beyond simple lack of respect, it can inflict a grievous wound, saddling people with crippling self-hatred. Due recognition is not just a courtesy but a vital human need" (Fraser, 2003 : 29). For Honneth, similarly, "we owe our integrity ... to

the receipt of approval or recognition from other persons. [D]enial of recognition ... is injurious because it impairs ... persons in their positive understanding of self and understanding acquired by inter-subjective means (Fraser, 2003 : 29). Nancy Fraser espouses another view where she conceives recognition as a matter of justice. She says, "To view recognition as a matter of justice is to treat it as an issue of social status. This means examining institutionalized patterns of cultural value for their effects on the relative standing of social actors. If and when such patterns constitute actors as peers, capable of participating on a par with one another in social life, then we can speak of reciprocal recognition and status equality. When, in contrast, institutionalized patterns of cultural value constitute some actors as inferior, excluded, wholly other, or simply invisible, hence as less than full partners in social interaction, then we should speak of misrecognition and status subordination (Fraser, 2003 : 29).

Now let us consider as to how the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women become marginalized in the context of the present study.

There is a vast difference between western concept of marginal community and marginalized groups being considered here. Kymlicka states that critics often argue that the discourse of multiculturalism and the international norms reflect distinctively Western circumstances or preoccupations, disconnected from the needs and realities of Asia. He cites four important trends of multiculturalism and minority rights: Minority nationalism, Indigenous People, Immigrant Groups, Metics (Kymlicka and Baogang, 2005 : 22-23). Multiculturalists have suggested various measures aimed at protecting or promoting ethnocultural identities. These measures include separate representation and self government rights, language rights, regional autonomy, land claims, guaranteed representation, veto rights, etc. Kymlicka also cites reasons for the minorities becoming more assertive as well as dominant groups coming to terms with the new models of accommodation. These reasons are Demographics, Rights-consciousness, Democracy, De-securitization and Liberal-Democratic Consensus. Given their minimal access to education, employment, healthcare, information about civil and political rights, none of the models of the marginal groups mentioned by Kymlicka refer to the marginalized groups of the present study.

5. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as Socially and Culturally Marginalized

Social marginalization depends on the degree of acceptability or unacceptability of members of a particular group by another group for designated relationship or roles. Gunnar Myrdal in his study of race relations in the United States observes these differentials of social acceptability and non- acceptability as the "rank order of discrimination" (Gist and Wright, 1973 : 27).

Social marginalization generally refers to inter-group and inter-personal relations that exist between two or more groups. If an individual representing a particular group is not socially acceptable by members of another related group, or if he is acceptable only within specified limits, or in specified ways, he may be said to occupy a socially marginal position and be in a marginal relation to members of that group. Cultural marginalization refers to the belief and value systems, established behaviour patterns, forms of social organization, skills and bodies of knowledge, and symbols representing the cultural possessions or status of a group which exists more or less permanently in some kind of functional relationship to another group (Gist and Wright, 1973 : 25).

It is important to consider the socio-economic and cultural situation of both the groups. Traditionally, the Scheduled Castes have remained at the bottom of the hierarchically ranked castes, stratification being based on the rules of purity and pollution and occupational status. They have remained the oppressed and exploited sections of society for centuries. They were deprived of education, denied social dignity and confined to manual work of cultivation or the other low status artisan and service occupation and here, the ritual hierarchy coincided with the hierarchy of wealth and occupation especially at lower levels. Subordination of these groups did not confine itself to economic exploitation in terms of appropriation of surplus but also related to suppression of culture, way of life and value system, and also denial of dignity (Shah, 2001 : 222). For them identity and socio-economic issues have always been interwoven. The Scheduled Tribes, on the other hand, have been treated as the outsider, culturally inferior though not always oppressed (Parasher-Sen, 2004 : 1-6).

6. Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes as Politically Marginalized

Political marginalization occurs when any of the citizenship rights and entitlements is inhibited, withheld or violated. As discussed previously, a liberal-democratic state guarantees formal freedom and equality for all the citizens. The concept of liberal equality requires the individual to start her life with an equal share of society's resources. The resources available to a person include opportunities for skill development, personal accomplishment and the exercise of opportunities. The liberal ideals of liberty basically imply 'an absence of restraint', whether as negative liberty in not being prevented from attaining one's goals by other human beings or as positive liberty of being treated as one's own master. The rights based liberals consider every individual as an end and thus try to establish principles of justice that embody this spirit.

But the question is that: can formal freedom and equality provide substantial freedom and equality to every social group? Does the notion of democracy confine to just formal equal opportunity to vote? If the distribution of resources such as

education, capital etc is unequal, the opportunities and bargaining capacities are ought to be unequal. Critics of liberalism contradict their claims that resources and rights can be equally shared by each individual of any social group. Their distribution depends on the differential socio- spatial existence of the groups. Plurality by itself cannot ensure a democratic state or polity. It might simply be a contested process for regional, religious, ethnic, linguistic and other basis of electoral support and yet hide social discrimination and inequality by forwarding the illusion of expanding civil society against the state (Jayaram, 2005 : 95).

How are the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes marginalized in terms of political rights? Several attempts have been made to revitalize local government since independence. After the 73rd and 74th amendments to the Constitution in 1992, the panchayati raj institutions (PRIs) gained constitutional status and came to be regarded as the third level of governance. The 73rd amendment to the Constitution visualized setting up of local governance structures with the goal of percolating democracy at the grassroots. The aim was also to bring the marginalized groups to the mainstream political process through affirmative action. Positive discrimination in the form of reservation of seats in panchayats intended to make space for better and increased participation of various marginalized groups such as women Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and OBCs.

The elected Panchayati Raj Institutions were expected to replace the customary institutions at the local level. The most important among these being the customary panchayats traditionally existing as dispute resolution bodies. Various studies have shown that traditional customary panchayats and leadership are important variables in influencing the process of local governance. The local institutions as well as higher level institutions are prone to capture by vested interests (Bardhan and Mookherjee, 2000). The evidence of "elite capture" is too strong an influence in the local governments. Be it the case of panchayat ward members in Tamil Nadu or Kerala (Narayana, 2000 : 2831), traditional "village council" of Rajasthan (Krishna, 2002 : 28), or "customary panchayat" of Karnataka where the head is almost always a person belonging to a dominant caste group (Ananthpur, 2007 : 667- 73). The local democratic institutions are greatly influenced by the village elite and generally too weak to influence the individualistic styles of functioning of elected officials.

One is the assumption referred to above that the Customary Panchayats are shrinking in the face of competition from formal structures and that GPs have filled the vacuum left by these shrinking customary institutions. However, field research indicates otherwise. Contrary to popular belief, there has not been a unilinear displacement of Customary Panchayats by the formal structures of governance such as GPs. Rather there is some evidence to suggest that customary institutions themselves both influence and adapt to the existence of formal governance structures.

7. Marginalized in terms of Equality of Opportunity

Equality of opportunity is one of the basic rights offered by the liberal state. The makers of the constitution wished to extend the idea of equality of opportunity to all human beings in the social and political sphere. This required the government to treat all those in its purview as equals, as entitled to equal concern and respect. The goal of equality of opportunity was the removal of obstacles in the way of an individual realizing individual's potential. The liberal conception of equality includes the legal and social dimensions. It necessitates the elimination of arbitrary advantages in a social and economic system, irrespective of the cause whether the inequality has resulted from one's choice or that of another. Thus, attempts were made to integrate the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes into society and politics through 'modern' political institutions. They visualized its realization through the constitution and the legislative process, as well as the representative bodies that would set right the social and economic injustice. They were very much aware of the inequality of treatment based on caste and tradition. It was considered necessary to take into account the special claims of certain communities which had for centuries been excluded from position of equality and respect. Departing fundamentally from the individualist premise of the equality principle it was proposed to have rights as legal entitlements that would also be obligations on the members of civil society. As a result within the constitution, the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had a set of rights and the state a set of duties, to eradicate discriminatory practices.

Dr. B. R Ambedkar was the most ardent advocate of the rights for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Unlike the rights theorists of the 17th and 18th century who regarded right as a faculty of possession, Dr. Ambedkar stressed on the relational aspect of rights (Verma, 1999 : 2804). These rights were put forward as important elements or vital ingredients in a fully realized human life. The core argument being that members of the group suffer because they are neither accorded the same respect nor afforded the same opportunities as other persons or groups. They are prevented from realizing their capacities, in other words, they are not treated with full respect and dignity. The basic human needs of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were not only material (wealth, occupational mobility) but non-material, all have the right to be human and the right to live with dignity and self-respect

Dr. Ambedkar put forth the necessary priority of community claims over individual rights on the grounds that these departures from formal equality could be justified on various grounds, viz, the anti-discriminatory principle whose main purpose had been to prevent private practices and legal procedures from stigmatizing the individuals involved. To cure this social malaise, Ambedkar raised the possibilities for political participation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes through reservations; the reparation theme the idea being that of historic injustice suffered by the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. This

theme was proposed to offset the systematic and cumulative deprivations suffered by lower castes in the past. He argued that "the constitution should not only declare that we shall have specific rights that every community will have, but that the constitution should provide ways and means by which we shall be protected in the exercise of these rights" (Verma, 1999 : 2804)

But consider an example of education of the children of an illiterate widow belonging to a low caste, whose husband was the sole earning member of the family? Where does one place this culturally, socially, economically disadvantaged subject vis a vis equality of opportunity? Here we enter the liberal debate of equality, justice and efforts to establish identity and difference among the citizens through state intervention.

This rights based approach enables one to assess the state- society relations in terms of fairness, equity and inclusiveness and simultaneously encourages the participation of citizens in the development process. It is believed that this approach has many advantages. First, it shifts the focus from government to citizen. Second, the language of rights makes clear that the poor are not the subject of charity or benevolence by governments but instead are entitled to a decent standard of living and that rights are the vehicles for participation and empowerment and third aspect is that it draws attention to the importance of norms and rules. That is, how a society is governed and how it achieves its development becomes equally important as what these processes achieve.

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Were the Financial Reforms Inclusive? A Case Study of Uttar Pradesh

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The link between financial development, economic growth, and inclusion has widely been debated in economic literature. Despite differences in the point of view, a near consensus seems emerges that a robust financial system can help society through many interconnected channels. This paper attempts to review the instrument of the different regulatory regime and its impact on the relative progress of Uttar Pradesh especially on the parameters of the Index of Financial Inclusion (IFI). On the basis of the role of the state in finance, the period between 1969 and 2015 has been divided into three broad regulatory regimes i.e, social banking (1969-91), intense reform (1992-04) and financial inclusion drives (2005-15). This paper finds that the performance of the states in the parameters of IFI remarkably varied over the regimes. This study finds an asymmetric movement in the dimension of the IFI during the aforementioned three regimes.

[Keywords : IFI, HDI, Social Banking, Regulatory regimes, Financial Liberalizations, Convergence, JEL Classifications]

1. Introduction

The early formulations of the economic theories were skeptical about the capacity of the finance in influencing the level and growth of the economic variables, in the long run. The classical economists firmly believed that the financial sector is subservient to the change in the real economies. Keynesian however, recognized the role of finance but, accorded higher priority to the fiscal policy, over the monetary policy (Ang, 2008). Monetarism¹ deviating from the Keynesian formulation posited that supply of money and central banking has a

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notable impact on determining the level and growth of the macroeconomic variable of the economy. And, concluded that excessive expansion of the money supply is inherently inflationary; hence monetary authorities should focus solely on maintaining price stability. In the subsequent formulations, the finance started acquiring a central place in economic theories and model formulations worldwide (Fry, 1997; Arestis, 2005; McKinnon, 1973).

The struggle for finance to be recognized as an independent entity in economics was very long. Despite, recognizing the importance of finance in determining the economic growth and distribution, sharp differences exist in regards to the issues such as, role of state in the financial markets, extent of the financialisation of growth process, and the mechanism of controlling them and regulating the financial sectors (Bagchi, 1982; Patnaik, 2002, 2008; Chakravorty, 1982). In recent pasts, there seems consensus that a well developed and inclusive financial system has not the only capacity to improve the level of GDP growth rate; but, it can also transform the society, through its direct and indirect linkages with the real sectors (Arestis, 2005). There are plethora of studies which suggest that increased access to financial institution has successfully transformed the lives of millions of the people located at periphery of the society especially to those households, belonging to the lower economy strata, and/or situated at unbanked locations (Arestis, 2005; Rangarajan, 2008; Sarma et al, 2012; UNDP, 2006).

The global financial integrations, advancement in information and communication technology, innovations in the financial products and financial institutions unquestionably, stimulated the growth and diversification of the financial market at unprecedented scale especially, in the last two and half decades of the last century. Despite widening and deepening of the financial infrastructure, the large segment of the society across the nations yet remained outside the system of formal finance. And such groups are classified as 'financially excluded' population which are large in number spread across the nations (UNDP, 2006).

In simple terms, the situation of the 'financial exclusion' arises when the large segment of the population is being denied access to financial services at the many pretexts. The financially excluded population are put under the two categories- voluntary and involuntary. The former refers to a situation when a segment of the population or firms willingly choose not to use financial services due to their economic, social and cultural preferences (Rajan, 2009). In contrast, the situation of involuntary financial exclusion arises, when peoples are willing to participate in the financial market but they are denied access to basic financial services on the grounds of market failures² and lack of the collateral (Goran Amidžic, et al, 2014).

Despite broad agreement on the need of an inclusive financial system there seems no consensus in regards to the universally accepted definition of the 'financial inclusion'. Rangarajan (2008) defines financial inclusion as the 'process of ensuring timely access to financial services needed by vulnerable groups such as weaker sections and low-income groups at affordable costs'. Rajan (2009) defines

financial inclusion as a situation when universal access to a wide range of financial services (banking and other financial services) at a reasonable cost is available for the society in a non-partitioned manner. There are varieties of the reasons for the prevalence of low financial inclusion in society. Information and transaction costs in imperfect financial markets have put more binding on the poor than the rich. The poor households being poor usually lack collateral and credit history a statutory requirement that determines the eligibility of the loans from the formal credit market (Chakraborty and Hu, 2006). Thus any relaxation of the constraints in credit market improves the efficiency of the capital allocations, can reduce income inequality, though the impending flow of capital to poor individuals, with the high, expected returns on investments Nonetheless, the conflicting perspectives do exists, in regard to the merits and demerits of financial development, achieved through the market-based regulations and regulatory regimes having the broader role of the states in financial markets (Greenwood & Jovanovic, 1990).

In this backdrop, the present study attempts to empirically investigate the trends in financial inclusion of Uttar Pradesh. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Besides the introduction, section two presents an overview of the development of banking regulation since the bank nationalization in the country. Section three deliberates upon the research questions, hypothesis, methodology and data sources. Section four outlines the relative progress the Uttar Pradesh in the Index of the financial inclusion over the three different regulatory regimes.

2. An Overview of Banking Policy in India

Indian financial sector globally has been cited a fit case study of the 'dualism', where formal and informal institutions not only coexisted for the centuries but also have been operating in close coordination with each other (Bell, 1993). The footprints of modern banking in the country can easily be traced to the late 17th century, which is contemporary to her colonial masters (Mishra, 2018). The banking industry operated under the principles of *laissez-faire* for more than 150 years although, the financial structure of the country has been imperfect and incomplete (Mishra, 2018). Lack of regulatory and monitoring mechanism, dualism, and information asymmetry led to a high mortality rate of the banking and frequent bank failure under the British Rule (RBI, 1985). The common people neither had faith nor were willing to have any business with the banks in the early phase of banking development. Hanged with colonial mindsets and elitism, bankers were also not interested in expanding their business to the common masses. The results, banks were located in few pockets especially near the port town and major business centers controlled by the British. Most of the banks had been serving the interest of the promoters, urban elites and were involved in the speculative activities and international trade. Nevertheless, many banks were opened under the ownership and management of the Indians after the Swadeshi Movement, but their characters and style of functioning were not much different

from the banks promoted and managed by the British nationals (Bagchi, 1982; Mohan, 2006; Mishra, 2018).

In order to streamline and for depositing the faith of the common masses in the banking industry, 'Reserve Bank of India' was established in 1935. The RBI as the central bank was established, after intense discussions and many deliberations amongst the authorities of the colonizers although it had limited success in regards to changing the characters, orientations, and priorities of the banking industry. RBI till 1949 was a private stakeholding joint stock bank that had statutory backing to carry out the functioning of the central banking. It could not force the bankers to open branches in unbanked location due to the prevailing political, economic and social circumstances (RBI, 1985). The common masses remained dependent on the centuries-old system of informal finance for their variety of credit and other financial needs (Chandrasekhar and Ray, 2005). In fact, the entire banking industry had strong prejudice and suffered from the many biases against the financing of the activities, people of the rural areas, especially towards the household at bottom of the social and economic pyramid. The banking under the entire colonial period is also known as 'regime of the high street banking' which was carried with the colonial hangover and elite mindsets (RBI, 1970, 1985; Mohan, 2006; Mishra, 2018).

Immediately after independence, many steps³ were taken by the government and RBI that had been intended to: change the perception and colonial character of the banking industry : bring more people and activities into the formal banking network: use bank as tool for the resource mobilization for the development planning and also to the economic and social transformation etc. Through its branch policy 1949, higher priority in banks license was given to those banks which were interested in the opening of the bank branches in the rural and unbanked area (RBI, 1985; Mohan, 2004). Despite, no remarkable change was realized especially in banking availability, access, and use by the masses and also at the front of regional, interstate and sectoral convergence financial inter-mediations fronts, even two decades later to the RBI act 1949 (Mishra, 2018). The bank branches remained concentrated in a few pockets of the country, and they continued to serve limited people and financing of a few activities. The rural activities those affecting the lives of the majority of the rural population were yet dependent on the weak cooperative structure, moneylenders and other players of unorganized money market for their varieties of the financial needs. Summarily, prior to the nationalization absolute and relative banking intensity in the most populated states like Uttar Pradesh was atypically low. Government and RBI could not do much in this regards because the banking industry in those days was dominated by the small and privately owned non-scheduled commercial banks. Certainly, these banks were outside of the preview and jurisdictions of the RBI and they were unwilling to compete with the players of informal money market for the variety of reasons including their colonial legacy perceptions (RBI, 1954; Kapila and Kapila, 2001; Bagchi, 1982).

The era of Social Banking (1969 to 1991) began when the government decided to take over the control of the assets and business of fourteen largest private banks in 1969 with the stated objectives of; increasing banking access to the sector, regions and the peoples that were denied access for the centuries. To promote an inclusive banking system a series of steps⁴ were taken by the RBI and government between 1969 and 1991 in order to bridge the access, availability and use gap in banking services, across the rural-urban, regional and interstate and also the sectors (Kapila and Kapila, 2001; Bagchi, 2005; Chavan, 2005).

Banking sector entered into a markedly different phase, also known as 'Intense Reform Period (1992-04) after the government accepted most of the recommendations of the Committee⁵ on Financial Sector Reforms (henceforth CFSR'), headed by M. Narsimham in 1991. The recommendations of the CFSR were in the mark deviation in orientation, focus, and strategy from those of the regulation executed during social banking. The CFSR recommendations were accepted with a view to; prepare the banking sector to meet the demand of the new age banking, to achieve the desired profitability, productivity, and efficiency; and synchronizing the instruments of banking with the real sector. Most of the instruments used in this period had its genesis in the 'financial liberalization thesis (Rangarajan 1999; Mohan, 2006).

The banking industry although undergoing into the changes under the intense reform, a severe currency crisis led by the poor management of banking asset and liabilities occurred, in many parts of the globe. The epicenter of the crisis was the Southeast Asian Economies which claimed to have successfully implemented the market-based regulations, suggested by the liberals (Ghosh, 2009). To insulate from the crisis, and prepare the robust regulation government gave fresh terms of reference to the committee that drafted CFSR in 1991. Assignment before this committee was to analyze the progress of the measures adopted in 1992 and suggests the preemptive steps in the wake of the crisis in the financial sector. The committee gave its report⁶ in April 1998 and did not recommend any major change in existing practices. Although it advised for the creation of the early warning system and adoption of counter-cyclical measures, that could calibrate with best practices of international prudential norms of capital adequacy and asset classifications (Chavan, 2005; GOI, 1998).

Certainly, the quantitative outcomes of banking regulations of social banking and intense reforms are not comparable because of the differences in objectives, approach, and focus. It is true that the country witnessed improvement in banking indicators, pertinently in parameters of the health, profitability, and efficiency during the intense reform. Banking industry observed, entry of the private and foreign banks, secular decline in NPA, enhanced competition between public and private banks, better assets and liability management, diversification in assets and capital structure of the public sector banks and consolidations of the banking industry on account of merger and amalgamation (Das et al, 2005). But, accusation

against the intense reform is that its urban orientation of branches, return of the 'high street character of the colonial banking, branch rationalization policy and dilution through broadening of the priority sectors led to an asymmetric access and availability of the banking services across the geographical locations, population groups, regions and occupation categories hence financial exclusions (Bagchi, 2005; Mohan, 2006; Chandrasekhar and Ray, 2005; Chavan, 2013). Noticeably, branch rationalization policy of 1991 although was intended to prevent the overlapping and creation of the unnecessary branches but, studies suggest that it ended with the migration of bank branches from the rural to non-rural locations, thereby decline in banking intensity in rural areas and asymmetric Expansions (Mishra, 2017, 2019). In fact, thinning of bank branch intensity in rural areas have risen constraints on poor and increased the transaction costs on the small loans largely used by the downtrodden or peoples and activities at the margin in the country (RBI, 2008). In view of increased constrained aforementioned groups find borrowings unprofitable from the formal loan market and switched to the unorganized money market. The decline in the demand for loans in rural areas was mistakenly perceived by the policymakers. They explained that decline was not attributed to the increased barriers to entry, but such decline was temporary and could be a result of the strengthening of the screening and monitoring mechanism. But they could not explain the phenomenon such as the return of the moneylenders, spurts in the incidence of the farmer's suicides, increasing in the financial exclusions in all regions (Chavan, 2005; GOI, 2007).

In fact, public pressure mounted on the RBI and government to devise the workable mechanism that could create a conducive environment for the mass banking and greater inclusions (GOI, 2008; RBI, 2009). Subsequently, RBI (2005) report realized inadequacies in ongoing measures of the reform. Realizing the need for an inclusive system of banking features like adherence of demographic and backwardness criteria, the days of the social banking were reintroduced into the branch authorization policy in 2006 (Mishra, 2018). To supplement the financial inclusion drive, the product and institutional⁷ innovations based on available Information and Communication Technology (ICT⁸) was promoted across the banks in the country. ICT in banking were aggressively promoted for twin purposes. The widening and deepening of access, availability, and use of banking services in real time without much hassle at one hand; and also for better monitoring of the transactions at the lowest costs on the other hands. In other words, delivery of need-based customized financial product at affordable costs in transparent ways in non-partitioned manner. Focus also shifted from the individual lending to the group of peer monitoring based initiatives such as many variant of the Micro-finance, Joint Liability Groups (JLG), and devised new mechanism such as MUDRA (Micro Units Development and Refinance Agency), Prime minister Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY), DBT (Direct Benefit Transfer) based on

the JAM (Jan Dhan, AADHAR, and Mobile) ternary. These schemes are certainly aimed and designed towards achieving universal access at a faster pace and complete financial inclusions (Economic Survey, 2018).

3. Concept of Financial Inclusion : An Overview of the Studies

The importance of an inclusive financial system although has well been recognized in development literature but, opinions seems sharply divided in regards to the concept, methods of estimations, identification of the variables etc (Sarma, 2008, 2012; Mishra and Sharma, 2017). The other contentious issue amongst the policy makers yet to resolve has been the role and extent of state intervention in the financial market for an inclusive financial system (Kuri and Laha 2011; Chattopadhyay, 2013; Arestis, 2005). The believers of liberalizations prescribe for the adoption of the market-based regulations; while, disagreeing with them, the opponents advocate for the strong state intervention. In view of later, market-based regulation is not fit for the countries, having a strong presence of the dualism of various kinds. In their view, state aggressively should work on ensuring complete financial inclusion for the growth and equity, because in the presence of imperfect market and information asymmetry there are strong possibilities for the adverse selection a credit rationing in the market (Stieglitz, 1980). Ironically both embark and cite evidence of the field studies, for their claim and counterclaims (Arestis, 2005; Mishra, 2018). It is worth noting, the Indian banking sector has been evolving as it has been subjected to all sorts of the possible textbook regulation i.e., Laissez-faire, controlled regime, and the hybrid regime, muddling through the changes in the economy and the society (RBI, 1970, 1985; Kapila & Kapila, 2001).

4. Research Questions

In view of the above discussions, this paper explores the claims of liberals on the liberalization and inclusion links in the Indian context. This paper precisely deals with the following research questions :

1. Whether changes in the regulatory regime have any visible impact on the parameters of the financial inclusion, in Uttar Pradesh?
2. Whether any notable trend in convergence occurred during the financial inclusion drive.

To address the first question, the Index of Financial Inclusion (henceforth 'IFI') of the Uttar Pradesh (including Uttarakhand) and the country has been estimated for the pre and post-reform period (during 1972 and 2015). The period under consideration has further been divided into two broad regimes: the regime of 'Social Banking' (1972 to 1991), and the regime of the Banking Sector Reform (1992 to 2015). The later regime has further been broken into two sub-periods; period of intense reform (1992-04), and the financial inclusion drives (2005-2015).

To address the second question, the dimension of the IFI has been estimated for the district and regions of the Uttar Pradesh only.

5. Methodology

The present study constructs an Index of Financial Inclusion, a value-free composite index based on a predetermined set of indicators (Kempson, 2004, 2007). Like the Human Development Index, IFI consists of the three dimensions viz., Availability, Penetration, and Usage of the financial services (Banking). The advantages of IFI are that it arrives at a single index whose value lies between 0 and 1. The zero divulges complete exclusion, whereas dimension value one point towards complete inclusion (Chakravarty and Pal, 2011). Each dimension represents a weighted sum of parameters $D_1, D_2, D_3, \dots, D_n$. The index value of the i th dimension, d_i is computed through the following formula:

$$d_i = \frac{\text{Actual value (Ai)} - \text{Minimum value (Min)}}{\text{Maximum value (Max)} - \text{Minimum value (Min)}} \quad \dots(1)$$

range value of the d_i is 0 d_i 1; i.e., the value of each dimension lies between 0 and 1 and is monotonically increasing. This also implies that higher the value, greater the achievements in dimension and a vice a versa.

If financial inclusion includes k dimension then each unit would be represented by a point on the k -dimensional Cartesian space; say $D(1,1,1)$ and $D(0,0,0)$ depending on the weight and distance from where it has been measured. The present paper uses the Cartesian distance between 1 and 0 for calculation of the Index of Financial Inclusion and also the inverse distance 0 and following Sarma (2012).

The IFI and HDI is computed through the following formulae;

$$X1 = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^k d_i^2}}{\sqrt{k}} \quad \dots(2)$$

$$X2 = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^k (w_i - d_i)^2}}{\sqrt{k}} \quad \dots (3)$$

and
$$IFI = \frac{X1 + X2}{2} \quad \dots(4)$$

The d_1, d_2, d_3, \dots represents the dimension of HDI and IFI (Availability, Penetration, and Use of Banking services) respectively. Although equal weight ($w_i = 1$) has been assigned to each dimension following the UNDP Goal Post Method. (5% is an adjustment in minimum and the maximum value (HDR, 2013).

Further, in view of the availability of data, the present study estimates the narrow⁹ concept of banking inclusion involving five indicators while following the methodology of Chattopadhyay, S. K. (2011)

Table-1 : Indicator of IFI and Expected Outcome

Dimensions	Indicator	Measurement	Expected outcome
Availability (d1)	Demographic penetration of bank branches	Number of branches per 1000 population	The lower value in this dimension indicates higher bank intensity and better availability, and vice a versa.
Penetration (d2)	Credit Account Per capita (CAC_PC)	Number of loans account per 1000 people	A higher value indicates better penetration hence inclusion, and vice a versa.
	Deposit Account Per capita (DAC_PC)	Number of deposits account per 1000 people	A higher value indicates better penetration and inclusion and vice a versa.
Uses (d3)	Credit-Income Ratio (CI_RATIO)	The average size of the loan to NSDP/ DDP per capita	A higher value indicates better use of banking and inclusion; and vice a versa.
	Deposit-Income Ratio (DI_RATIO)	The average size of Deposits to NSDP/ GDP per capita	A higher value indicates better use of the banking and inclusion and vice a versa.

Source : Chattopadhyay, S. K. (2011)

As regards data source, the study is based on secondary data. A dimension of the IFI of the regions and district of Uttar Pradesh has been computed from the data of different official sources. It includes Basic Statistical Returns of the SCBs (RBI), National Accounts Statistics (CSO), various publications of the UP government.

6. Financial Indicators of the Uttar Pradesh : An Overview

Uttar Pradesh a diversified state accommodates the largest population and ranks fourth in terms of the area (294.11 lakhs Km²) in the country. At present, the state is divided into four geographical regions, and also into the 75 districts. The state has been blessed with; the diversified¹⁰ natural resources; a hub of leading educational institutions; sufficient pool of the educated and skilled manpower and carried with the coexistence of composite culture and falls under the diversified agro-climatic zones (GoUP, 2018). Despite, the state has been put under the BIMARU group which is low performers of the country. Like, other BIMARU states it also suffered from the weak economic infrastructure, asymmetric distribution of economic resources, sustained the decline in land-man ratio, low savings, and investment, the vast prevalence of the semi-feudal production and exchange relation and imperfect money market (Mishra, 2010). The regional disparities within states in terms of the economic and social parameters had been

prominent and consistently widened over the years. The 199.80 million population of the state (as per census, 2011) is unevenly distributed across the four regions; ranging from 41.1% in Eastern UP, 4.9% in Bundelkhand, 36% in Western and 18% in Eastern UP. State not only lagged behind the average national development parameters but prominent inter-and intra-regional disparities also exist in terms of income, occupational structure, employment, banking and other financial infrastructure dimensions of HDI (Mishra, 2019; Misra, 2010; Mourya et al, 2011).

As discussed, modern banking originated and expanded at the relatively faster pace in the cities that had higher industrial density, and also had closer linked to the port towns in the country (RBI, 1985). Unfortunately, the state remained predominantly agriculture and none of the industrial towns are cities had any link to the big ports, the prime criteria for the opening of the bank branches under the colonial rules. State's poor performance in the financial intermediations parameters was the result of the thin branch density of the modern banks and also due to adverse social economic and political conditions. Despite being the center of the cooperatives movement and other political activities, banking density did improve much even after the establishment of the RBI in 1935. The country witnessed unprecedented growth of the bank business during the world war, however despite falling in the main supply line of the transportation of the war material state remained aloof to the banking development of the time (RBI, 1985, Mishra, 2018; Bagchi, 1982). At the eve of the independence of the country, the state (a large part of the united province) performance was relatively worse in terms of access and use of the banking services (Table -2).

Table-2 : Financial intermediation parameters of the Uttar Pradesh Vs. India (1950-2015)

Year	Branch Density (Per 1000 population)			Per capita deposit at 1999-00 prices (in ₹)			Credit Deposit Ratio (in %)		
	Uttar Pradesh	India	Ratio*	Uttar Pradesh	All India	Ratio*	Uttar Pradesh	All India	Ratio*
1951	169	134	1.26	10	24	0.42	64.7	62.1	1.04
1961	160	100	1.60	18	45	0.40	57.1	65.6	0.87
1971	62.6	38.2	1.64	998	1826	0.55	42.6	67.1	0.64
1981	26.8	19.0	1.41	1799	3001	0.60	50.4	66.5	0.76
1991	16.2	13.7	1.18	3746	6021	0.62	47.6	61.9	0.77
2005	20.4	15.8	1.29	8254	15938	0.52	36.2	66.0	0.55
2015	12.7	9.8	1.29	18751	38349	0.49	38.6	70.4	0.55

Note : * The ratio of the Uttar Pradesh including Uttarakhand to the All India.

Source : Mishra (2019)

The relative performance of Uttar Pradesh and the country in terms of bank availability, penetration parameter and the credit-deposit ratio (CD ratio), since the independence of the country to the recent past, is given in Table 2. From the table, the relative performance of the state in 1951 was far below the national average owing to socio-political and cultural practices and negation for a very long time during the colonial period. Further, widening of the gaps between the Uttar Pradesh and country especially, in terms of branch availability per thousand of population, and the deposit amount per capita, the between 1951 and 1969, indicates continuation of the colonial legacy and exclusionary policy, despite, the state being the largest contributor in representatives in the parliament and populations. The credit-deposit ratio, an indicator of the local use of the saving which was almost similar to the national average at the time of independence has declined over the years. This brings the fact that savings have migrated from the states sub-optimal use (Table-2).

It is further evident from the table that Uttar Pradesh benefitted from the social banking initiatives, as state witnessed a remarkable improvement in the credit-deposit ratio, branch density and on the other parameters. The decline in the gap in the parameters such as branch density, the credit-deposit ratio between Uttar Pradesh and the country, indicates towards the convergence, during the social banking (1972-91). However, a clear divergence has been noticed in aforesaid parameters during the intense reform (1992-04). As discussed, financial inclusion drives were aimed at bringing convergence across the regions and state, but the study did not find any convergence trends in aforesaid parameters during the financial inclusion drive (2005-15).

Table-3 : A different dimension of IFI in Uttar Pradesh and India from 1972 to 2015

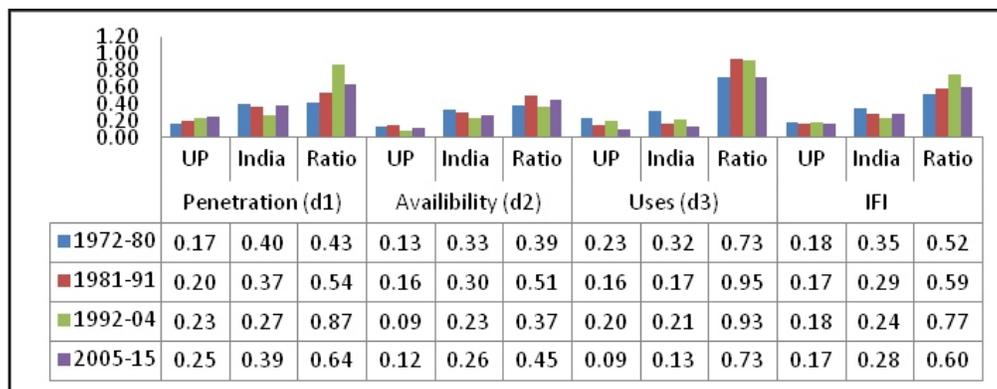
Year	(Availability) DPEN (Branch Population Ratio, per 1000)			Banking Penetration Credit +Deposit account/ Population Ratio, per 1000)			Use of Banking Services (Credit+Deposit Amount/GSDP) (in %)			IFI		UP's Rank in IFI
	UP	India	Ratio	UP	India	Ratio	UP	India	Ratio	UP	India	
1972	1.6	2.6	0.62	36.3	70	0.52	0.23	0.43	0.53	0.17	0.36	13
1981	3.7	5.3	0.70	157	240.5	0.65	0.42	0.66	0.64	0.15	0.32	13
1991	6.2	7.3	0.85	407	492.9	0.83	0.61	0.87	0.70	0.16	0.24	12
2004	5	6.3	0.79	408.1	485.6	0.84	0.86	1.22	0.70	0.18	0.24	12
2015	7.9	10.2	0.77	1004.2	1233.8	0.81	1.06	1.64	0.65	0.17#	0.29#	13

Note : UP* Undivided Uttar Pradesh includes Uttarakhand.

Rank of UP is amongst the 17 major Indian States which includes Undivided UP, Bihar, MP and Andhra Pradesh

The trend in the average value of the 'IFI' and its three dimensions viz., Penetration, Availability, and Uses of Uttar Pradesh and the country, over the period between 1972 and 2015 and aforementioned sub regimes has been shown in Figure 1 and Table 3. From the figure and the table, Uttar Pradesh ranked low and was slow performer amongst the 17 states, with respect to the aforementioned three dimensions of the IFT in 1972. The performance of the state in aforesaid dimensions unquestionably improved during social banking, but the movement was uncoordinated because of the difference in the values (Figure-1; Table-3).

Figure-1 : Trends in Dimension of IFI: Uttar Pradesh Vs. India (1972-2015)



Source : Author's own calculation

Rise in the value of the 'IFI' and its three dimensions during intense reform is surprising because, economy and banking industry of the country, both had been subjected to transformation and churning during this period. Despite the decline in availability and penetration parameters, improvement in ranking of the state in IFI show impacts of the banking reform had been less severe than those of the other state. On the contrary, the state's ranking slipped from the 13 ranks to the 12 during the financial inclusion drive despite an improvement in availability and use dimension. Further, the decline in use dimension and overall value of the IFI and its rank amongst the 17 states suggest that state could not garner the benefits of financial inclusion drive because of the poor absorption capacity of the loans.

7. Conclusion

The importance of an inclusive financial system has now well been recognized in development literature. The financial exclusion problem is multifaceted in nature, and requires a multi-pronged and long term strategy to overcome it. Given the extent of dualism and market imperfection of the financial markets, in dealing with the problems of financial exclusion of the states like Uttar Pradesh, the market-driven instruments seem not to be fit optimal. The faster progress in the IFI parameters and its dimensions, and state's convergence with the national average during the social banking suggests for a comprehensive view and holistic approach with utmost priority on the rural banking and financing to the vital sector of the economy. Besides, an improvement in IFI also calls for a balanced approach in banking access, availability, and the use dimensions. In addition to

improving the branch intensity in rural areas, policymakers of the state should also focus on the strategy for improving the credit absorption capacity of the new customers linked to the banks. Although the era of social banking was better in terms of growth and inclusion, nationalization of banks seems neither prudent nor feasible in the present context. But, the decline in value of IFI and slide in the ranking of the state during the inclusion drive raises question over the effectiveness of the inclusion drives and need more interventions for improving it.

Footnotes

1. Economic theory postulated by the Milton Friedman which was refined by the other economists. Monetarism posits that the.
2. Exclusion due to market failure arises when an individual or groups, or firms could be involuntarily excluded from the financial system because they do not have sufficient income or, in the case of the credit markets, have an excessive lending risk profile. This type of involuntary exclusion is also not the result of market failure. A second category of involuntarily excluded entities consist of the segment of individuals and firms that are denied financial services as a result of government failures or market imperfection (Goran Amidžic et.el, 2014).
3. RBI, was nationalized on 1st January 1949 with a purpose strengthen its role as the central bank of the country and also to deal with menace of bank failure, consolidation of bank business, expansion of bank network in unbanked regions, and bringing commercial bank on board in development planning of the country. 'State Bank of India' came into existence by nationalizing 'Imperial Banks' in 1955, and subsequently eight princely states bank were also nationalized between 1958 and 1960.
4. Steps includes: differential interest rates, directed credit programme, lead bank scheme, revised branch licenses and establishment of the Regional Rural Banks (hybrid banks having characteristics of cooperative and commercial banks) during the 1970s. Subsequently, 6 private banks were also nationalized in 1980 followed by the establishment of the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD). For the broadening and deepening of the banking services at village level in time bound manner, the Service Area Approach (SAA) was introduced in 1989. The regulatory regime during 1969 to 1991, known as period of 'social banking' has dual objectives; improve an outreach and access of the banking services to households, irrespective of their place of living, and relinquish the dominance of the moneylenders in rural areas. Notably, private and foreign bank were allowed to coexist during this period but their role was subservient to the public sector banks.
5. Committee was appointed in August 1991, with a view to look into the aspects of the structure, organization, function, and procedures of existing financial systems; and mandated to suggests the comprehensive measures regarding mechanism and tools through which, the health of banking system could be enhanced. The Committee recommended for the adoption of two pronged approach; improve the health of banks and b) attain the desired efficiency. The first approach required an introduction of international best practices in prudential regulation based on market mechanism and latter emphasizes on devising mechanism of the supervision in early reform cycle in order to increase competition in financial firms in phase manners.

6. Narasimham Committee II submitted its report in April 1998 aiming at major changes in the financial sector of the country and most of the recommendations of the committee were accepted. These recommendations may be classified into five broad heads; (i) Strengthening Banking System (ii) Asset Quality (iii) Prudential Norms and Disclosure Requirements (iv) Systems and Methods in Banks (vi) Structural Issues (GOI 1998)
7. Institutional innovations includes, Ultra small branches, Branchless banking, Business Correspondents (BCs), Mobile Banking, Local Area Banks etc.
8. Some prominent example of the ICT use in banking are ; MICR Technology, CTS (Cheque Truncation System), Electronic Clearing Services (ECS), Electronic Fund Transfer (EFT), Real Time Gross Settlement (RTGS), Core banking Solutions (CBS), Automated Teller Machine (ATM), Phone Banking, Tele Banking, Internet Banking, Mobile Banking, and Customer Relationship Management (CRM) which was not available at the time of social banking..
9. The Financial Access Survey (IMF) and Rangarajan Committee Report on Financial Inclusion in India (GOI, 2008), emphasises on inclusion of affordability and timeliness; but data for measuring these dimensions, such as “transaction cost” and “time taken” for a bank transaction is not readily available at micro level. Therefore, these dimensions have not been incorporated in the present index.
10. “I had been to other countries - in Europe, Asia and the Middle East - but none of them had provided even half as much variety, or so much to see and experience and remember, as this one State in northern India.....Uttar Pradesh is a world in itself”. Ruskin Bond (Misra, 2010 page 220 ; para 3.)

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An Analysis of FDI and Employment Opportunities in Indian Food Processing Sector

Seema Bhati and Rakesh Kumar***

This paper provides a detailed analysis of food processing industry and foreign direct investment along with employment opportunities in food processing industry. India is second largest country in terms of production of food. It has 161 million hectares of agricultural land which is highest acreage area under irrigation. The rural economy of India is considered as poor because the value addition of food products is low in terms of food grains, vegetables, fruits and other cereals. Hence, there is trust on food processing units in rural areas. Food processing industry is slowly and steadily becoming one of the major industries of our economy. Its share in GDP is on continuous rising. The food processing industry is estimated to be worth around US\$ 67 billion and employing about 13 million people directly and about 35 million people indirectly. As India is experiencing shortage of capital, there came a proposal to allow (FDI) into India, especially after 1991 economic reforms. Food Processing Sector attracting more FDI because, it is getting FDI equity. Food processing sector has been attracting substantial FDI and is among the top ten sectors getting FDI equity. FDI up to 100 per cent equity is permitted under the automatic route in food and infrastructure like food parks and cold chains. There are many areas for investment in this sector which include mega food parks, agri-infrastructure, supply chain aggregation, logistics and cold chain infrastructure, fruit and vegetable products, animal products, meat and dairy, fisheries and seafood cereals, consumer foods/ready to eat foods, wine and beer, machinery/packaging. Though India has a strong raw material base, it has been unable to tap the potential for processing.

[Keywords : Food processing, Food processing industry, Foreign direct investment, Employment opportunities]

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1. Introduction

India has 161 million hectares of land and has the highest acreage under irrigation and second largest food producers in the world next to China. India is one of the world's largest producers as well as consumer of food products, with the sector playing an important role in contributing to the development of the economy. Across the world, food-processing is considered to be a sunrise sector because of its large potential for growth and socio-economic impact. It not only leads to income generation but also helps in reduction of wastage, value addition, and foreign exchange earnings and enhancing manufacturing competitiveness. In today's global market, quality and food safety have become competitive edge for the enterprises producing foods and providing services. "With proper investment in food processing, technical innovation and infrastructure for agriculture sector, India could well become the food basket of the world".

In the post-independence period, India witnessed rapid growth in food-processing sector specifically during 1980s. It followed the first phase of the Green Revolution that had resulted in increased agricultural production and the need for its post-harvest management. The importance of the sector was realized by the business community leading to diversification from grain trading to processing. Food processing is one of the most heterogeneous sectors of manufacturing covering marine products, dairy products, grain, meat products, fruits and vegetables, sugar, edible oils and beverages. In India, this sector has, however, been one of the fastest growing segments in manufacturing in the recent years contributing 27 per cent to average industrial growth, more than three times its weight in the IIP. The Indian Food Processing Industry has mainly eight distinct segments namely, Packaged Foods, Dairy, Meat and Poultry, Sea Food/Marine Food Products, Fruits and Vegetables, Alcoholic Beverages, Grain Processing and Non-alcoholic Beverages. Out of these Dairy products have the greatest market penetration of about 37% whereas the Packaged Food has the penetration of 3% only. The industry is estimated to be worth around US\$ 67 billion and employing about 13 million people directly and 35 million people indirectly.

The term food processing' is a technique of manufacturing and preserving food substances in an effective manner with a view to enhance their shelf life; improve quality as well as makes them functionally more useful. It covers a spectrum of products from sub-sectors comprising agriculture, horticulture, plantation, animal husbandry and fisheries. It helps to diversify and commercialize farming; enhance income of farmers; create markets for export of agro foods as well as generate greater employment opportunities. Through the presence of such industries, a wider range of food products could be sold and distributed to the distant locations.

India has diverse agro-climatic conditions and has a large and diverse raw material base suitable for food processing companies. More than 50 per cent of household expenditure by Indians is on food items. Indian food industry was

expected to grow to US\$ 280 billion by 2015 and expected to generate an additional employment for approximately 8.2 million people. Further, it was expected that processed food output will grow at a strong 7% CAGR in terms of value. In this regard, it can be observed that processed food sector requires huge capital investments and strategic planning and technology in the field of packing and marketing. One of the ways of filling this investment gap, according to pro-liberal sources, is attracting FDI in this sector on a large scale. In this paper a brief analysis on nature of FPI with employment potentiality and the trends of FDI flows in the food processing sector was analyzed.

2. Objectives

In this paper objective of the study was divided into three sub headings which are given below :

1. To study the nature of Food Processing sector in India.
2. To find out the progress and flow of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the Food Processing sector.
3. To analyze the employment opportunities in the Food Processing sector.

3. Methodology

This study is based on secondary data. The required data were collected from Ministry of Food Processing Industry in India and from other relevant sources and represented in table. The study covered a period of eight years (2009-10 to 2016-17) to analyze the flow of Foreign Direct Investment in Indian food processing sector and the period of five years (2009-10 to 2013-14) to analyze the employment potential of Indian food processing industry.

4. Result and Discussion

4.1 Food Processing Sectors in India

It is one of the biggest industries and ranks fifth in terms of production, consumption, export and growth. The Indian food processing industry has mainly consists of dairy, fruits and vegetables, grain and cereals, fisheries, meat and poultry, consumers food (Table-1).

Table-1 : Segmentation of different sector in food processing industry.

S.No	Sector	Products
1.	Diary	Whole Milk Powder, Skimmed Milk Powder, Condensed Milk, Ice Cream, Butter and Ghee, Cheese.
2.	Fruits & Vegetables	Beverages, juices, concentrates, Pulp, Slices, Frozen and Dehydrated products, Potato Wafers/Chips etc.
3.	Grains & Cereals	Flour, Bakeries, Starch Glucose, Cornflakes, Malted Foods, Grain based Alcohol

4.	Fisheries	Frozen and Canned products mainly in fresh form.
5.	Meat and Poultry	Frozen and packed mainly in fresh form, egg powder.
6.	Consumer Foods	Snack food, Namkeens, Biscuits, Ready to eat food, Alcoholic and non-Alcoholic beverages.

Source : Ministry of Food processing India.

Out of these, Dairy products have the greatest market penetration of about 37 percent. With the rapid growth of the economy, shift in the consumption pattern, from cereals to more varied and nutritious diet of fruit and vegetables, milk, fish, meat and poultry products etc. has resulted in the development of a sunrise industry namely the Food Processing Industries.

The food processing industry contributes to 6.3 percent of the Gross Domestic product of India, 19 percent to the Indian industry, and 13 percent to the export production. The export production in food processing sector has increased from USD 6.98 billion in 2002-03 to USD 20.51 billion in 2006-07, accounting for a phenomenal rise of 193.83 percent. Though the industry is large in terms of size in India, it is still at a budding stage in terms of development, accounts for only 1.7 per cent of world trade in this sector.

A number of players in this industry are small players and form the unorganized sector for this industry. About 42 percent of the output comes from the unorganized sector, 25 percent comes from the organized sector and the rest of it comes from the small scale players. The most common type of food processing units that form the organized sector are flour mills, fish processing units, fruits and vegetables processing units, meat processing units, non-alcoholic and aerated drinks units, sugar mills and modernized rice mills. FDI inflows received by main food processing companies in India are represented in Table-2.

**Table-2 : FDI Inflows received by main food processing companies in India
(From January 2000 to October 2006, Amount in Million)**

S.No	Name of the Indian Company	Amount of FDI Inflows (Rupees)
1	Cadbury India Ltd.	7,007.70
2	Metro Cash & Carry India Pvt.	1,403.60
3	Balarampur Chini Mills Ltd.	1,130.80
4	Nestle India Ltd	1,007.90
5	Kelloggs India P. Ltd	659.40
6	Parry Confectionery Ltd.	644.80
7	Cargil Foods India Ltd.	625.30
8	Brittania New Zealand Food P. Ltd.	575.30
9	Amamalgamated Bean Coffee Trading Company.	479.80
10	Dynamic Daily Industries Ltd.	346.20

Source : Ministry of Food processing India.

Food processing industry in India has been facing constraints like non-availability of adequate infra-structural facilities, like cold chain, packing and grading centers, lack of adequate quality control and testing infrastructure, inefficient supply chain, shortage of processable varieties of farm produce, seasonality of raw material, high inventory carrying cost, high taxation, high packaging cost, affordability and cultural preference for fresh food. The Food processing segment has experienced an increase in FDI activity.

4.2 Flow of Foreign Direct Investment in Indian Food Processing Sector

Ministry of Food Processing Industries have taken many steps to give impetus to this sector which include virtual de-licensing of the sector, inclusion in the priority sector for lending, allowing 100 percent FDI except in alcoholic beverages and retail, several duty and tax reliefs, financial assistance for infrastructure building, setting up of food processing units etc. In case of export-oriented units, foreign investment is permitted even in case of items reserved for small scale sector. In addition, the export oriented units are given a number of incentives and concessions under the Export-Import Policy, such as, duty free import of capital goods, raw materials and intermediates, export income being exempt from Corporate Tax etc. FDI inflow in food processing is becoming stronger.

Sensing enormous unexploited potential, foreign players are increasingly showing their interest to be a part of this rapidly rising sector. It attracted around INR45.19 billion FDI during 1991- 2005 which is 3.3 percent of total FDI inflow in India, and ranked as the 7th sector attracting largest FDI in India.

Foreign direct investment of around US\$1 billion has already been approved in India's food processing industry since 1991. The government of India has set a target of USD 25.07 billion of FDI Inflows to Food Processing Industries to be achieved by 2015 which will increase India's global food trade from 1.6 percent to 3.0 percent along with a rise in perishable processed food items from 6.0 percent to 20 percent. The national policy on food processing aims at increasing the level of food processing from 10 per cent during 2010 to 25 per cent by 2025.

The Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in food processing sector in India during the financial year 2010-11 up to November 2010 is Rs. 576.50 crores as compared to total FDI of Rs. 5344.22 crores- marking around 11 percent of the overall FDI in the country, says a latest press release from the Ministry of Food Processing Industries. Switzerland, USA, Germany, Mauritius etc. are the main important source countries of FDI in Food processing in India (Table-3).

Table-3 : Main source countries of FDI in food processing sector in India (2003-2006).

Country	Amount (Rs) (Million)	Percentage
Switzerland	1943.84	21.50
USA	1900.09	21.20
Germany	1795.02	19.86

Mauritius	1572.82	17.40
Korea	858.47	9.50
France	366.12	4.05
UAE	333.50	3.69
Saudi Arabia	270.50	2.99
Total	9040.36	100

Source : Annual Report 2015-16, Ministry of Food processing India.

4.3 Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Food Processing Sector

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is permissible in food processing sector up to 100 percent on automatic route except for items reserved for Micro and Small Enterprises (MSEs) subject to applicable laws/regulations, securities and other conditionalities. For manufacture of items reserved for Micro and Small enterprises, FDI is permissible under automatic route up to 24 per cent of the capital. If foreign investment is more than 24 percent, Industrial License under Industries (Development & Regulation), Act 1951 is required. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) equity inflows in Food Processing sector in the country during last 08 years is as under in Table-4.

Table-4 : Foreign Direct Investment in Food Processing Industry

S. No	Year (April-March)	FDI (in Rs Cr.)	FDI(in US\$Million)
1	2009-10	1314.23	278.89
2	2010-11	858.03	188.67
3	2011-12	826.16	170.21
4	2012-13	1293.65	401.46
5	2013-14	25106.78	3982.88
6	2014-15	3159.36	515.86
7	2015-16	2500.85	384.59
8	2016-17 (April-Sept)	-	500.77

Source : Department of industrial Policy and Promotion (DIPP).

4.4 Employment Opportunities in Indian Food Processing Sector

It is widely accepted that the food processing sector is the most appropriate sector for creating jobs for rural poor, and thus reduce the burden on agricultural sector for creation of their livelihood. This is due to their familiarity with the agricultural sector which would make it easier to train and place them in food processing enterprises. The multiplier effect of investment in food processing industry on employment generation is also higher than any other sector. Therefore, for the overall progress of economy it is important that the farmers and

backward communities working in rural food-processing units are treated at the top of the growth process. Rapid and sustained poverty reduction requires economic growth which is inclusive and the one that allows people to contribute to and benefit from it.

Indian food processing industry has been significant growth and changes over the past few years, driven by changing trends in markets, consumer segment and regulations. These trends, such as changing demographics, growing population and rapid urbanization are expected to continue in the future and therefore will shape the demand for value added products and thus for food processing industry in India.

Food Processing Industry is one of the major employment intensive segments constituting 11.69 per cent of employment generated in all Registered Factory sector in 2013-14 followed by Textile and Wearing Apparel sector. According to the latest Annual Survey of Industries (ASI) for 2013-14, the total number of persons engaged in registered food processing sector was 17.41 lakhs. During the last 5 years ending 2013-14, employment in registered food processing sector has been increasing at an Average Annual Growth Rate of 2.25 per cent. Unregistered food processing sector supports employment to 47.9 lakh workers as per the NSSO 67th Round, 2010-11. The overall scenario of employment in food processing sector is given below in Table-5 and Table-6.

Table-5 : Employment in Food Processing Industry

Sector	Food Processing* Sector	Overall Industry	(%) Share of FP sector
Registered# (2013-14)	17.41 lakh	135.38 lakh	12.8
Un-incorporated@ (2010-11)	47.92 lakh	348.88 lakh	13.72

* : Includes food products and beverages segments ;#: Factory Registered under sections 2m(i) and 2m(ii) Factory Act 1948;

@ : Source: NSSO Report No. 549(67/2.34/2) on Economic Characteristics of Unincorporated Non-agricultural Enterprises

(Excluding Construction) in India; NSS 67th Round (July 2010-June 2011)

Table-6 : Persons Employed under Registered Food Processing Industry

Year	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	AAGR*
Persons (in lakh)	16.06	16.62	17.77	16.89	17.41	-
Growth (%)	2.71	3.46	6.92	4.94	3.08	2.25

Source : Annual Survey of Industries, MOSPI; AAGR;

* : Average Annual Growth Rate for 5 years.

5. Conclusion

Though there are many promising dynamics which support good growth of food processing Industry in India, there are still some significant constraints which, if not addressed sooner, can impede the growth prospects of this Industry. One of the biggest constraints is that this industry is capital intensive. It creates a strong entry barrier and allows lesser number of players to enter the market. Lesser players mean lesser competition and lesser competition means reduced efforts to improve the quality standards. The second constraint is poor infrastructure for storing raw food materials. Two main types of storages - the warehouses and the cold storages, lag in storage standards. The pests infest the grains sometimes due to lack of monitoring, proper use of pesticides and proper ventilation. Similarly, the power outages result in sub-optimal function of the cold-storages and the quality of food material in the cold storages becomes questionable. One of the best methods of addressing these constraints is more and more FDI. Attracting Foreign Direct Investment in Food Processing Industries has been remaining a challenge till date. Policy changes on the one side and infra-structural development on the other are the conditions to invite more FDI in this FPI sector.

Indian food processing is a growing industry and presents a large opportunity to the entrepreneurs for the development of the rural areas. However there are many challenges in the food processing entrepreneurship which are hindering the economical and viable processing unit. The study indicated that lack of government support, quality and quantity of raw material, seasonality, inadequate infrastructure, access to latest technology, poor access to credit, lack of export support, lack of trained manpower, inadequate training practices, and wastages constitutes serious challenges for food processing entrepreneurship which are affecting the growth of rural development. To overcome these challenges Government need to properly addressed and take some steps regarding the development of rural entrepreneurs like training programmes, favorable policies, favorable initiatives/schemes, financial support, infrastructure development in the rural areas etc. Entrepreneurship need to focus on enhancing the shelf life of the agro and horticulture produce, value addition, reduce the increasing number of wastages, increase the income of the rural farmer, and increase employment opportunities for the people of rural areas which lead to the development of rural area and the whole Indian economy.

The employment generation capacity highlights growth and size of the industry and skills about the kind of human resources involved in the industry, the level of technology used in the sector. The employment generation capacity of the sector is huge, but the industry is not working at its potential. The labor force is highly unskilled, with 80% of them having educational level below 10th standard. The impact of a variety of policies and programmes undertaken by government to develop food processing sector has not been very encouraging.

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Environmental Influences on the Muga Silk Industry of Assam : Globalization Perspectives

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Muga culture is an important cottage industry of Assam engaging thousands of families who are earning their livelihood either directly or indirectly from it. The sustenance of this age old tradition and livelihood is currently at stake in the face of changing environmental conditions, rising industrialization and urbanization, economic liberalization and globalization. Substantiated with required data from secondary sources, the paper is an attempt to highlight the environmental influences on the muga silk industry of Assam in the era of globalization. The methodology is empirical and exploratory in nature. Results throw light on the fact that there has been no appreciable development in the muga culture in the state over the last few years. The impact of global warming coupled with climate change, rapid proliferation of small tea growers in Upper Assam, indiscriminate application of inorganic pesticides as well as bio-pesticides are the factors that have led to decline in muga silkworm rearing and shrinkage of traditional muga plantations in Assam.

[Keywords : Environment, Globalization, Muga, Silk]

1. Introduction

Sericulture means rearing of silk producing worms in order to obtain reelable cocoons which can be later converted into silk, then into fabric. The post-harvest activities fall into the silk industry. In other words, sericulture broadly comprises inter-linked activities such as food plant cultivation and maintenance to feed the silkworms, silkworm rearing to produce the silk cocoons for unwinding the

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silk-filament, yarn making, weaving and processing of fabric (Ahmed & Rajan, 2011).

Silk industry, as a whole, is composed of several sectors of different characters from cultivation to weaving and no one sector can work well without having coordination with the other. The industry with its rural base fits well with modern concept of village organization having small working units, community ownership and regional work places. It can be utilized with local labour and indigenous resources. Therefore, sericulture and silk industry find an important place in the Textile Policy announced by the Government of India (GOI) in June, 1985 (Chowdhury, 2007). Realizing the importance of sericulture as an employment oriented cottage industry suitable for the development of rural economy; the Indian planners have identified it as one of the best suited occupation for the growth of rural India (Rekha, 2013).

Globally, India is the second largest producer of raw silk (after China), contributes about 15.5% to the total world raw silk production and generates employment to 6.8 million rural people mostly women folk. It has the distinction of being the only country in the world, producing all the five commercially exploited silk varieties viz. Mulberry silk produced throughout the country, Tropical Tassar and Temperate Oak Tassar, produced by tribals inhabiting Central India and Sub-Himalayan region, Eri Silk produced mainly in North- Eastern (now practised in many other states) and Muga- Golden silk produced only in Brahmaputra valley of Assam in NE region. The non-mulberry silks (Eri, muga and tassar) are now being popularized as Vanya silks.

Silk is a lustrous fibre and its demand is increasing year by year. However, in the absence of appropriate strategy and purposeful approach, production of all kinds of silk, particularly muga is showing a downward trend in the eastern region of India.

2. Objectives

- a. To assess the change in the status of Muga silk industry of Assam with respect to the implications of globalization and industrialization; and
- b. To identify the factors affecting the growth and decline of this industry.

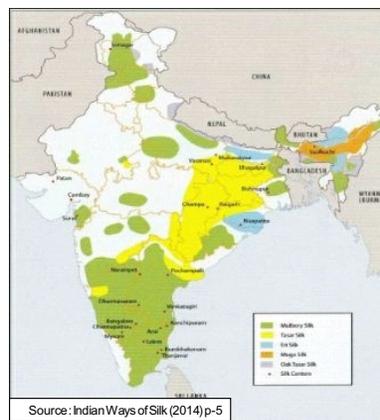
3. Database and Methodology

The paper is based on secondary data collected from the Directorate of Economics & Statistics, Directorate of Sericulture, Govt. of Assam and from annual reports of Central Silk Board and DGIS, Ministry of Commerce, Govt. of India. Data has been statistically analyzed and diagrammatically represented with the help of bars and line graphs. The methodology is both empirical and exploratory in nature.

4. Study Area

The muga silk industry of India is particularly confined to Assam and its neighbouring regions of North-East India. The golden yellow muga silk of Assam is a unique product and nowhere in the world is available due to peculiar insect behavioural adaptation and requisite climatic condition. The cocoons are reared in plantations found in Lakhimpur, Dibrugarh, Sibsagar and Jorhat districts of Upper Assam. Most of these cocoons are purchased ultimately by the traders of Sualkuchi (in Kamrup district of Lower Assam), where commercial reeling and weaving are done almost as a monopoly. Infact, Sualkuchi has been recognised by the UNDP as “the Manchester of the East”.

Fig. 1 : Silk Map of India

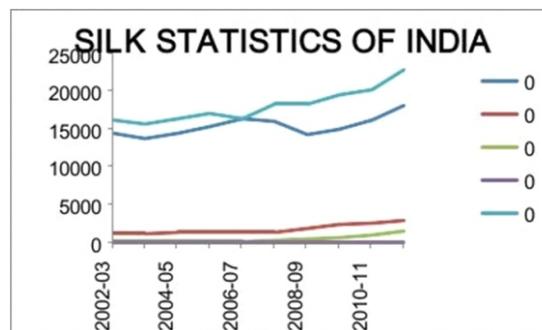


5. Results and Discussion

5.1 The Silk Industry of India at a Glance and the Position of Muga Silk

Sericulture in India is a farm-based, labour intensive and commercially attractive economic activity. Both sericulture and weaving are carried out as a cottage industry by rural, marginalised and other weaker sections of the society and provide income and employment to the rural poor, especially farmers with little or no land holdings.

Fig. 2



Source : DGIS, Ministry of Commerce, GOI and Statistics of India, Central Silk Board.

Since 2002-03 India has had a total production of silk ranging from around 16,000-23,000 MT per year. However, this is not enough to satisfy the Indian demand for silk which is around 25,000 MT per year and the country has to import about one-third of the raw silk and silk fabrics consumed. In fact, the import of raw silk into the country during the year 2011-12 was about 5673 MT.

Statistics show that the production of raw mulberry silk has increased slightly towards the end of the decade. However, with respect to wild silk production (eri, muga and tassar) only eri silk has surpassed the 12th Five Year Plan target of 3000 MT (its production in 2011-12 being 3072 MT) while both tassar and muga show a very meagre increase. Infact, the production of muga silk has increased by only 24 MT since 2002-03.

5.2 Silk Culture and Production in Assam - A Temporal Analysis

Sericulture is a traditional cottage industry rooted in the life and culture of Assam. It comprises of mulberry (pat) and non-mulberry (endi or eri and muga) culture (Phukan & Chowdhury, 2006). And it is only in muga silk production that she holds monopoly in the world. 100% of India's Muga silk production is originated in Assam and hence Assam silk occupies a unique position in the sericulture map of the world. Assam also produces mulberry silk, locally called "pat silk" or "nuni pat" but, not as much as its demand. Although Assam silk means all the three varieties of silk (pat silk, eri silk and muga silk), most of the mulberry silk used in Assam are sourced from Karnataka or originally from China, because of the qualitative advantages as compared to the locally produced pat silk. In the real sense Assam silk in the present context is eri silk and muga silk (Fabric Plus Pvt. Ltd. 2015).

The muga silk moth (*Antheraea Assamensis*) has its natural habitat in the deep forests of the sub-mountainous regions of Assam and surroundings, including Nagaland and the north-eastern part of West Bengal (Zethner et al. 2014) The larva of these silkworms feed primarily on some leaves found in Upper Assam and soalu in Lower Assam. The natural golden colour silk produced is known for its own glossy fine texture and durability. Muga possesses unique characteristics such as unique method of cultivation and production, colour stability (everlasting), golden colour increases with each wash, high tensile strength (4.53g/dn) among all silks, UV absorption capacity (>80%), durability (over 50 years), acid resistant (resistant to concentrated Sulphuric acid) and thermal properties. Despite the upsurge of mill made cloth, the old and respectable Assamese, even today wear native outdoor and turbans made from muga silk (Dutta & Nanavaty, 2012). Dresses made from muga silk like muga mekhela, riha and chador are very popular among the Assamese people and are considered an important part of their culture too (Tamuly, 1998).

Table-1 : Sericulture Activities in Assam

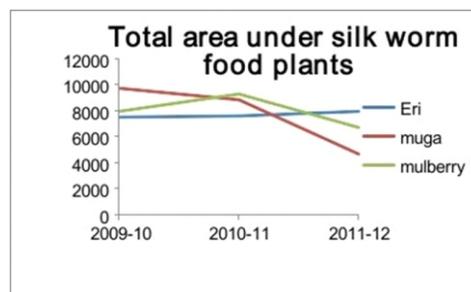
Sericulture Activities	Achievement		Increase/ Decrease over 2001-02 (in %)	Achievement		Increase/ Decrease over 2010-11 (in %)
	2002-03	2001-02		2011-12	2010-11	
No. of sericulture villages	9098	8998	1.11	10740	10532	1.97
No. of families engaged						
Eri	132033	125420	5.27	183000	182979	0.01
Muga	23543	21831	7.84	39750	39444	0.78
Mulberry	29715	25667	15.77	31766	31711	0.17
Total	185291	172918	7.16	254516	254134	0.15

Source : Author's calculation based on estimates of Directorate of Economics & Statistics, GOA.

The total no. of villages in Assam involved in sericulture was 10740 during the year 2011-12 indicating an increase of 1.97% over the previous year (2010-11). When compared with the data of years 2001-03, it is found that the no. of sericulture villages was 9098 in 2002-03 registering an increase of 1.11% over the previous year (2001-02). This implies that there has been not much appreciable growth in the total no. of villages in Assam involved in sericulture from 2001 onwards.

Again it is evident from the table that with respect to the no. of families engaged in eri, muga and mulberry cultivation in Assam, the rate of growth has declined over a period of 10 years. No. of families engaged in eri, muga and mulberry cultivation during 2011-12 registered a mere increase of 0.01%, 0.78% and 0.17% over the previous year. But when compared with data of 2001-03, it is found that the no. of families engaged in eri, muga and mulberry cultivation in 2002-03 showed an appreciable growth of 5.27%, 7.84% and 15.77% respectively. Overall it can be said that sericulture activities in Assam have shown a declining trend of growth over a decade.

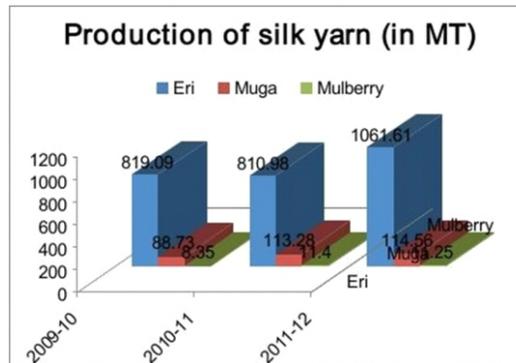
Fig. 3



Source : Statistical Handbook, Govt. of Assam

The total area under silk worm food plants both in Upper and lower Assam on which silkworms feed have shown a decline over a period of three years. While eri plantations have not reduced but meagre increase from 7623 MT in 2009-10 to 8044 MT in 2011-12, mulberry plantations occupied an area of 8044 MT in 2009-10, which increased to 9044 MT in 2010-11 but again drastically reduced to 6824 MT in the year 2011-12. The case of muga plantations is even more worse as it shows a tremendous decline in area from 9081 MT in 2009-10 to only 4723 MT in 2011-12.

Fig. 4



Source : Statistical Handbook, Govt. of Assam

Again, with respect to the production of silk yarn, both mulberry and muga yarn production have shown a decline over a period of three consecutive years. More specifically, the production of muga yarn has declined from 11.4 MT in 2010-11 to 11.25 MT in 2011-12 as against eri which shows a production of 1062 MT in 2011-12, with an increase of 250 MT over the previous year.

Overall, it can be said that though eri silk production in Assam is showing improvement over the last few years, but the case of muga silk is not in a very healthy state with respect to the growth in the no. of villages and families engaged, in the acreage under som and soalu plantations or in the production of muga yarn.

5.3 Muga Industry in Decline : Globalization Perspective

Globalization is a buzzword for any economy in the contemporary world and a challenge which no one can escape from. While its prospects and potentialities have taken hold of the imagination of some, for some others it has been viewed as the primary cause for all the ills of the world. Globalization is not just removal of trade barriers and growth in international exchange but intertwined processes in the form of industrialization and urbanization. Leaving aside the economic dimension, we today talk of globalization and ecology, globalization and gender and many more. It is in this context we find that globalization processes in the guise of so-called development have only pauperized the numerous people associated with muga silk industry in Assam.

1. **Environmental impact** : The muga worm is very susceptible to environmental influences. Being a cold-blooded organism, any change in

environmental temperature, humidity, light etc regulates the biochemical activity of the insect in all stages. The ideal temperature for rearing silkworms ranges between 24 and 32 degrees Celsius, with a humidity level of 80 to 85 percent, but in the last few years, temperatures have risen and this is affecting production. According to the Assam State Action Plan for Climate Change 2012-2017, the state of Assam is most vulnerable to climate change than its sister-states. The region has experienced increase in the annual mean maximum temperatures, with increase at the rate of +0.11°C per decade and annual mean temperatures at a rate of 0.04°C per decade in the region. The region is characterized by high rainfall but analysis of long-term trends in the annual rainfall also indicates a slight decline in the total rainfall received in the region. Thus, as is evident from fig no.4, the production of muga silk in Assam is only 11 MT in 2011-12. Since the muga silkworm is semi-domesticated and rearing is conducted in outdoor conditions, the differential seasonal conditions greatly affects almost every aspect of the life cycle of the silkworm and utilization of food in muga worms (Saikia et al, 2016).

- 2. Reduced area under host plants for silkworm rearing :** Encroachments on government Som plantations is also becoming one of the prime causes of decreasing food availability of Muga Silkworms. As of now about 265.84 hectares of government sericulture farm areas have been encroached upon.

Sediments carried by annual flooding waters add to the woes of Muga by covering Som and Soalo bushes as high as up to three and four feet. Muga worms feed on leaves of these trees that perish within months following stagnancy of flood waters. This has been happening for years and most of the Muga rearing areas are now almost free from silk rearing practices. In the Dhemaji district of Assam about 1500 farmers lost an average of 100 Som trees to stagnant water. As is evident from fig no. 3 the area under muga plantations is even more worse as it shows a tremendous decline from 9081 MT in 2009-10 to 4723 MT in 2011-12

- 3. Air Pollution and increasing use of pesticides etc. :** Muga worms are very sensitive to odours of toxic chemicals. Most of the muga rearing plantations are located in Upper Assam, very near to the tea gardens. Subtropical climatic conditions in the state require the use of toxic chemicals to rid pests but this adversely threatens the culture of golden weaves unique to Assam. Silk worms cannot resist the smell of toxic pesticides etc. which are regularly used in the Tea Estates, thus leading to their premature death (Saikia et al, 2016).

Muga worms are very sensitive to air pollution from brick kilns, coke manufacturing units, cement factories and oil refineries. Studies have shown that feed plants within 500 metres of contain several chemicals which are detrimental to silkworms. For e.g. : The flaring of natural gas in the oil exploration sites of the ONGCL in Sibsagar district of Assam (which is also a primary muga growing region of the state) emits certain fine particles like

carbon, metallic dust, aerosols, solid oxide, nitrates and sulphates and certain coarser particles like heavy dust, sulphur and nitrogen compounds and halogen. When silkworms come in contact with such gases, their central nervous system paralyzes, lose control over spinning and hence, cocooning does not take place. Gas flaring also results in biochemical changes of the muga feed plants which directly influences the health, growth and survival of muga worms (Kalita 2012). Explosions are common in the Tinsukia, Dibrugarh, Sibsagar, Jorhat and Golaghat districts of Upper Assam where ONGC and Oil India Limited (OIL) have been carrying out oil productions for decades. Of late Silk cultivation in these areas has dwindled.

6. Conclusion

Muga culture is an important cottage industry of Assam engaging thousands of families who are earning their livelihood either directly or indirectly from it. The sustenance of this age old tradition and livelihood is currently at stake in the face of changing environmental conditions, rising industrialization and urbanization, economic liberalization and globalization. It has been found that there has been no appreciable development in the muga culture in the state over the last few years. Of all, environmental influences seem to pose greatest threat towards the downfall of muga silk industry of Assam. The impact of global warming coupled with climate change, rapid proliferation of small tea growers in Upper Assam, indiscriminate application of inorganic pesticides as well as bio-pesticides are the factors that have led to decline in muga silkworm rearing and shrinkage of traditional muga plantations in Assam, thereby leading to a tremendous decrease in the commercial production of muga yarn and fabric as compared to the other varieties of silk in India. Therefore, it is high time that we take efforts to preserve this unique heritage of the state of Assam because as Dr. S. N. Chowdhury of Dibrugarh known as the 'Father of Muga' rightly said "If North-Eastern region loses the mulberry silk nothing will be lost, if the Eri silk is lost something will be lost, but if muga silk is lost everything would be lost".

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Impact of Demonetization on Indian Agriculture Sector

Ajit Singh*

Demonetization on agriculture sector plays a crucial role in the Indian economy. The Indian agrarian economy which is highly unorganized is primarily cash based. Mostly people in rural areas depend on cash for their day to day activities. The Prime Minister's decision of demonetization on 8 November, 2016 badly hit the livelihood of rural people with regard to cash transaction. This study was carried out to analysis the impact of demonetization on the agriculture sector and nature & forms of rural economy in India.

[**Keywords** : Demonetization, Agriculture, Rural Economy]

1. Introduction

Demonetization has been a radical, unprecedented step with short term cost and long term benefits. Demonetization is not a new phenomenon for either the world or India .We heard the term demonetization after a gap of thirty eight years. The intent was to target black money and to check terrorist funding. Demonetization is the act of stripping a currency unit of its status as legal tender. Demonetization is necessary whenever there are changes of national currency. The old unit of currency must be retired and replaced with a new currency unit. On November 8, 2016, the government announced a historic measure, with profound implications for the economy. The two largest denomination notes, Rs. 500 and Rs. 1000, were “demonetized” with immediate effect, ceasing to be legal tender except for a few specified purpose. At one fell stroke, 86 percent of the cash in

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circulation was thereby rendered invalid. These notes were to be deposited in the bank by December 30, 2016, while restrictions were placed on cash withdrawals.

2. History of Demonetization in India

The sudden move to demonetize Rs. 500 and Rs. 1,000 currency notes is not new. Rs.1000 and higher denomination notes were first demonetized in January 1946 and again in 1978. The highest de-nomination note ever printed by Reserve Bank of India was the Rs.10, 000 notes in 1938 and again in 1954. But these notes were demonetized in January 1946 and again in January 1978, according to RBI data. Rs.1,000 and Rs.10,000 bank notes were in circulation prior to January 1946. Higher denomination bank notes of Rs. 1000, Rs. 5000 and Rs. 10000 were reintroduced in 1954 and all of them were demonetized in January 1978. The Rs. 1,000 note made a comeback in November 2000. Rs. 500 note came into circulation in October 1987.

3. Reasons of Demonetization

The Government of India believes that this demonetization was required for the four main reasons :

1. Stopping the funding of terrorism
2. Tackling the problem of fake currency
3. Making the black money worthless
4. Reducing corruption

4. Review of Literature

A preliminary study was conducted by Bisen, et al. (2017) to analyze the impact of demonetization on various stake holders such as farmers, traders and consumers. They found that due to demonetization small and marginal farmers were most affected in contrast to large farmers in care of sowing, purchase of inputs and sale of agricultural commodities.

Chand and Singh (2017) examined that most of the Rabi crops are self pollinated, farmers need not buy fresh seeds every year and due to which the sale of seed by public institutions was reported to be much lower than normal sales.

5. Objectives

1. To study the impact of demonetization on Indian agriculture sector.
2. To study the nature and forms of rural economy in India.

6. Methodology

This paper is based on the secondary data published in various forms. The data were collected from internet, articles and reports published in various forms.

7. Demonetization and its Impact on Agriculture Sector

In India, 65% population lives in rural areas and depends on agriculture. Agriculture is the backbone of the Indian economy and agrarian economy is cash based with large capital input. The agricultural and allied sector accounts for 17.3% of the GDP and employ about 49% of the total work force (Planning commission of India, 2014). This sector typically sees high cash transactions and therefore near-term impact could be seen till liquidity is infused in the rural areas. As farmers face a temporary shortage of cash in hand, it could lead to a delay in payment which in turn would hurt the related companies in the short term. Demonetization affects every Indian but it hit the agriculture sector badly. Farmers suffered a setback due to nationwide cash shortage and a fall in the demand for vegetables in the wholesale markets. Some of the farmers sold their crops at cheaper rates and others faced a lot of problems as they could no longer afford to sell their Kharif crops harvest involving rice, cotton, sugarcane. Farmers use cash to buy quality seeds, fertilizers, chemicals and diesel and to hire labor and machinery. As Rabi season crops are mainly self-pollinated, farmers need not buy fresh seeds in Rabi season every year. More than 70% seed in Rabi crops is self-produced and rest is purchased from public sector agencies, research institutes and private sources. Sale of seed this year by public institutions is reported to be much lower than normal sales. This can have a small impact on productivity. The move to demonetize and the subsequent cash crunch created an inability to secure financing to the much unorganized agriculture sector for harvesting and sowing the subsequent crop cycle. Perishables, vegetables and fruit, in most markets exhibited a drop in market arrival as well as a fall in prices post demonetization as much as around 4 to 5%. The government took many measures to ease the woes of the farmers. Firstly, the limit for withdrawal was set up to Rs. 25000 per week against crop loans sanctioned and credited to their accounts subjected to loan limits. As an extended relief, the government allowed the farmers to use the old Rs. 500 notes for purchasing seeds from any state or central government outlets as well as any agriculture studies institute. However, as only 20% of the farmers hold PAN card, it was difficult for them to exchange the currency (Planning commission of India, 2014). The rural bank NABARD had announced to disburse Rs. 19680 crore through cooperative banks so as to help the farmers sow winter crops. The problem of demonetization was largely associated with the rural areas of the country that have lesser number of banks and ATMs compared to the urban areas.

8. Advantages of Demonetization

Demonetization has reduced liquid cash with people and thus their expenses were reduced. As Indian GDP is consumption driven, demonetization impacted GDP of the country. People owing black money deposited their cash in banks and had to pay taxes to the government. So, the liquidity with banks was increased and they were able to lend more money in the market, in the end supply of money in the market increased and hence interest rates were reduced which were predicted to

boost investment in agriculture sector in the country. It was also assumed that the investment will increase than production of crops will also increase, which will lead to growth in the employment then after income of the people will also increase. As the disposable income of people will increase consumption of the goods will increase ultimately leading to increase in GDP of the country.

9. Conclusion and Recommendations

The action of the Indian government to eradicate the four major problems-Black money, counterfeiting, corruption and terrorist funding was a very bold move but it definitely affected many parts of the economy and in particular the agriculture. Among the farmers, small farmers were worst hit by this big ban experiment while in grain markets wholesalers and in fruits and vegetable markets retailers were most affected. The low income group of society those who did not use any online purchase options were most affected by demonetization.

Demonetization as a clear out exercise may produce several good things in the economy. At the same time, it creates unavoidable income and welfare losses to the rural sections of the society who get income based on their daily work and those who don't have the digital transaction culture. Overall economic activities will be dampened in the short term. Benefits of having more transparency and reduced volume of black money activities will not be any benefit to the poorest of the poor.

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Ecology and Primitive Religion : Nature-Man-Spirit among the Birhors of Jharkhand

Vikash Kumar*

Tribal India presents a colourful panorama of religious faiths and practices which is the manifestation of adjustments with their cultural, ecological conditions. The interaction between man and nature is a two-way process. The present paper is an attempt to explore the relationship between ecology and primitive religion with particular reference to the Birhors of Jharkhand. The Birhor maintains a link between himself, nature and spirit for his subsistence, social control and smooth passage of life. It has been shown that nature-man-spirit complex has shown changes to great extent in the modern age. Shrinking forest areas and increasing dependency upon agricultural activities had reduced the role of forest upon Birhors life.

[**Keywords** : Ecology, Conservation, Sacred groves, Animism, Spirit]

1. Ecology and Tribal Religion

Ecology is the study of relationships among organisms and between them and their environment. In Asian or Indian context environmental issues are integral part of the society. Religious life and the earth's ecology are inextricably linked. Religious beliefs; especially those concerning the nature of powers that create and animate became an effective part of ecological systems. They attract the power of will and channel the forces of labour toward purposive transformations. No understanding of the environment is adequate without a grasp of the religious life that constitutes the human societies which saturate the natural environment.

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My study in this work addresses the critical gap in our contemporary understanding of religion (particularly tribal or primitive one) and ecology.

Ours is a period when the human community is in search of new and sustaining relationships with nature amidst an environmental crisis that threatens the very existence of all life forms on the planet. As the historian Lynn White observed, "What people do about their ecology depends on what they think about themselves in relation to things around them. Human ecology is deeply conditioned by beliefs about our nature and destiny—that is by religion."¹ In such context tribal religion remain key instruments in shaping attitudes towards nature. Tribal religious traditions are still helping to foster healthy human-earth relations. As a human community tribal population struggles to formulate different attitudes towards nature and to articulate broader conceptions of ethics embracing species and ecosystems. Though the tribal peoples lacks any written religious texts to guide them to preserve the ecosystem like Hinduism, Jainism, Christianity and Islam, they have learnt to co-exist with our ecosystem in a balance way through their oral tradition and practical experiences and as they believe that forest is their home; helped them in several ways to adopt softer attitude towards nature.

Tribal groups in various parts of India adopted conservation of resources according to seasons (e.g. certain animals may not be hunted in many Indian villages between July and October) and restrictions on the cutting of particular species of tree such as Sal. These trees are regarded sacred, as are cluster of trees surrounding burial grounds. Clusters of Sal trees on the outskirts of villages were known as sacred groves. Tribal peoples religion is centred around spirits, gods and demons which inhabit trees, rocks, birds etc. And must be worshipped and occasionally placated.² Tribal groups in India, as elsewhere, usually subscribe to myths centred on the creation of the world or the origin of the tribe. Some such myths strongly advocate the protection of natural objects, such as trees, on account of their usefulness.³ The concept of sacredness of natural objects was present in tribal religion from the very beginning, which we can see in the tribal concept of animism, totemism etc.⁴

Tribal communities seldom have written or clearly defined beliefs. They are usually hunter-gatherers, subsistence farmers or pastoralists and their religions are primarily concerned with their group's survival, the afterlife and the need to ensure the goodwill of ancestors. Tribal people have a close symbiotic relationship with their gods and spirits relating to the weather and the fertility of their fields. They take care, through their rituals, not to disturb this precarious relationship. The intensity of this experience depends to a large degree on its relevance to their livelihood and religious beliefs with which they approach it. They feel it most strongly at crisis times. Such as when there are poor harvests, the deaths of cattle and children, the infertility of women or illnesses in the family.⁵ Isolated religious communities have usually succeeded in maintaining a balance in their environments between immediate and future needs.⁶

According to various anthropologists, tribal religions are usually undogmatic and loosely definable. The most substantial connection according to M. Gadgil which he states in his work *The Sacred Groves of India*, is the embargo on collecting only dead wood from spirit groves around springs or rock features in order to protect the environment.⁷ Tribal religions often see the afterlife in terms of continuing family membership. The living and dead are a continuum with an interdependent relationship of support and influence. Since each family has its own ancestors and only periodically experiences their influence, the shrines dedicated to them are unsubstantial constructions and their influences on the environment are limited and familial.⁸

Cultural pattern of a community tends to manifest the arrangement of custom, beliefs, moral practices, technology and art across a 'defined space'⁹. Tribal India presents a colourful panorama of religious faiths and practices which is the manifestation of adjustments with their cultural, ecological conditions.¹⁰ According to Nadeem Hasnain, till late 1940s, tribal religions in India were termed as 'Animist' in various census reports and literatures. Animism is crude form of religion in which magic is the predominant element. Spirit is important part of tribal religion, it dwells everywhere and men have to be at peace with them to enjoy freedom from illness and a long life. Animism carries with it a belief in benevolent as well as malevolent spirits which are supposed to influence the destiny of man. There is hardly any tribe in India which does not believe in the conversion of soul of the deceased into a potential spiritual force. Ancestor worship among them seems to be the logical reasons of such beliefs. According to tribal belief all benevolent and malevolent spirits dwells in their natural surroundings like hills, trees, river spirit etc. in such way their lives are deeply connected to nature on one hand and spirits on another hands. Nature and spirits is regulator of tribal people's life.

According to L. P. Vidyarthi and B. K. Rai, belief in the existence of superhuman or supernatural powers is almost universal. Experience of certain day-to-day sudden happenings, of disease, death and the unexplainable have led tribal people into believing in other than the material visible world, i.e. in the invisible spirit world or supernatural power. They have established a kind of close relationship between themselves and this power by adjusting themselves to it in to ways, first by controlling or overpowering the spirit by enchanting or practicing some techniques and canalizing the power, for good or bad, and secondly, by offering puja or worship to propitiate the superhuman power for acquisition of the thing or object desired. We call the former magic and later religion.¹¹

The interaction between man and nature is a two-way process. In his work *The Little Community*, Redfield says "both man and nature are twin agents of the perennial revolution that shapes and reshapes the face of the earth". In the above discussed background, in every walk of life, the Birhor maintains a link between

himself, nature and spirit for his subsistence, social control and smooth passage of life. This paper will be dealing with such aspects of Birhor life in the form of “nature-man-spirit complex”.

The Birhors socio-economic and religious life is greatly influenced by the “nature-man-spirit” complex. This complex illustrates how the entirety of Birhor life revolved around the forest ;most of the rituals are associated with forest round the year as they perform different rituals and worship different gods and goddesses for obtaining different things.

2. Nature

The first part of this complex is nature, the ecological basis of entire Birhor economy revolves round the forest. Culturally; the Birhors have a food gathering and hunting type of economy.¹² The forest provides them food, drink, shelter and material for their livelihood. There is a division of labour in Birhors, based on age-sex differentiation. An adult Birhor has to do the hunting collect chop fibers. On the other hand, women have to collect edible fruits, tuber, and roots and look after their household affairs and remain mostly near the settlement site. The Birhors exploit the forest for their raw material requirement in groups, collect the fiber at the family level but trap the monkey or hares collectively. Hunting and fishing as well as collection of forest materials constitute the main economy of the Birhors on account of their wandering nature. They also practice primitive subsistence farming wherever they go in course of their mobility.

These tribal forests also abound in different type of medicines. Some of the herbs collected by the Birhors have very wide market and are sent to cities like Calcutta. Medicinal herbs were traditional legacy of Birhors but now due to availability of modern medical facilities Birhors are losing interests in collecting these herbs from forest. Now collection of mahua flower and fruit is only major economic activities of birhors in the lap of nature. Mahua plays a significant role in Birhors life apart from mahua liquor, they eat dried mahua, it is used for making oil for burning earthen lamps also, and it heals wounds too.¹³

The above description brings out the role that the forest plays in providing food, drink and medicine to the Birhors. Here the role of the forest is direct. The forest in addition, however, also provides suitable setting for the abode of the wild animals specially hare which is suitable and favourite game for birhors. The birhors are very efficient in hunting and the environment, in spite of the primitive technology, are very effective in this regard.

3. Man

The second aspect of this complex is man. This has to do with the structural relationships among the Birhor themselves. It refers man to man relationship, their social structure and views about their community. Birhor itself means jungle man and their abode are mostly found around the forested environmental settings.

Birhor settlement is called tanda. It consists of half a dozen huts. Each tanda or Birhor settlement has a youth dormitory¹⁴ called Gitiora. This is where young bachelors sleep during the night and learn dancing, music, singing tales, plays etc. Birhors are divided into number of exogamous clans with animals, birds, plants, tree etc. as their totems. The Birhor Family is patriarchal; descent is traced in the male line. Tanda as a whole collectively responsible for the all socio-religious-cultural and economic activities in any Birhor life. Naya is primarily the priest of the group; he is regarded also as its secular headman.

Due to the influence of modern period and interaction with other social groups the role of Naya is not so much of important now days, but only symbolic now. Its place has been taken by sarpanch or village headman now who is elected by all the villagers in gramsabha election.¹⁵ But still during collective hunting for hare in the forest where every adult Birhor man plays role in such situation naya perform all religious duties or rituals which are required for a successful hunting.¹⁶ Weekly markets play an important role in man to man interaction or inter- tanda association as well as in individual Birhor life. Most of the marriages are settled in such markets.¹⁷

The family is the primary, as also the most dominant institution of the Birhor villages. The major economic, social, religious and reproductive activities are centred around a Birhor family. A Birhor family is usually composed of husband, wife and their unmarried children who live together in a single hut and do their cooking together and for all practical purpose constitute one single unit. The moment the son is married, he makes his own hut in the same village and lives with his wife and children's. The husband has always the primary say in the family matters and the wife who enjoys a subordinate position in relation to her husband usually obeys him in all the matters. In normal life, however, the relationship between husband and wife is of partners in all social, economic, domestic and emotional activities, and it does not necessarily mean that her position is low in the family. In Birhor family birth of son is more welcomed by the parents due to the role boy plays in hunting.¹⁸ Birhor family is also the fountain-spring of the ritualistic performance. Every family has a number of sacred centres located in and around its own huts.

Marriage is an important part of Birhor man's life as after this only they are considered as a permanent member of Birhors social organization and second reason is religious, as they think that there all god and goddess are married.¹⁹ Death is the last stage and they consider it as God's will. The soul of the dead person is believed to provide security and power to that family and this is the reason that they worship their ancestor's spirit. There is a belief that those souls enters in the body of the children of that particular family.

4. Spirit

The frequent experience of disease and death in the hilly and forested habitat has made the Birhor dependent upon supernatural and spirit world. Out of

“nature-man-spirit complex” spirit consist most important part of Birhor life. The original religion of the Indian tribal is commonly characterized as ‘animistic’. This is correct to the degree that tribal place an emphasis on the existence and activity of deities and spirits of various kinds. According to scholars the tribal generally, lack the naturalistic outlook of the west, and since they are unable to explain satisfactorily to themselves the phenomena in the cosmos and on earth, they attribute them to the activities and machinations of intelligent, personal, superhuman powers, the “spirits”. But tribal religion includes much more than animism. There is for instance, the belief in a high-god.²⁰ As Andre Lang explained high-god as a personal deity, separate from and altogether superior to, altogether deities and spirits, the master and often maker of the universe and of men, the creator and guardian of the moral code, master over life and death, himself benevolent immutable.

The concept of high-god is very likely indigenous to the Indian tribals. When they came into contact with the Hindus, they began to identify him either with the ‘absolute being’ of Hindu religion or with its main incarnations. In most tribal religions of India, the high -god is regarded as an otiose deity, that is, he is invoked, but rarely worshipped. He has become a distant deity who leaves the world and men at the mercy of the minor deities, the spirits and demons. Other deities seem to be more important for the emotional and ceremonial side of tribal religion.

Of the Bihors, as of the other tribes on a similar level of culture, religion may very well be said to constitute almost their whole way of life. All the ills of life and life to them is overflowing with ills are believed to be caused by supernatural agencies, either by spirits hovering about in earth, air and water, hills and forest, river and spring, or by lesser power and energies present in various animate beings as well as in certain inanimate objects and even in such immaterial things as a spoken word, an expressed wish, a passing thought or emotion, a passing glance, a magic formula or diagram and certain names and numbers. And the problem of life which has always presented itself to the tribal mind is how to protect the community and its members, their scanty earthly possessions from the evil attentions of the spirits and the harmful influences of other mysterious powers and energies so as to make life worth living. The solution of the problem that the tribal mind appears to have arrived at is to seek to establish permanent friendly relations, through appropriate rites and sacrifices, with the more important spirits, powerful alike for good or evil, and to drive off, control, scare away, neutralize or avoid the lesser powers and energies by various rites and actions, spells and taboos, threats and tricks, and thus to secure good luck and avoid bad luck to health, life, progeny and food-supply.²¹

The main deities of the Bihors include Singbonga, the creator, and Devi mai or the earth goddess. In addition there are the certain hill-spirits and ancestor-spirits. Certain trees are believed to be the abode of spirits. The festival of karam (*naucleafarvifolia*) tree and the jitia-pipar tree appear to have been adopted

by some of the settled groups from their neighbours the mundas and certain Semi-Hinduised tribes.²² They are the gods proper and rest are spirits and ghosts. Among spirits, the buru-bonga or ancestral hill-spirits and the haprom or ancestor-spirits rank highest. Chandi is general spirit and Birhors offer sacrifice to chandi for a successful hunting. Burubonga or orabonga are such spirits who are called masters of sickness, are also credited with certain power over nature such as that of causing and stopping rain and storm. Thus spirits regulate the day to day life of the Birhors. The sacred ritual to appease the spirits are performed by naya (religious head), and mati who is second to naya who treats all the evil effects upon any Birhor member caused by any evil spirits with his spell and blow tricks.

Thus the religious beliefs and practices of the Birhors can be understood in terms of three analytical concepts - sacred geography, sacred performance and sacred specialists. These three aspects collectively termed as "sacred complex"²³. The sacred complex of the village reflects its relationship with the habitat, economy and society of the tribals. The sacred centres, for example, are represented by the stones, wild trees, the sun, and the moon above on the sky. The sacred performances mark the occasion of agricultural operations or of annual ancestor worship and the offering primarily compose of objects like meat, blood and liquor. The motives in making these performances are also simple. Some sacrifices are meant for appeasing the spirits so that they may get rid of disease and harmful effect. Some sacrifices are meant for ensuring rich harvest and for protecting them from disease and death.²⁴

5. Conclusion

Thus sacred complex of a village wields a powerful influence in regulating man-nature and man to man relationship in a folk community. Incidentally the description of the sacred complex of the Birhor village also brings out the probable influence that the plain tribes, the Santhal, the Munda and the Hindus of the region have been able to exercise on them. The Birhor villagers also go to attend the three major Hindu festivals of Durgapuja, Deepawali and Holi in the plains and actively associate with the observances by dancing in groups.²⁵ Modern weekly market and contact with non-tribal of plain areas has brought major changes in Birhors social, economic and cultural life style. The nomadic lifestyle has been replaced by sedentary lifestyle. This "sacred complex" embodied a penetrating network of mutual interactions and an intimate interaction of nature-man-spirit. This complex is ecological base for any tribal culture. "Nature man" approach is very important aspect in analysing a primitive culture.²⁶

In modern age nature-man-spirit complex has shown changes to great extent. Shrinking forest areas and increasing dependency upon agricultural activities had reduced the role of forest upon Birhors life. Governments planning and NGOs increasingly turning them towards settled cultivation. Hunting in forest has become very occasional or during lean season of agricultural activities.²⁷ At this

point it may be stated that most of man's interaction with his environment in terms of economic ties, resources, geographical links, social structure and inter-cultural influences etc. has been changing from time to time. In Birhors life now forest is not the mainstay of their life. The shift is towards the agricultural field on the one hand though on the other they still prefer like to settle in the surroundings of forested area.

Every Birhor man is still indivisible part of their community, but due to road network and other communication they are interacting with other non-tribal social group. The market and trade relations continue to be located in local cultures even today. In India full momentum of the globalization of economy started and new changes have been noticed gradually in the lifestyles, consumption pattern, habitat and the religious practices etc.²⁸ These things have created many sub-cultures of an entirely new kind in the urban areas. Most of these changes have long been in the process of emergence and crystallization.²⁹ These educated tribal community members have adopted the faith of some great tradition in the many cities of Jharkhand . Thus breaking the nature-man-spirit complex to some extent but, still it varies from place to place.³⁰

Due to modern medical facilities available in the Birhor villages now the myth regarding working of evil spirit is gradually fading from the mind of tribal community. Now they are able to understand that a particular disease is not caused by an evil spirit rather it is a biological problem, which a doctor or medicine can cure.³¹ All these changes notwithstanding still central to the religious and ritual aspect of their life. From agriculture to hunting, from birth to death rituals worshipping a particular spirit is still intrinsic part of Birhor community. So it can be said that nature-man-spirit complex is in the phase of transition according to the time while holding its core element.

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Construction and Standardization of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale

Ram Mehar and Navdeep Sanwal***

This paper highlights the process of construction and standardization of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale for Secondary School Students. Neale (1969) defines attitude towards mathematics as an aggregated measure of “a liking or disliking of mathematics, a tendency to engage in or avoid mathematical activities, a belief that one is good or bad at mathematics, and a belief that mathematics is useful or useless.” The scale initially consisted of 50 items after review and evaluation by subject experts, which were reduced to 44 in the first try out and then finally to 32 items in the final draft after the item analysis. The test-retest reliability of the test was computed to be 0 .81. Content validity was calculated and the scale was found to be valid.

[**Keywords :** Attitude, Scale, Mathematics, Construction and Standardization]

1. Introduction

Literature refers to attitude as a learned predisposition or tendency of an individual to respond positively or negatively to some object, situation, concept or another person. This positive or negative feeling is of moderate intensity and reasonable stability; sometimes it is especially resistant to change. In the variety of definitions of attitudes towards mathematics proposed in research studies, two main categories can be identified. Using a simple definition, “attitude towards mathematics is just a positive or negative emotional disposition towards mathematics (McLeod, 1994).

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Learning mathematics does not only involve thinking and reasoning, it is dependent on the attitudes of the learners towards learning and mathematics (Anthony & Walshaw, 2007; Grootenboer, Lomas, & Ingram, 2008; Kele & Sharma, 2014). Han and Carpenter (2014) state that attitudes consist of cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions that individuals display towards an object or the surrounding based on their feelings or interest. The cognitive component of attitude is what the individual thinks or believes about mathematics (Akinsola & Olowojaiye, 2008; Maio & Haddock, 2009; Mensah, Okyere, & Kuranchie, 2013). The affective component of attitude is the feeling or emotions of the individual associated with learning mathematics. (Ingram, 2015). Thus, “the affective component is the source of driving the engagement of students towards mathematics. Furthermore, the affective aspect is also influenced by the belief formed from the cognitive component of attitude, which creates a mindset that becomes constant over time and influences the feelings of the students towards learning mathematics (Ingram, 2015; Zan & Di-Martino, 2007).

Hart (1989) considers, attitude towards mathematics from multidimensional perspectives and defined an individual’s attitude towards mathematics as a more complex phenomenon characterized by the emotions that he associates with mathematics, his beliefs about mathematics and how he behaves towards mathematics. Attitude towards mathematics includes the tendency to be fearful of and anxious about mathematics.

Ma and Kishor (1997) proposed a wider definition; they conceive attitude towards mathematics as “an aggregated measure of a liking or disliking of mathematics, a tendency to engage in or avoid mathematical activities, a belief that one is good or bad at mathematics, and a belief that mathematics is useful or useless. Attitude towards mathematics plays a crucial role in the teaching and learning processes of mathematics. It affects students’ achievement in mathematics. The teaching method, the support of the structure of the school, the family and students’ attitude towards school affect the attitudes towards mathematics. Usually, the way that mathematics is represented in the classroom and perceived by students, even when teachers believe they are presenting it in authentic and context dependent way stands to alienate many students from mathematics (Barton, 2000; Furinghetti & Pekkonen, 2002). Researchers concluded that positive attitude towards mathematics leads students towards success in mathematics. Attempt to improve attitude towards mathematics at lower level provides base for higher studies in mathematics It also causes effect in achievement of mathematics at secondary school level (Ma & Xu, 2004).

In general, the concepts students hold about mathematics determine how they approach the subject. In many cases, students have been found to approach mathematics as procedural and rule oriented. This prevents them from experiencing the richness of mathematics and the many approaches that could be used to develop competence in the subject (Borasi, 1990). Mathematics attitude

play important role in teaching and learning of mathematics. Methods of teaching, support structure of the institution, the family and attitude of learners towards school affects the learner's attitude towards mathematics (Barton, 2000). Learner's achievement in mathematics depends upon attitude of learners towards mathematics and it also improves the participation rate of learners (Farooq & Shah, 2008). Attitude towards mathematics can be referred to a positive or negative emotional disposition towards mathematics (McLeod, 1992; Haladyna, Shaughnessy & Shaughnessy, 1983). For checking attitude towards mathematics of VII class students, the investigator felt the need for new scale.

2. Process of Construction of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale

The process of construction of attitude towards mathematics scale was carried out in following three phases :

A. Planning Phase : While planning the scale the researcher followed Likert's method of summated rating for conduction of attitude towards mathematics scale, so as to differentiate the levels of attitude towards mathematics. The statements formed were a mixture of positive and negative statements in order to add variety to the scale. Discussion were held with university teachers, educators from colleges of education, prospective teachers, friends and school mathematics teachers to know their views so as to plan appropriately for attitude towards mathematics scale. Attitude towards mathematics scale is five point scales. Every item is in statement form. Positive and negative statements are included in the scale to add variety and reduce the student's tendency to respond perfunctorily. Five response categories are provided for responding to each item. These response categories are :

- Strongly Agree (SA)
- Agree (A)
- Undecided (U)
- Disagree (D)
- Strongly Disagree (SD).

B. Construction Phase : On the basis of available literature on attitude towards mathematics, a number of statements were framed with the help of experienced colleagues, school principals, mathematics experts and students. After careful exploration of literature, a pool of 50 items on different dimensions were written and edited. The following points were kept in mind while writing the items :

- Items are related to area of investigation.
- Items were comprehensive to the respondent.

- The language of the items was such that the respondents can immediately identify with the situation expressed in the item.
- Those items were avoided that could be interpreted in more than one way or about which contradictions could arise.
- The number of items selected was greater than to be retained in the scale.

C. Standardization Phase : The standardization phase of attitude towards mathematics scale passed through three stages :

- First draft of attitude towards mathematics scale,
- Second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale and
- Final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale.

2.1 First Draft of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale

After the detailed discussion with fellow friends and on the bases of personal experiences of the investigator, investigator constructed 50 items for the first draft of attitude towards mathematics scale in the form of statements. The distribution of positive and negative items of the first draft of attitude towards mathematics scale has been given in the following table :

Table-1 : Distribution of positive and negative items of the first draft of attitude towards mathematics scale

Statements	Item No.	Total
Positive items (+)	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 27, 29, 30, 31, 35, 36, 37, 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 47, 48, 50	32
Negative items (-)	4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 17, 23, 25, 26, 28, 32, 33, 34, 39, 41, 44, 46, 49	18
Total		50

Data contained in the table above show that out of 50 items of the first draft, 32 items were positive and 18 were negative items were prepared for attitude towards mathematics scale.

First Tryout and Evaluation : In the first tryout of attitude towards mathematics scale consisting 50 items was shown to seven experts to examine the content, repetitiveness and ambiguity of the items as the editing process is very important in the Likert's technique of scale construction. The subject experts were personally requested to go for serious reflection over every statement and to respond critically and objectively with their comments and observations. The investigators devoted several sitting to consider the judgment of the said experts on the statement relating of mathematics attitude. Keeping in view their judgments and comments, 6 items were discarded and 8 items were modified. In this way, a part of 44 statements was finalized for the second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale. On the basis of opinions of subject experts, 6 items were dropped and 8 items were modified as shown in table-2 on next page.

Table-2 : Description of items dropped or modified of attitude towards mathematics scale

Sr. No.	Item No.	Total	Remarks
1.	3, 4, 22, 23, 29, 42	6	Dropped
2.	2, 5, 8, 27, 30, 36, 49, 50	8	Modified

Table-2 shows that upon evaluation by the experts, 6 items were dropped while 8 items were modified in light of the suggestions. So, 44 items consist for the second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale.

2.2 Second Draft of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale

The second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale consisted of those items which were accepted as such and which were modified or revised taking in consideration the opinions given by the experts. The distribution of positive and negative items for the second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale has been given in table-3 below :

Table-3: Distribution of positive and negative items for second draft of attitude towards mathematics

Statements	Item No.	Total
Positive items (+)	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41, 42, 44	29
Negative items (-)	5, 6, 7, 9, 15, 21, 22, 24, 27, 28, 34, 36, 38, 40, 43	15
Total		44

The above table shows that out of the 44 items, 29 positive and 15 negative items were retained for second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale.

Second Tryout and Evaluation : The second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale containing 44 items were administered to 60 students randomly selected from the class VII of Neta Ji Model School, Ropar for item validity, so as to remove language difficulty, if any. Item analysis usually provided two kind of information on item such as, item difficulty, which helps us decide if the test items are at the right level for the target group and item discrimination, which allows us to see if the individual items are providing information on candidate's abilities consistent with that provided by other items on the test. The responses of the subjects were scored as per allotted weightage. The weighted score for each item and for each subject were summated. On the basis of 60 students scores, 27% (16 students) subjects with high scores i.e. high group and 27% (16 students) with low score i.e. low group were identified. Their scored responses in items of weighted scores for each item were worked out. Item analysis was carried out by employing t-test for 44 items for high and low group. The t-ratio was computed for the higher and lower group to find discrimination power of each item. Thus, the significance of difference between means of scores of high and low group was worked out to

find the discrimination power of each item i.e. how well each statement could distinguished on the basis of the value of t-ratio, between students with high and low attitude towards mathematics. Those items which show a significant difference between high and low group at 0.05 level of confidence was selected for the final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale. The t-ratio of 44 items of the second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale has been place in table-4.

Table-4 : t-ratio of high and low group of second draft of attitude towards mathematics scale

Item No.	t-ratio						
1	2.91**	12	1.74	23	2.43**	34	2.26*
2	0.60	13	3.74**	24	0.85	35	0.12
3	2.89**	14	2.02*	25	2.07*	36	2.34*
4	3.73**	15	0.92	26	0.52	37	0.43
5	0.62	16	2.04*	27	5.17**	38	2.58*
6	2.69*	17	5.37**	28	2.19*	39	2.21*
7	2.47*	18	4.42**	29	0.12	40	3.07**
8	3.85**	19	3.23**	30	0.40	41	2.10*
9	0.21	20	2.38*	31	2.07*	42	2.19*
10	2.36*	21	2.14*	32	2.17*	43	6.35**
11	2.11*	22	2.25*	33	1.58	44	2.96**

*Significant at 0.05 level; **Significant at 0.01 level

(Critical Value 2.04 at 0.05 and 2.75 at 0.01 levels, df 30)

Table-4 shows that t-ratio for 12 items i.e. 2, 5, 9, 12, 15, 24, 26, 29, 30, 33, 35, 37 were not found significant event at 0.05 level of significance and rest of the items were found significant at 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance. Hence, out of 44 items, 12 items were dropped and 32 items were retained for the final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale.

2-3 Final Draft of Attitude towards Mathematics Scale

The consisted of 32 statements for the final draft of the attitude towards mathematics scale. There were positive and negative statements. Out of total 44 items only 32 items were retained for the final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale has been given in table -5.

Table-5 : Distribution of positive and negative items for final draft

Statements	Item No.	Total
Positive items (+)	1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 27, 29, 30, 32	22
Negative items(-)	4, 5, 16, 17, 20, 24, 25, 26, 28, 31	10
Total		32

Table-5 shows that out of total 32 items, 22 were positive and 13 negative items were retained for the final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale.

Scoring : The attitude towards mathematics scale is Likert's type five point rating scale viz. strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree with respective weights of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 for the positive statements and 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 for the negative statements. The scoring procedure is adopted in table-6.

Table-6 : Scoring procedure for each item of attitude towards mathematics scale

Items	Score Assigned				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Strongly Agree	Agree
Positive items (+)	1	2	3	4	5
Negative Items (-)	5	4	3	2	1

The above table shows that attitude towards mathematics scale scores of the subject is the sum of the positive and negative items. Similarly, the total negative score is calculated. The total positive plus total negative scores give the composite score for that aspect for that individual. The maximum possible score 160 (if the subject will respond to all strongly agree options for positive items and strongly disagree for the negative items then 5 marks will be given for each 32 statements that the total comes to 160 i.e. 32×5) and minimum possible score 32 (If the subject will respond to all strongly disagree options for positive items and strongly agree for negative items then 1 mark will be given for each 32 items that the total comes to 32 i.e. 32×1) will be the attitude towards mathematics scale. The total score was calculated by obtaining positive and negative scores for the items.

Reliability : The final draft of the attitude towards mathematics scale was administered to students on two different occasions after an interval of 30 days and coefficient of correlation was computed by using test-retest method between the two sets of the scores. So, the scale may be considered fairly reliable. The reliability of the final draft of attitude towards mathematics is 0.82. Thus, the final draft of attitude towards mathematics scale was considered reliable.

Validity : Regarding method of establishing validity of scale, it is necessary for the entire test to have content validity. Content validity is concerned with the relevance of contents items, individually, and as whole. Each individual item or content of test as whole should contain only one representative type of variable to be measured by the test. Anastasi (1968) has said that "content validity involves essentially, the systematic extension of test content which determines whether it covers a representative sample of behaviour domain to be answered. Items were given to the panel consisting of five judges for determining the content validity. The experts were requested to give +1 if the item were related to the trait and -1 if not and zero in case of certainty.

3. Conclusion

Attitude towards mathematics scale was developed by the investigators to know about the attitude of secondary school students in the subject of mathematics. In particular this scale was constructed and standardized for the students of 7th class. During the research investigators felt the need for construction of this test due to the non availability of attitude towards mathematics scale of above mentioned class students. Another reason for the construction of this test was the learning environment of above mentioned students. In keeping mind both the points scale was constructed and standardized by following all the scientific steps of construction and standardization of reliable research tool. Present scale consists of 32 items, 22 items are positive and 10 are negative.

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Locating Gender in Geographical Questions : A Short Discussion

*Sarmistha Saha**

Geography as a discipline crosscuts with various other disciplines of social science. An emerging branch of geography is gender geography. Geographical questions add a different dimension to the research if address the issue of gender. Most of the times, geography often fails to locate gender in its questions and follows the process of generalization for both quantitative and qualitative research. The generalization of geographical conclusions often result the unaddressed issue of gender in research. This paper examines the landscape of gender geography in its first section and tries to explore the possibilities of geographical application to gender studies.

[Keywords : Gender geography, Geographical questions, Gendered perspectives, Homogeneous assumptions, Gender issues]

1. The Landscape of Gender Geography

The study of geography in modern times is intersecting with so many disciplines of social science. The span of geography as a social science is vast and the development of social geography has rendered some relevant questions. The feminist concepts has an impact on geography since 1970's. The society has changed hugely in the course of time and the social norms has also been changed. The study of marginality has emerged as the separate discipline in many counties. However, the question of content arises while studying gender in geographical context. Though gender studies has established itself as a separate discipline, but the term gender geography is more perplexed in a geographical discussion.

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According to Rose (1995) "feminist geography was simply too extensive to be ignored by contemporary accounts of the discipline." Nelson and Seager (1986) argues that "In comparison to other cognate social science fields, geography as a discipline was slower in developing and embracing feminist scholarship; this delayed engagement meant that the critical work already under way in disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, history, political philosophy, and economics was available to the early cohort of geographers who were pioneering feminist geography". Even within the core discipline of gender studies, the geography of gender is significant. The regional, social, economic and cultural aspects of geography results a great variety of conclusion in gender questions. "The study of gender within geography has introduced new theoretical concepts such as the gendering of public and private spaces, gendered divisions of paid and unpaid labor, and challenges to the gender assumptions reminiscent in much of Marxist geography. Much of this scholarship included women as a previously absent group into the study of place and space" (Fluri, 2015). Generally huge problem arises in explaining gender questions through geographical perspectives. The homogeneous assumptions and lack of detailed understanding of diversity of gendered issues are the reason. In geography, especially in social geography the geographical variations are considered to be homogeneous in most of the cases. Except some of the well known indications such as literacy, sex ratio, employment, saving, fertility etc. most of the geographical aspects are seen as homogeneous. Geography as a discipline of science is highly related with space. However, geographical studies merely works with gender specific availability of space. The geographical explanations are often not seen through gender lenses. For example, in resource geography, geographers often seen resource in terms of place and utilization. The place and utilization is highly subjected to gender, which is often ignored. Resources are, never been classified on the basis of gendered use or gendered location. Another example is cultural geography where the dimensions of culture is very often seen in terms of gender.

2. Geographical Application to Gender Studies

Feminist geography has marked a paradigm shift in geography. In spite of this the idea regarding the core subjects of gender studies and geography is often conflicting. "One of the most important effects of feminist geography has been to unsettle taken-for-granted assumptions about women's and men's "places" in the societies, communities, organizations, and relationships within which we live and work. Thus, feminist geography has opened up questions about ways in which spaces and places - from bathrooms to call centres, from urban parks to teaching spaces - are experienced differently by different people, and come to be associated with the presence or absence of different groups of people (Nairn, 1997; Burgess, 1998; Longhurst, 2001; Belt et al., 2002). While gender is one salient dimension in these experiences and associations, so too are age, class, ethnicity, and many other

factors. Consequently, bringing issues about gender into geography has entailed much more than attending to differences and inequalities between women and men." (Bondi and Davidson, 2005) It has also prompted much reflection on what the categories "women" and "men" mean, and on the concept of gender, in the context of social identities and social relations more generally. One expression of this has been growing interest in a diversity of "masculinities" and "femininities"; that is, in different ways of being men and women (Valentine, 1996; Ainley, 1998; Laurie et al., 1999; Longhurst, 2000) Gender geography as a sub-discipline of geography is often refused by a number of scholar. While gender studies as a core discipline focuses more on theoretical development, geography can provide an empirical base to gender studies through the use of quantitative techniques. In this way regional diversities can be placed in more scientific manner. Feminist geographers can use the quantitative tools to explain the various aspects of study. Statistics is undoubtedly a powerful tool in gender geography to understand the extent of the debated issues with a deep overview. There is much debate regarding incorporation of gendered aspects in geographical problems. The answer is quite complex. A subject cannot be explained fully if a major part remain unexplained or based on theoretically homogeneous assumptions. Knopp (2013) has studied the interlinkages between gender and other socio-political factors like race, ethnicity, caste and class. The essence and understanding of the subject remain competent if it relates the existing social context in a deeper level.

The most critical question is how to incorporate gendered perspective in geographical questions in a non-biased manner. Geography as a whole, deals with the distribution of phenomena over space. Space is unique in terms of place based identities. "Places and place-based identities are unboundaried, open, porous, and fluid entities that are always "in process" in relation to numerous other places" (Massey, 1994). This distribution must be marked as per gender. The gendered gap between theatrical availability and practical distribution is a good indicator. Identification of factors that are responsible for the deviation is next step. Geographical tools are the best for evaluating impact and assessing the depth of the problem. Maps, diagrams, statistical techniques, primary research and GIS layering can help immensely in geographical explanation of gendered problems. The inclusion of women in policy making and implementation requires in depth study of literal and figurative maps, which are till date poorly developed. The study of gender requires the incorporation of map making techniques that are easily available in the discipline of geography and maintenance of database which is also common in geographical context. "Conceptual discussion of "space" "never surfaces [within geography] because everyone assumes we already know what the term means." Consequently the project of feminist geography has been as much about rethinking core geographical concepts like space and place as about rethinking gender and its relationship to space and place" (Massy, 1992, cited in Bondi & Davidson, 2005).

3. Conclusion

Geography, as a science based discipline, believes on positivist philosophy of explanation which is the prime requirement to formulate a policy sensitive to women. The theoretical nature of gender studies has made the subject unacceptable or partially acceptable to other discipline. But it is true that the issues related to women are mostly related to their lives and cannot be caught in quantitative data. Still, an attempt to generate quantitative measure with qualitative explanation is the best way to strengthen the discipline. The diversity of the issues and lack of data based research has contributed against an effective policy formulation. Therefore the need of the hour is to work towards a data based, empirically tested solution that can address heterogeneity and help in formulate effective policies. Besides, gender lenses should be incorporated to most of the geographical discussion to understand the distributions are not homogeneous over space. This unequal nature must be admitted and understood to generate a long term benefit of the society. According to Fluri (2015) "Gender research has had a significant impact on several sub disciplines within geography. Much of this research calls for a focus on the body and embodied ways of knowing and experiential forms of understanding, gender divisions of labor and space, gender politics, gendered forms of security and insecurity, gender and migration/mobility, and gender and the environment. Gender research in geography calls for embodied and place-based research, while attending to the linkages between conceptions of place, space, and scale and the connections between intimate/every day and global processes". Shurmer-Smith and Hannam (1994) agreed that finally we are having a new version of cultural geography which simply assumes that you can't do that kind of geography without talking about gender.

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The Need of Human Security Approach for Countering Left Wing Extremism in India

Arun Kumar and N. K. Kumaresan Raja***

In the era of the 21st century, the human security approach significant in terms of two conceptual phenomenon's 'freedom from fear' and 'freedom from want' which came in world political cineraria with the publication of the Human Development Report (HDR), 1994. Though these terms are not new in the socio-political discourse, what matters with human security is that it takes the standpoint of individuals instead of the conventional approach of generating knowledge from an institutional perspective. This direction and focus on the dimensions of human security have represented in the search for a human developmental paradigm focussing upon the individual. Regarding this view, the notion of human security is concerned with human welfare, justice, and dignity. Consequently, human security obviously has its connectivity with poverty eradication and fostering human-centric development. In this paper, it is argued that the Indian territories earmarked as Left Wing Extremist Affected Territory termed as the 'Red Corridor' warrants a much more focused appraisal of human security. These areas are known to be the pockets of perpetual poverty, unemployment, inequality, malnutrition, and underdevelopment. The paper further suggests that it would be appropriate for the Indian Establishment to encounter insurgency; the approach requires to be shifted from security to human security which is the compulsion of the hour. The paper argues for the possible initiatives that could be pursued by the Indian Government to tackle Left Wing Extremism.

[**Keywords** : Human security. Left wing extremism, Underdevelopment, Deprivation]

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1. Introduction

The role and responsibilities of the state have always been a focal point of discussion in eastern and western political philosophy. In the west; through lessons from history, the body politic comprises of the state and its obligation to its people as a welfare state. Western society is a society based on rights; whereas, in the eastern socio-political system, the structure and function of society are based on morality, duties and social hierarchies. Aristotle, regarded as the father of political science, justified that 'The state comes into existence for the sake of life and continues to exist for the sake of good life'. The modern theory of nation-state which emerged after the Treaty of Westphalia (1648) emphasized that the primary role and responsibilities of the state are to safeguard national interests, territory integrity, and sovereignty.

In this context, the models of the state that can be rationalized through Leviathan, Morgenthau or the neo-realist model of state darts around a power-centric notion of state. The western state thus began with its quest for authority, power, and legitimacy and then moved towards a welfare state model. While the western political thought and political history would be complimenting each other, in India such connectivity between political thinkers and political history could be rarely connected as the political thinking confined to moral prescriptions rather than empirical troubleshooting. Polity, as experienced by Western Europe, is completely alien to Indian consciousness. India has been a socially organized body politic where the king had nothing to with the day to day life of the people. The advice to the kings was often moral prescriptions. In the ancient governing system in India, the state was the core point. In Kautilya's *Arthashastra*, the objectives of a state were not only to secure people but also welfare works for people. The earliest accepted Indian political treatise, *Arthashastra* states that "the state's objectives are to secure people, to preserve them from natural calamities and to ensure on existence conducive to the happiness of citizens in his life and paving the way to a brighter beyond" (Altekar, 1958 : 95-96).

The paramount importance attached to the state's sovereignty is a fundamental focus in contemporary domestic and international politics. Consequently, the safety of the national boundary is a core priority in international relations. The spirit of defending the territory in the name of sovereignty cannot be a mechanical exercise. The security of humans is as crucial as the conventional understanding of the security of state sovereignty over their territory and national interests. The western countries are conscious that 'security' does not only mean that branch of knowledge system associated with strategic or military questions and absence of war condition; but also human security that encompasses economic, social, political, cultural, environmental and similarly related categories that are related to human life in a more pragmatic manner (Tadjbakhsh and Chenoy, 2007).

On the contrary; the post-colonial countries, the situation is entirely different. The western colonisers, during their project of colonisation through which they exported their political structures as well, they deliberately undermined the priority to human-centred approach that they in their countries passionately fostered. It is obvious that the colonial powers who inherited political and military institutions through a historic process, when they found themselves in the colonised worlds could not afford to conduct the same historic process as their objective was to further their markets. They destroyed the main parts of customary practices, long kept traditions and cultural practices with their own and also constantly upgraded with their Eurocentric wisdom. This import of western experience and replicating western institutions led to conflicts as and when they became independent as they all of a sudden encountered the challenge of improvising and metamorphosing a new national identity, self-reliant economy and sustained continuance of the structures of governance. The bureaucracy, the governments were compelled to embrace the new objective which was possible to some extent with the enactment of the new Constitution. Yet the obsession for armed force, undue importance to social control, and above all treating native population as sub humans continue even today in the eyes of a post-colonial power structure. This results largely in political apathy and anti-establishment a sentiment leading to what is understood as a soft state and an overdeveloped state.

After the disintegration of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War, the concept of human security changed the idea of security from its traditional framework of safety from military, strategic, and nuclear threats to the comprehensive safety of human beings. Human Development Report (HDR) 1994, which was the brainchild of Dr. Mahub-ul-Haq, states, Human development as a process of widening the range of people's choice and human security means that people can exercise these choices safely and freely - and that they can be relatively confident that the opportunities they have today are not totally lost tomorrow (UNDP, 1994, : 23). In the Human Development Report, it has been mentioned that "human security can be said to have two main aspects. It means, first, safety from such chronic threats as hunger, diseases, and repression which interlinked with the notion of freedom from want. And second; it means protection from unexpected and hurtful disturbances to the normal routine of daily life- whether at homes, workplace or in communities which that is interlinked with the notion of freedom from fear" (UNDP, 1994 : 23) In this context, the Human Development Report, 1994 declares that the concept of human security advanced from the perspective of the development with special reference to its four characteristics: Universal concern, interdependent, ensured by early prevention and people-centred (UNDP, 1994 : 22-23).

Regarding the international political regime, Kofi Annan, former Secretary-General of the United Nations states that "We must also broaden our view of what is meant by peace and security. Peace means much more than the absence of war.

Human security can no longer be understood in purely military terms. Rather, it must encompass economic development, social justice, environmental protection, democratization, disarmament, and respect for human rights and the rule of law" (Annan, 2001). In his opinion, Kofi Annan put the core objectives of the United Nations and also forwarded the idea of 'peace-building'.

In the same way, Prof. Amartya Sen also elaborated human security as an alternative conventional concept of poverty and development. In *Development as Freedom* (1999) Sen declares, poverty as 'capacity deprivation' (Sen, 1999 : 3). Prof. Sen is known for his impeccable contribution to the notion of welfare economics in 1998. In this discipline, Sen has given the idea of capabilities. Prof. Amartya Sen described that 'capabilities create functional abilities among disadvantaged sections of society which that help them for better entitlements and a better life'. Amartya Sen vociferously advocated that welfare economics must focus on the questions about the development of capabilities in human beings. He further elucidates that capability according to him is an individual's freedom to choose the kinds of lives to live what he thinks that it is fit. There need be no unanimity about what would be considered a valued way of life. In other words, the choice of the person for a good life is factorised as 'valuable beings' and 'valuable doings'. It is at this point the post-colonial states need to redefine their understanding of the development and come out of the colonial hangover. At the same time, it remains an admitted fact that these emerging ideas on human security though constitutionally agreeable, for want of resources and lack of political will have generated a divide among the governed and the governing. Instead of approaching the mismatch between the human security approach and conventional state-centric security approach through post-colonial experience, the newly liberated South Asian states as a whole and India, in particular, the concept of human security is often understood as the domain of non-state actors.

Obviously, the direction and dimension of human security do not oppose state sovereignty and national security but it opposes the race of armament. This notion of human security unravels towards the advent for a new development paradigm and public welfare policies that focus upon an individual, whose historical genesis is rooted in the philosophy of Aristotle, John Locke, Rousseau and Immanuel Kant and in the founding reasons of the UN Charter, Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Geneva Convention. In fact, after the end of bipolar politics, the notion of human security declares that the objective of security should be required as the security of human beings and not just the national territory. Of course, in the era of democratization, the notion of human security prefers the highest priority about human beings and the state is identified as the main provider of human security.

2. An Overview of Left Wing Extremism in India

The Preamble of Indian Constitution reflects in glorious words of social-economic and political Justice, equal opportunity and dignity of all the

citizens of India but on the ground level, these glorious words could not convert in actual form after the seven decades of independence. It is an admitted fact that when political and civil rights are guaranteed as fundamental rights, economic rights that deal directly with better living conditions are placed under the Directive Principles of State Policy. Unfortunately, India's Five Year's Planning Model could not fulfil basic exceptions of all citizens of India. The reality is that a huge extent of land included in the central part of India termed as red corridor has never been conducted a survey and settlement operations as per the report of the Committee on Financial Sector Reforms (2009). In these circumstances, the rise Left Wing Extremist movements in India can be rationalized as is a result of socio-economic deprivation and dissatisfaction of India's large section disadvantaged population. It is also to be observed that the Left Wing Extremist affected areas are rich in mineral deposits and natural resources and are potential targets for harnessing them by state and non-state actors, yet have not made any significant impact in the lives of the local indigenous population.

Left Wing Extremist Movement came in existence of India's political and geographical map on 18th May 1967 in one state (West Bengal), in one district (Darjeeling) and in police station (Naxalbari) from which a peasant movement converted in Naxal Movement, in the leadership of Charu Majumdar, Kanu Sanyal, and Jangal Santhal. In 2017, the Ministry of Home Affairs of India gave a statement in which it was stated that Left Wing Extremist Movement had spread to 10 states, 106 districts in which 35 worst LWE affected districts among 106 LWE districts (Lok Sabha, 2017). Left Wing Extremist in India is now taking of establishing a Compact Revolutionary Zone (CRZ) or Red Corridor stretching from Pashupati in Nepal to Tirupati in South India.

After the worst Maoist attack in Dantewada district in Chhattisgarh where the 76 CRPF Jawans were killed (6th April 2010), former India's Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh declared that Left Wing Extremism as the gravest internal security threat to the country. On 9th April, 2019, BJP MLA Bhima Mandavi and four security personnel were killed in Dantewada (Chhattisgarh) by a worst improvised explosive device (IED) attack just two days before the Lok Sabha Election 2019 which that indicating yet Left Wing Extremist challenging the sovereignty of India and the authority and legitimacy of the government. Approximately 12000 citizens of our country have lost their lives in violent activities of the Left Wing Extremists. Out of these 12000 people, 2700 are jawans of the Security Forces and the remaining 9300 are innocent and simple common people who are not guilty (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2017).

In India, Left Wing Extremist find an ideological framework to the philosophy of Marx- Lenin and Mao-Zedong which have faith destruction of the feudalistic, imperialistic and capitalist structure of society for the creation of an exploitation-free society as the name of Janathana Sarkar (Peoples Government) to protect the tribe's rights as the slogan of Jal (water), Jangal (forest) and

Zameen(land).On the 21st Sepetember 2004, Peoples War Group, and Maoist Communist Centre merged to give a pan-India form of Left Wing Extremist movement with the strong organization, Communist Party of India (Maoist). The formation of the integrated Communist Party of India (Maoist) is a new era in the history of the revolutionary communist movement of India.Peoples Liberation Guerrilla Army (PLGA) provide armed wing for Left Wing Extremist organizations. Hills and forests provide a safeguard zone to Left Wing Extremist for guerrilla warfare against the state machinery.

In the Indian political scenario, Left Wing Extremist wants social-political and economic justice through neither bullet nor ballet. In this context, they oppose the Indian parliamentary democratic electoral system. They also opposed and attack the construction of roads, Railways, telephone exchange, Panchayats Bhawan, and School Building in Red Corridor areas (Lok Sabha, 2017). Thus it can be established that these fringe elements exploit a gap of human security, which the state establishments need to discern and fine-tune their approach towards development in the left wing affected areas.

Left Wing Extremism in India is not only a law and order problem but the outcome of India's development trajectory pursued under the leadership of the state's development programmes. After the adoption the policy of liberalization, privatization and globalization by the Government of India in 1991, a large number of Industrialization, the concept of Special Economic Zones, hydro electro projects, mining projects and power plans have led to the huge displacement of tribal population from their natural wildlife which that basic reason of conflicts and contradictions. In Indian history, the tribal community has always been a self-governing ruling system. The tribal self-government ruling system means the appropriate management of natural resources, general economic matters, and the preservation of their culture but these norms well not appropriated by the Government of India and also State Government. The rural tribes fear that as the project expands the operation, their livelihood gets threatened as a result of mining activity without much benefit flowing to them. In this context, not only tribes have been dispossessed and displaced but they have also lost their social structure and cultural identities due to state-sponsored industrial policy. It must be understood that under the post-colonial structure of governance, the subject of law and order as well as, land, natural resources vest with the state government and central government could only pursue responsive action when the case is established that the sovereignty of the State is challenged.

Unequal land distribution, identity issues, and the inhuman caste system are other important aspects of injustice, conflict, and violence such that in Bihar. A hierarchical structure of society is an important anti-establishment phenomenon of economic and socially division. In fact, tribal and disadvantaged people of society don't have any ideological understanding about the philosophy of Marx- Lenin and Mao but they support Left Wing Extremist and join the movement because of

politically alienation, economically deprivation, and societal discrimination. Actually, present structural format and objectives of Left Wing Extremism are not equal regarding the Naxalbari movement. In the case of the Naxalbari movement, that was an organized peasant movement against landlords, specific in West Bengal whereas the Left Wing Extremist movement in Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, and Orissa against the displacement, industrialists and mining policy of the state and central government.

3. Concept of Human Security and Left Wing Extremism in India

The condition of human insecurity is an ancient phenomenon that reflects the notion of Hobbes's anarchical condition of society. Threats of famine, violence, war, and flood and slavery system are part of world history. The human security paradigm is an attempt to make each person feel as secure as possible rather than state sovereignty. It means the notion of human security is not against the notion of state sovereignty but its focus on people-centred without asking any questions of age, sex, race, religion, and nationality. Humans are not only individual objects; they are encumbered subjects who have each a body, emotions, and identity. In this context, Kanti Bajpai as one of the theorists of human security described that "Human security relates to the protection of the individual's personal safety and freedom from direct and indirect threats of violence. The promotion of human development and good governance, and when necessary the collective use sanctions and force are central to managing human security" (Bajpai, 2000 : 1-4). Actually, human security is closely linked where the lack of basic human needs and infrastructure. Kofi Annan, in his 2000 Report to the United Nations, *We the People*, gave the following broad description of human security :

Human security in its broadening sense embraces far more than the absence of violent Conflict. It encompasses human rights, good governance, access to education, health care, and ensuring that each individual has opportunities and choices to fulfil his or her own potential. Every step in this direction is also a step towards reducing poverty, achieving economic growth and preventing conflict. Freedom from want, freedom from fear and the freedom of future generation to inherit a healthy natural environment - these are the interrelated building blocks of human - and therefore national security.

Following the above conceptual framework of human security is interlinked with the Left Wing Extremist parts of India. Its roots can be traced to the socio-economic condition in India. Land acquisition issues, poverty, unemployment, hunger, starvation, malnutrition, ill health and a lack of infrastructure provide a fertile ground for the emergence of Left-wing Extremism in India. These areas are predominantly inhabited by Adivasis (tribal groups) and Dalits (lower castes) who are amongst the most marginalized and exploited sections of Indian society. Therefore, Left Wing Extremist cannot be treated as the counter-insurgency strategy like as in the North- East and the terrorist movement in Punjab and Jammu & Kashmir.

In this backdrop, both important factors of human security-‘freedom from fear’ and ‘freedom from want’ take an important place in the context of facts from Left Wing Extremists affected parts of India. It is rightly argued that the security of human beings will not be complete unless it includes the fulfilment of basic human needs, the security of people, their livelihood, and their dignity. To this point, a human security framework provides a multi-dimensional approach to state machinery for combating Naxalism with interlinking between peace and development and also challenges stemming factors that impede industrialization and tribal issues in Left Wing Extremist affected areas. As a cosmopolitan concept, human security determinants address not only development challenges; they are also relevance for countering Left Wing Extremism in India which that following :

- 1. Economic Security :** It prefers to a required basic income for individuals where the main threat is poverty and deprivation. In the era of globalization, India is the fastest emerging economy order in the world economy, in IT sector, India takes an important place in the world, but in Left Wing Extremist affected areas people suffering to lower per capita Income which that an indicator of dissatisfaction and unrest. The unjust economic structure of Indian society, dehumanized poverty, and joblessness are one of the core problems that have been lead dissatisfaction to the governance. Implementation of PESA (Panchayats Extension to Scheduled Areas Act, 1996) on the ground level is a positive forwarding step for solving the economic crisis in the scheduled tribe’s areas. PESA was enacted on 24th December 1996 which that prefers every Gram Sabah’s have roles and responsibility in approving all implementing development works in the village. This Act identifies beneficiaries and functionaries in all social sectors and local plans. Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) which was the brain-child of the Government of India for rural road construction. Jairam Ramesh (former Minister of Rural Development) considered in 2013 that the construction of the road is the “single most important development intervention in Naxal affected areas.” Nevertheless, other government schemes e.g. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA,) Pradhan Mantri Jan-Dhan Yojana, and Jawahar Rozgar Yojana will be helpful for solving against of economic insecurity in Left Wing Extremist affected tribal areas. For the solving displacement issues, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Policy,2007 is a forwarding step. This policy mentions land in change for land, job security at least one member of the family and also secure housing facilities mechanism for whom which land have been taken for government purpose. Operationalization of government’s schemes, debt relief of tribal people, and generate employment opportunities for tribal people’s will be lead as a positive strategy to achieve victory against Left Wing Extremism.

- 2. Food Security :** It prefers basic nutritious food, to all people to all part of the world. India is an agricultural country but food security is a major problem in rural areas of India's states. After the seven-decade of independence, the notion of food security has been the subject of discussion and debate in the Indian economy. Tribal and poor people often go hungry due to the absence of proper food distribution system and lack of purchasing power with poor masses. Food Security Act provides sufficient, safe, and nutritious food for people which are below the poverty line. In the context of food security, transparent and accountable implementation of proper Public Distribution System, Mid-day Meals Scheme, and Antyoday Anna Yojana are the key factors to find out availability and supply of food, access to basic food, and quality of nutrition in Left Wing Extremist affected part of tribal areas. In the government schools, Mid-day Meals Scheme provides nutritious food to children, surely a positive step for securing food security.
- 3. Health Security :** It refers to guaranteeing a minimum required protection from diseases, illness, and unhealthy lifestyles. In the rural areas of Left Wing Extremist affected district, tribes and disadvantaged people are suffering from health insecurities. In fact, a poor tribal family can't afford adequate health facility. Public Health Centre is under-staffed and over-stretched in Left Wing Extremist affected areas. Accessibility to healthcare center, secure availability of medicine, safe, and affordable family planning and other health facilities management will take a positively place against health insecurities for the marginalized section of tribal society in their habitat.
- 4. Environmental Security :** It includes protecting people from natural disaster and man-made threats in nature. The tribes have built their settlements in hilly and mountain areas. In this context, prevention of deforestation, land conservation, concern about environmental problems, awareness about the Forest Rights Act of 2006 and create a nature-man relationship will be helpful to secure their natural livelihood. Forest Rights Act, 2006, prefers the legal rights of the scheduled tribes who have been living in the forest and their livelihood depends on the forest. The Ministry of Environment and Forests provides permission for using the one-hectare land for non-forest purposes of tribal people through this Act In April 2013, the Supreme Court of India ordered that the consent of local tribal be taken before the permission for mining.
- 5. Personal security :** It will be taking an important place to protect tribal people from physical violence, from physical torture, and all kinds of exploitation. The elimination of violence should be the top priority. In the left wing extremist affected areas, tribes facing double tragedy. Firstly, Police and security forces treat as a Maoist supporter and secondly Maoist treats with tribes citizens like as police informer. Regarding this point of view, SalwaJudum campaign was not a solution for solving the Left Wing

Extremist movement in which that local youth involved with weapons against Maoists. It was an attempt to create a parallel administrative system but it was a result of the failure of the administration to maintain law and order. On the ground level, the Judum's officers killed tribes as the name of Maoists, and tribal women targeted of rape and sexual violence. NandiniSundar, Ram Chandra Guha, and E.A.S. Sharma have filed a PIL against the SalwaJudum in the Supreme Court in 2007, ultimately SalwaJudum banned in 2011. Inhalation of social discrimination, control of human rights violations, maximization maintains of law, winning hearts and minds of the disadvantaged population, and no any fake-encounters are the pre-condition for personal security in Naxal affected areas. Finally, the sense of personal security has a close relationship to respect for individual human being in tribal and disadvantages section of Indian social structure.

- 6. Community Security :** It refers to protecting people from the loss of their traditional relationships, culture and values, and from sectarian and ethnic violence. The notion of community security will ensure peaceful community living and human values of the tribes against the ethnic discrimination and fear of internal conflicts. The concept of community security opposes the idea of structural violence. In structural violence, the structure of society reflects as a heretical system in which that who are the top, they exploit and dominate those who are at the bottom. Actually, structural violence is a establish form of violence, which is embedded in the social, political and economic structure that make up a society.

For the containment of structural violence in Indian society and reducing inequality, it is necessary to establish a fair and just society. In this scenario, the Fifth Schedule of the Constitution of India states the establishment of a 'Tribal Advisory Council' under the Article244. Tribal Advisory Council which is a legitimate political authority maintains a holistic approach between the development of human resources and tribal's cultural norms. As the same way, PESA also provides provision for every Gram Sabha to safeguard and preserve the traditions and ancient customs of tribal people, their religious norms, and cultural identity, values, community resources and the customary trends of conflict resolution.

A bottom-up regional approach, social harmony, and well education mechanism establishment are the grass-root factor for the development of human capital and work skills in Left Wing Extremist affected areas. National Commission for Scheduled Caste and National Commission for Scheduled Tribes which are the constitutional body, provide safeguard against the exploitation and discrimination of scheduled caste and scheduled tribes.

- 7. Political Security :** It maintains that people live in a society with honours, equal opportunity, their fundamental human rights and ensuring the liberty

of individuals. The notion of political security in actual form will promote of tribes in the field of political participation, democratic expectations and level of democratization on the grassroots level. Fundamental Rights, reservation procedure in government's job and academic institution, specific provision for their representation in legislature and voting rights provide them a strong platform for forwarding. Against this constitutional concept Maoist not believe in the Constitution of India and boycott election but Maoist doesn't know they will be never come to power through crucial armed struggle and way of violence. In this context, Nepali's Maoists are the best example where they leave-up violence and accepted the way of democracy. Regarding this democratic aspects, it will be a great achievement for the government if the government mobilize and build the environment of faith between Maoists and tribal people in the favour of Indian Parliamentary democratic system against the Maoist propaganda. Simultaneously, reduction of political exclusion and promoting democratic culture, political pluralism, freedom of thought and speech and individual liberty in Maoist affected areas are the necessary factor in the present situation for resolving the political gap.

4. Concluding Remarks

The Constitution of India is fully committed to secure human values, justice, and liberty of thoughts, expression, belief, faith, and dignity. To this point, it should be recognized that a dignified and honourable livelihood is a necessary condition for the existence of the tribal people in Left Wing Extremist affected part of India. Left Wing Extremist movement in India cannot be treated normally as the issues of law and order problem. Its existence was becoming more and more rooted in the poorest region of the country where the lack of human development. In this context, the role and responsibility of human security like as a guide for solving to emerging challenges in tribal habitat. In fact, the notion of human security declares that the security should be required as the security of human being, co-ordination between peace and development and equally considers to freedom from fear, freedom from want and the equal opportunities of people to develop their human potential and their capability. Governmental developmental schemes should be in favour of tribes, not in favour of State Government or Delhi Government or industrialist sector. It is necessary to change the mind-set that Naxals are not terrorists; they are also citizens of India. There will be establishing peace if there will be establishing the actual form of equity, democratic accountability, justice and dignity for everyone. Finally, promoting development schemes and builds up infrastructure in Left Wing Extremist affected areas but not the cost of the tribe's ownership, their identity, their values, culture, and traditions.

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Effect of Pubertal Maturation on Self-Esteem of Adolescents

Alpna Agarwal and Neha Kapoor***

The purpose of this study was to find out the effect of pubertal maturation on self-esteem of adolescents. The sample comprised of total 180 adolescents (V to IX class). There were three groups indicating three phases of pubertal maturation i.e. early, mid and late. In each group there were 60 subjects. Further in each group there were 30 male and 30 female. The self-administered rating scale for pubertal development adapted from an instrument described in Peterson et al. (1988) was used for assessment of pubertal development. Indian adaptation of Battle's Self-Esteem Inventory for Children by Kumar (1977) was used for the assessment of self-esteem. The data were analyzed through mean, ANOVA and Newman Keul's multiple comparison test. The results indicate that pubertal maturation and gender both have significant effect on self-esteem.

[Keywords : Pubertal maturation, Self-esteem and Gender]

1. Introduction

In all aspects of individual development there is change over the adolescent decade, largely in a positive direction. Puberty is the period in children's lives when they experience physical changes by which their bodies eventually become adult bodies that are capable of reproducing. Puberty is a sequence of events by which a child becomes young adult. Growth is fast in the first half of puberty and stops when puberty is completed. Before puberty boys and girls are only different in having genitalia (sex organs). During puberty several other differences between

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the sexes start to emerge, including body size, shape, composition and function development in several body systems and structure. Puberty also includes psychological and social change over from childhood to adulthood. Cognitive change permits abstract reasoning and increased cognitive potential. Psycho-social change involves increased self-understanding, improved self-esteem, identity development, increased autonomy and expanded as well as higher quality interpersonal relationships.

We all have a mental picture of who we are, how we look, what we are good at and what are weaknesses might be. We develop this picture over time, starting when we are young kids. The term self-image is used to refer to a person's mental picture of himself or herself. A lot of our self-image is based on interaction we have with other people and our life experiences. This mental picture contributes to our self-esteem. Self-esteem covers many aspects but basically it is one's sense of self-worth, how valuable we think we are as a person.

Self-esteem is made up of the thoughts we have about ourselves and plays a role in almost everything we do. Having healthy self-esteem is really important as it helps you make positive choices in your everyday life, gives you the courage to be your own person, have good relationships and helps you deal with difficult situations. You can't touch it, but it affects how you feel....., you can't see it, but it's there when you look at yourself in the mirror....., you can't hear it, but it's there as a voice inside you..... this is your self-esteem.

Blyth et al. (1981) did a study to examine the effect of early pubertal maturation on self-image and self-esteem in boys. Results showed that early maturing boys have more positive body images and higher levels of self-esteem. Simmons and Blyth (1987) also studied the effect of puberty in boys of California. From the results it was found that early maturing boys have more self-confidence and popularity than the late maturing boys. Andersson and Magnusson (1986), Pulkkien (1990) examined the effect of pubertal maturation on traffic accidents and problem behaviour in adulthood. Results showed that late maturing boys tend to have more traffic accidents and other problem behaviours in adulthood, presumably related to attention seeking behaviour associated with late development in adolescence.

Bariaud et al. (1999) conducted a study to find out the effects of pubertal maturation on the self-image of adolescents. Results confirmed that the impact of pubertal maturation on self-image is qualitatively very different between two sexes. Jennifer et al. (2013) conducted a research on effects of age and pubertal development on longitudinal change in the neural bases of adolescent social self-evaluations. Results suggests that changes in social self-evaluations are intimately connected with biology not just peer contexts and provide important empirical support for the significant relationship between neuro-development, puberty and social functioning.

Carlo et al. (2012) designed a study to examine the roles of emotional reactivity, self-regulation, and pubertal timing in prosocial behaviours during adolescence. Participants were 850 sixth graders. Overall, the findings provide evidence for pubertal and temperament based predictors of prosocial behaviours expressed in different contexts. Effects of pubertal timing were found to interact with gender, such that boys who matured early showed the highest levels of prosocial behaviour at home concurrently.

2. Objective

The objective of this study was to examine the effect of pubertal maturation on self-esteem of adolescents.

3. Hypotheses

1. There will be significant effect of pubertal maturation on self-esteem of adolescents.
2. There will be significant difference in the self-esteem of male and female adolescents.

4. Experimental Design

The experimental design for this study was 3×2 factorial design. There were two independent variables and one dependent variable. The first independent variable was pubertal maturation that was varied at three levels i.e. early, mid and late. The second independent variable was gender that was varied at two levels male and female. The dependent variable was self-esteem.

5. Sample

The sample comprised of total 180 adolescents (V to IX class). There were three groups indicating three phases of pubertal maturation i.e. early, mid and late. In each group there were 60 subjects. Further in each group there were 30 male and 30 female.

6. Tools Used

The self-administered rating scale for pubertal development adapted from an instrument described in Peterson et al. (1988) was used for assessment of pubertal development. The scale has 5 items. Item no. 1 to 3 were related to primary sexual characteristics and 4 to 5 were related to secondary sexual characteristics. They were different for boys and girls.

Indian adaptation of Battle's Self-Esteem Inventory for Children (SEIC) by Kumar (1977) was used for the assessment of self-esteem. The reliability of this scale has been calculated by split-half and test retest methods and it is found highly

reliable. Content and concurrent validity has been calculated. Correlations for total sample ranged from .71 to .80, values for boys ranged from .72 to .84 for girls from .66 to .91.

7. Results

The objective of this study was to examine the impact of pubertal maturation on self-esteem of adolescents. For this purpose 3x2 factorial design was used. ANOVA and mean scores were calculated. ANOVA is shown in table-1. Mean scores are shown in table-2 and 3. To test the significance of mean differences; Newman-Keuls test is also used. The summary of results of Newman-Keuls is shown in table-4.

Table-1 : Summary of Analysis of Variance for Self-esteem

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F
A (Pubertal maturation)	208.67	2	104.34	3.29*
B (Gender)	200.56	1	200.56	6.33*
A × B (Pubertal maturation × Gender)	111.48	2	55.74	1.76
Within treatment (error)	5513.4	174	31.69	
Total	6034.11	179		

*F.95 (2,174) = 3.05

**F.95 (1,174) = 3.90

Analysis of variance table indicates that F value for factor A (2,174) =3.29, $P < .05$, which is significant.

Table-2 : Mean scores of Self-esteem for Factor A (Pubertal maturation) and factor B (Gender)

Factor A (Pubertal maturation)			Factor B (Gender)	
Early	Mid	Late	Male	Female
38.65	36.97	36.1	38.29	36.19

Table-3 : Mean scores of Self-esteem for the interaction of A × B (Pubertal maturation × Gender)

Factor-(B) Gender	Factor (A) Pubertal maturation		
	Early (A1)	Mid (A2)	Late (A3)
Male (B ₁)	38.67	38.30	37.90
Female (B ₂)	38.63	35.63	34.30

Table-4 : Summary table of Newman-Keuls test for mean comparisons for factor A (Pubertal maturation) on Self-esteem

Ordered Means	Ordered Means		
	Late (A3)	Mid (A2)	Early (A1)
	36.1	36.97	38.65
Late (A3) 36.1		0.87	2.55*
Mid (A2) 36.97			1.68

*Denotes significant at .05 level of confidence.

The inspection of table no-4 indicates that among three comparisons only one comparison (A3 and A1) is found significant at .05 level. Other comparisons A3 and A2, and A2 and A1 are not found significant. It means adolescents of late pubertal phase have low self-esteem in comparison of early pubertal phase adolescents. The computed F value for factor B is (1,174) =6.33, $P < .05$, which is significant. Mean table reveals that male adolescents have high self-esteem as compared to female adolescents. The computed F value for AxB is (2,174) = 1.76, $P > .05$, which is insignificant.

8. Discussion

Puberty is an important aspect and a challenging phase in everyone's life. Adolescents' experience changes in their physical state which is directly linked to the development of their all-round growth both at psychological and physiological level. Self-esteem encompasses beliefs and emotions such as despair, pride and shame. A person's self-esteem may be reflected in their behaviour such as assertiveness, shyness, confidence or caution. Thus self-esteem helps to shape an individual's feeling and worth of him/herself.

In the present research, it is found that pubertal maturation is an influencing factor for affecting the level of self-esteem. There exists significant difference between late pubertal phase and early pubertal phase. The empirical data suggests that subjects of late pubertal phase experience comparatively low self-esteem as compare to early pubertal phase. This suggests that as one ascends towards pubertal maturation the level of self-esteem decline. Hence hypothesis 1 that there will be significant effect of pubertal maturation on self-esteem of adolescents is accepted.

These findings are supported by various researches. Blyth et al. (1981) did a study to examine the effect of early pubertal maturation on self-image and self-esteem in boys. Results showed that early maturing boys have more positive body images and higher levels of self-esteem. Simmons and Blyth (1987) also studied the effect of puberty in boys of California. From the results it was found that early maturing boys have more self-confidence and popularity than the late

maturing boys. Jennifer et al. (2013) conducted a research on effects of age and pubertal development on longitudinal change in the neural bases of adolescent social self-evaluations. Results suggests that changes in social self-evaluations are intimately connected with biology not just peer contexts. Lewis et al. (2018) did a study to find out the association between pubertal status and depressive symptoms. Results indicate that girls at more advanced stages of breast development had more depressive symptoms than girls at lower stages of breast development.

In the present research it is also found that male adolescents have high self-esteem as compared to female adolescents. Hence hypothesis 2 that there will be significant difference in the self-esteem of male and female adolescents is accepted. This finding was supported by research conducted by MaOano, Ninot and Bilard (2004). They did a research to measure the effect of gender, age and their interaction on global self-esteem (GSE) and physical self-perception (physical self-worth PSW), physical condition (PC), physical strength (PS), attractive body (AB) and sport competence (SC) on French adolescents of 11 to 16 years. An age effect was found on GSE, PSW and AB and a gender effect was found on GSE and all physical self-perception scales. Brack, Orr and Ingersoll (2005) examined the relationships between self-esteem and age, gender and pubertal events on 135 adolescents. It was found that self-esteem was not related to age but correlated with intelligence. Females had significantly lower self-esteem than males.

9. Conclusion

The Paper shows that pubertal maturation significantly affects adolescents' self-esteem. Late pubertal phase adolescents have low self-esteem as compared to early pubertal phase adolescents. Male adolescents have high self-esteem as compared to female adolescents.

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How Open Learning Environment helped Developing Professional Competencies of Women in the Arab World : A Case Study

Siran Mukerji* and Purnendu Tripathi**

Educational development and capacity enhancement of women have been taking new dimensions in the Arab world by the initiatives taken by a University under reference in the present study and which was one of the branches established in one of the countries in the Middle East. The University has a system of coordinated open learning which was adopted for providing higher education to communities in Arab world in academic partnership with Open University UK. As a result of this collaboration, undergraduate programs were being offered in English Language and literature, IT and Computing and Business Administration. The University has been giving this segment of the society the much needed opportunity for making a career in specialized areas of IT and Business which have proved to be promising amongst other professions in the country of the Arab World. At the backdrop of this impressive scenario, it is pertinent to analyze the effectiveness of learning environment of the University towards intellectual empowerment of women. For this purpose, a set of 10 case studies on women students who have benefitted from the University towards their professional and social development has been prepared. The cases highlight applicability of learning environment in attaining professional expertise, the success of ODL as a platform for social mobility and development, and the role of ODL in reducing the social distance and considerably mitigating the constraints faced by the students in achieving intellectual capacity enhancement and social empowerment. The views of these empowered working women students were also sought for identifying the reasons for women dropout and ways for enhancing retention of

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students and how the University can be further instrumental in augmenting necessary skills for professional development.

[**Keywords** : Professional development, training, Competency enhancement, Open and distance learning, Academic partnership, Higher education, Intellectual empowerment]

1. Background

The present paper on role of Open Learning Environment in helping Women students to develop professional competencies is based on the case study of the women students enrolled and studying at an Open University in one of the countries in the Middle East. The University under reference was one of the branches established in one of the countries in the Middle East. The University has a system of coordinated open learning which was adopted for providing higher education to communities in Arab world in academic partnership with Open University UK. As a result of this collaboration, undergraduate programs were being offered in English Language and literature, IT and Computing and Business Administration.

2. Methodology

For the study, the selection of women students was done on the basis of a number of criteria. These were their programs of study, status of program completion, nationality, age group, family status, employment sector, service length and annual income. Based on these criteria, the women respondents were selected who either were working before joining the program or secured a placement while studying at University. Ten students were selected for preparing detailed case studies on their experiences with Open and Distance Learning (ODL) system and the University itself, professional life and social life. These students were subjected to a detailed structured questionnaire which had four main sections, namely, General Information, The University and ODL Mode, The University and Professional Development and The University and Social Development. This process was accomplished in two stages, first the students were sent the detailed questionnaire which they filled and sent back and second, they were subjected to telephonic interviews where these issues were discussed in detail.

3. Reasons for Student Dropout

During the study, feedback of women students was taken on the aspects of student dropout. Views of working women-students on student dropout and retention shows that students drop the courses or entire program due to language problem, difficulty in understanding and studying the courses or program, and not enough sessions for specialized courses. Other factors include financial constraint, lack of family support, at times professional constraints and sometimes dissatisfaction caused due to delay in the declaration of mid-term and final results.

It has been also attributed to increasing course fees, language problem since the first language of most of the students is not English, not much of understanding of the ODL system of managing ones studies and finally, most of the students are fresh from high schools who do not have the habit and practice of managing self-learning. However in the case of working women students, it was opined that money was not the problem, it was basically the quest for high grades and their inability to reach that level, that makes them to drop the course. Finally, it was also said that students' inability in managing the studies in English language, not taking the program seriously and then believing that the teacher should give all the inputs such as supplementary notes, summaries, question and answer etc prompted them to drop at a later stage of the program.

4. Select Case Studies

A total number of ten case studies had been prepared to focus on the role of the University in women empowerment and professional development. There were ten women students out of which six were in the age group of 21-30 years, three in 31-40 years and one less than 20 years. On marital status, six were married and four were unmarried. Eight students were studying undergraduate programme in Business Administration whereas one each were from IT and English program. Eight students were near completion of their program while other two were in the mid-way of studies. All the ten students were working professional in which half of the students were in the Middle Income group while the remaining half were in the upper middle income group. These students were belonging to different sectors such as cosmetic retail, health care, fast food industry, call center-tourism sector, charity and social welfare (for autistic children), readymade fashion garment retailing, social research center, school education, international non-governmental organization, and airline industry.

4.1 Case A

A 21 year old student, married with no children, motivated and encouraged by her father to join this program is presently in the mid-stage of Business degree. Besides, openness of her family, their desire to see her as a model woman in the society, self-dependent, able to understand and resolve one's own issues and not to be depending on husband and father were factors for her to pursue the program.

According to her, the ODL mode has helped her in planning the studies at her own place and pace which would not have been possible had she got enrolled in conventional mode. She strongly feels that studying here is more convenient because the programs are in English, cost-wise affordable as compared to other Universities, has flexibility, and does not require mandatory attendance, making it more attractive for working women.

From professional and competency development point of view, IT program was given preference by the women students because business programs are

available in other colleges and universities and in general companies prefer to employ men due to social restrictions except in separate female section in the company. However, students of IT can use the knowledge and skill in software development business at home. So IT was considered to be more suitable for pursuing a profession in Saudi Arabia.

Studying at the University has improved her computer skills, English communication, and have professional approach by applying the business skills at work thus making her self dependent. Unable to comment on career progression as she had recently joined the organization, she now enjoys better status in the society and feels empowered, more mature and proud of her awareness, and can guide and help other women friends and relatives. She does not feel much of a constraint in managing both together except during exams which she manages with family support. She is also admired in her family, able to look at the society in a different way with a better understanding of the social issues. So she is better positioned to guide her children in the future since she values and understands the importance of higher studies.

4.2 Case B

The student with non Arab nationality and about to complete Business program was working as an assistant teacher in an International School. Her father is instrumental in her success. ODL mode and Learning Management System (LMS) is convenient for planning studies and in interacting with group members and tutors and it is the reason for gradual increase in women enrolment in the University. She feels Business program is more suitable for seeking employment in country because its necessary components are suited to the requirements for jobs in Bank, airlines company, etc for women. The ODL mode has helped her to manage so many things simultaneously apart from coping with the changing curriculum in the school. She also has more awareness about business organizations and corporate life then her colleagues so she feels more privileged.

Studying and working simultaneously makes her feel empowered and her other lady colleagues realize that she is better equipped professionally and competent to handle issues of work life. She considers herself as a role model for others in the society and is now encouraging others to enrol in programs that are suited to their professional needs. The constraints being shortage of time and local mobility still she is determined to complete her program due to the much needed skill and knowledge. She is helping and guiding her brothers and sisters who feel she is better equipped now with all the knowledge since she is in a professional program. She now has the power to adapt to change and she can make a career in business organizations which she perceived was only a male bastion earlier. Thus, she strongly believes that the University and its program have helped to reduce the social distance felt earlier.

4.3 Case C

The student with Arab nationality in the age group of 31 to 40 years, was about to complete the Business degree. In addition to the responsibilities of family and her studies, she was actively working as Project Coordinator at UNDP and is financially independent. She was positive about ODL because this facilitated her to realize her dream of getting a university degree. She remained in touch with the course group thus felt togetherness and this is one of the prime reasons for the increase of female enrolment. But to her LMS is not a platform for competence development. When it comes to selecting a particular program more suited to employment, she feels that new job openings and avenues for women employment are emerging, therefore all the three programs are equally important to meet the competitive arena of women employment.

However, this study has not really helped her in getting job but it provided her in-depth understanding of business studies and an organization and she is now more competent at her work place, so it was this upgraded knowledge at the University and her earlier experience which made her successful professionally. She now looks at things with a more open, proactive and different perspectives and can give her views with an academic approach. Besides, it gives her a good public image and competitive feeling for better communication skill and British degree. So she feels she is a role model for others and she intends to help them to think differently. Due to flexible time, online availability of material, interaction with the tutors and ability to coordinate course activities, she is determined to complete her program, although her career progression depends on number of years of work experience which is equated with the degree so she gets equal benefits either way.

Main constraints are managing time and balancing work with family but her husband's motivation and support all throughout has enabled her to continue studying. She now feels empowered and admired in her family for her efficient multi-tasking roles, as she is doing something for herself instead of always looking after other's requirements and making them happy. She strongly believes that the University has been effectively contributing to reducing the social distance experienced by women earlier in the family and the society as a whole.

4.4 Case D

The student of non-Arabic nationality was about to complete her Business degree, derived motivation from outside her family but now her father and brother provide her support due to their real life experience. They are also proud and admire her for her efforts, responsiveness and confidence. Planning to pursue master's in Business, presently she is gaining on-the-job experience by working as a management trainee in local airline, earning a decent honorarium. LMS has been helpful to plan and manage her studies according to her convenience. But now she faces certain constraints managing both the tasks simultaneously such as inability to get leave from her office, hardly anytime to study and too much of professional

commitments. According to her, flexibility and convenience of ODL and LMS helped rise in enrolment. However it is business and IT programs which have more job potential. She has not got the job due to this degree but once in the organization, it did assist in getting a decent emolument. She now has enhanced acceptability in the company due to her professional skills but she is still to sense feeling of pride, fulfilment and empowerment.

All in all, she feels that this method of self-learning has instilled much confidence in her and she understands the value of higher studies which will help her to guide her children also in the future. Having to manage studies and work has indeed changed her perspective towards herself and the society making her more responsible, self-dependent and better equipped. So the ODL mode in the University, according to her has been effective in reducing the social distance experienced by women in this country.

4.5 Case E

The student with Arabic background was about to complete English program. She too is managing dual responsibility of studying and working as Product Trainer in local corporate organisation. Since her parents could not complete their studies when young so they were eager to get their daughter enrolled in the University and AOU was an opportunity and a dream come true for both father and daughter. ODL did not necessitate her to attend classes regularly so she could manage work and studies simultaneously. Moreover, when she missed a class, she could manage by self-learning and support from tutors and peer group through LMS. But LMS for her is only for studies and not for competency enhancement or professional development.

According to her, the University has seen rapid growth in enrolment because of inability of expatriate children to enrol in the local universities except private and expensive and due to greater awakening on benefits of ODL system. Though in English program but she strongly feels there is more employment potential for business program, nonetheless, with a degree in English, one can get a decent job in school, but for better emoluments, a diploma in education is essential. She got a decent job by studying here and it has improved her communication and public relations skill and increased her awareness. But her career progression remains unaffected as the nature of job (product marketing) and the degree have no relation, so a business degree would have been more relevant for her career.

Nevertheless, she feels privileged, self-dependent and empowered managing both the tasks together. Now she considers herself role model for others and at home who look upon her as their guide for their studies and even otherwise. She would be able to provide better guidance and parentage to her children also due to higher education and her husband is supporting and helping her in her endeavours.

4.6 Case F

Middle aged highly ambitious unmarried with Arabic background was doing her BSc IT and winner of True Explorer Award in the female section and working as system administrator in Social Development organisation , but being provided all the facilities, sponsorship for studies in the University and motivation to upgrade her skills. According to her, IT is the most sought after program as there is need for women IT professionals in the country. Having relevant knowledge with this program will help her in career progression. Initially she it was difficult to manage studies and work leading to confusion however now she manages well with e-learning, student forum and tutor group forum of LMS.

In her opinion, recent increase in enrolment is due to high cut off percentage in government universities and inability of expatriate children to get admission there. The University with ODL system has certainly helped her to perform better in her life and now she can provide guidance to younger generation however not yet a role model for others as she has a lot to achieve in life. Initially her family was unable to understand her and they used to say “when you pay you get the degree so why work so hard” and now they respect her for what she does and congratulate her when she gets good grades. Her perspectives towards the society have changed!

4.7 Case G

Middle aged married with Arabic background, the student was studying Business, with 12 years work experience, in a leading readymade fashion retailing company, Initiated by her husband three years back, now her course is near completion. Flexible delivery of program helped her to opt for Business Course while continuing with work and she opines that online LMS helps to overcome isolation and gives opportunity for frequent interaction with peer group and teachers. There are difficulties also attached such as mismatch of level of program with that of students, difficult course contents and less time for completing the course material and finally, difference in language of instruction and language of communication.

Although this student was in service before joining the University but it helped her to be placed in a decent and challenging job by being more creative, computer savvy, improved communication and to be able to apply the knowledge gained at work. The University certification would help this student in her career progression. She feels privileged and empowered while studying at the University due to improved level of self confidence and now considers herself as role model for developing other women. She helps and motivates other women to enrol in professional programs of the University so that they too can improve their professional prospects in the event of any social-economic challenging situations. She thinks that these programs with flexible mode of delivery not only make it convenient to study but also help in enhancing awareness. So the University as a

whole has been quite effective in reducing the social distance experienced by women. She now looks forward to completing this program and then enrolling for masters program in business management.

4.8 Case H

A middle aged with Arabian background, the student had been working in the hospital of the Armed Forces since last seven years and was studying undergraduate programmes in the business administration at the University. ODL has been helpful in her studies and LMS has enhanced her competency. She has also been able to apply the skills learnt and knowledge gained in her work. Though her job responsibilities are very demanding but she tries to manage both studies and her work, making her more competent and empowered to guide other women in their professional development.

She too feels that increase in enrolment is due to the in-born flexibility in the system and business program can cover the general job requirements of most organizations such as banks, hospitals and other companies. Since studying at the University needs hard work, concentration and self-learning skills so she feels only those women should enrol for this program who are prepared to devote their time and energy to studies and are seriously committed to the system.

4.9 Case I

Another case of young unmarried girl completing her Business program and working as executive administrator in one of the fast food chains in the middle east. The support of her parents and fiancé, flexibility in open system, LMS and student forum have enabled her to continue her studies which otherwise was not possible. She did not realise the importance of doing this program till she appeared for the job interview when she felt more confident, with more insight on business world and functions, thus proud of herself. She even got 30% more higher salary in this assignment as compared to the previous one. She too agrees that increase in female enrolment over the years can be attributed to ODL system and business program is more suited to the job requirements of the Kingdom which needs more women professionals.

She now strongly believes in herself and is an example for her friends and relatives who derive motivation from her for pursuing further studies. Her family is now proud of her, accept and respect her decisions and consider her their asset, giving her a feeling that AOU has been extremely effective as an ODL platform for providing access and equity to education and helping in the professional development of women.

4.10 Case J

A call center manager, looking after the female tourism center project in Training and Education Group, married with more than two children and about to

complete Business program. She credits the ODL system for all that she has been able to achieve so far in professionally and being able to manage multi-tasking simultaneously but this degree would help her in career progression only when she completes it successfully. She believes in herself now being more self-confident and able to sort out her issues better so has a feeling of being privileged and empowered, thus acting as an example for other women to resume their studies and get employment. All this she has been able to manage with the support from her husband and organization. She has a different perspective towards life, valuing and realising the importance of higher education and thus having a feeling of being better positioned to educate her children, manage her profession and be more successful in her life. So the University, according to her has been effective in contributing to professional development of women.

5. Suggestions and Conclusion

In the background of the cases studied and the deliberations held, the suggestions have been put forth as follows:

5.1 Enhancing Student Retention

1. Can be improved if the University facilitates in placement once they complete the program and acting as facilitator to get internship or part time jobs so as to help them imbibe and improve professional skills.
2. Retention can be ensured if the learning environment and course content is related with the real life environment and the role of student association and council is enhanced and made more visible.
3. Conduct orientation sessions on ODL system and ways of managing self-learning before giving admission, this could be either online (university website) or with the help of academic counsellors.
4. Since at the initial level the mode of delivery is new for the students who are mostly from Arabic school background and they need a lot of skills to manage the learning process, perhaps being a more supportive and objective in performance evaluation at this level would motivate them to continue the program however from the second year onwards the evaluation process should be as per the requirement of the course.
5. Intensive training on English verbal and written communication should be given. Theory/concepts should be linked with the practical application i.e. students should be sponsored by the university for short term summer training for hands on experience.
6. The University should develop at Branch level/regional level area specific case studies/reference material on organizations of Middle East/ Arab world so that the students are able to understand and link the concepts of the text books with the local perspective.

5.2 Measures for Enhancing Necessary Skills for Professional Development:

1. Organize short term programs on business communication skills, personality and self development, CV writing and interview skills and confidence building to orient the girls in the final stage of program and would be taking up employment at this stage or after completion of the program.
2. The University can certainly contribute in professional development of women by conducting short term programs on translation and basic health care course like first aid course, managing small business, entrepreneurship, banking, finance and accounts etc. which would increase job options.
3. In final year all the women students should be asked to make a project by applying their course on aspects related to community relations, besides short term training programs on confidence building and personality development also be conducted.

On the basis of the study conducted and discussions with the students who are also professionals, one can conclude that the University has been quite effective in reaching the different segments of the society and in providing them opportunities for learning and enhancing their knowledge. It has contributed towards professional development and competency enhancement of women in the country. However, it needs to improve upon the present system so as to provide a better platform for augmenting access to life long learning for professional and social development of women.

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Music as a Panacea for Work Stress and Productivity

*Ruchi Sharma**

Work related stress has become omnipresent these days due to competitive economies and lifestyle. The biggest problem is that it has started taking a toll on the physical and psychological well-being of the individual and when it becomes unsustainable it starts affecting the productivity of the individual and compositely of the organization and economy as a whole. There has been a large number of studies to identify that how music can be used as a stress buster and tool of increasing productivity. The present study is a modest attempt to identify as to which type of music familiar or imposed and at what time and during which activity has the maximum benefit in reducing stress, increasing cognitive capabilities and productivity of the organization.

[Keywords : Music, Work stress, Productivity]

1. Introduction

In the ever-changing competitive global environment everybody irrespective of his occupation whether he is into business, job or a self-employed professional has suffered work related stress at some point of time or the other. Work related stress when it is within the permissible limits in accordance with the capacity of individual to whom it is subjected might lead to positive results as it tends to improve efficiency but when work stress becomes chronic and beyond the power of the handler it can become harmful to both physical and emotional health of the individual. A stressful work environment can contribute to problems such as headache, stomachache, sleep disturbances, short temper and difficulty in

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concentrating. Chronic stress can result in anxiety, insomnia, high blood pressure and a weakened immune system. It can also contribute to health conditions such as depression, obesity and heart disease. Compounding the problem, people who experience excessive stress often deal with it in unhealthy ways such as overeating, eating unhealthy foods, smoking cigarettes or abusing drugs and alcohol. These disturbances ultimately take a toll on the work performance and productivity of the individual. Inability to perform as per the requirements leads to poor job satisfaction and thereby increasing the work related stress even more.

Work stress can be due to a varied reasons which include lack of cooperation in the hierarchy of work, poor working environment physically, inappropriate working hours, lack of work life balance, pressure of meeting impossible deadlines, lack of control and operational freedom in work place, poor remuneration policies, fear of being laid off etc.

If stress on the job is interfering with your work performance, health, or personal life, it's time to take action. No matter what you do for a living, or how stressful your job is, there are plenty of things you can do to reduce your overall stress levels and regain a sense of control at work. Stress was earlier conceived of as pressure from the environment, then as strain within the person. The generally accepted definition today is one of interaction between the situation and the individual. It is the psychological and physical state that results when the resources of the individual are not sufficient to cope with the demands and pressures of the situation. Thus, stress is more likely in some situations than others and in some individuals than others. Stress can undermine the achievement of goals, both for individuals and for organization. Acute responses to stress may be in the areas of feelings (for example, anxiety, depression, irritability, fatigue), behaviour (for example, being withdrawn, aggressive, tearful, unmotivated), thinking (for example, difficulties of concentration and problem solving) or physical symptoms (for example, palpitations, nausea, headaches). If stress persists, there are changes in neuro-endocrine, cardiovascular, autonomic and immunological functioning, leading to mental and physical ill health (for example anxiety, depression, heart disease). Among the work related symptoms include accidents, absenteeism, employee turnover, diminished productivity, direct medical, legal and insurance costs and litigation costs. Job stress is costly both for individual and organization and ultimately to the economy as a whole.

To reduce this implicit and explicit cost associated with the work stress there is a dire need of reducing the stress and finding ways that people get used to it and they cope with it better way so that stress is reduced and productivity is enhanced. The various ways in which stress can be made positive and bearable include improving various formal and informal communication channels, meditation classes, paid time off, encourage employees to take break, diversions in office, flexible work schedules, act rather than react, reset the panic button and off course foremost music during work, breaks and while commuting to office can be a stress

buster. Listening to music can have a tremendously relaxing effect on our minds and bodies, especially slow, quiet classical music. This type of music can have a beneficial effect on our physiological functions, slowing the pulse and heart rate, lowering blood pressure, and decreasing the levels of stress hormones. Music, in short, can act as a powerful stress management tool in our lives. As music can absorb our attention, it acts as a distraction at the same time it helps to explore emotions. This means it can be a great aid to meditation, helping to prevent the mind wandering.

2. Music, Work Stress and Productivity

Music can be used to treat illness and can bring in the much needed delicate balance between mind and body. Music improves mind and body's coordination, reduce stress and anxiety, can reduce sensation of pain, relieve depression, improve mood. Because music has the potential to influence us both psychologically and physiologically, it is an important area of therapy for stress management. Music therapy can make use of biofeedback, guided imagery, and other established techniques to play an important role in the treatment of people with stress-related disorders. But due to the dramatic effects music can have, a trained and knowledgeable music therapist always is required. Music may help people to identify and express the feelings associated with their stress. According to various researches on the matter of stress and music important findings include that it is soothing, improves ability to focus, makes positive, block distractions, create variations, lifts energy and makes time pass easily.

Identifying the relevance of the music in reducing work stress and productivity the present study seeks to identify and reaffirm that music can be a powerful tool in reducing work stress. Through a questionnaire specifically framed to identify the people suffering from work stress and recording their responses to various queries we wish to identify that whether music really reduces stress and if at all it does what type of music familiar or unfamiliar and the timing and state in which it helps or negates. Does music at work place improve cognitive function or it distracts is another area of study. As compared to other methods of stress reduction and boosting productivity greatest benefit of music is that it can be used with regular activities so that it does not take time from busy schedule.

The questionnaire on queries related to work stress, music being familiar and unfamiliar, during office hours, while commuting to office and after that was framed and was given to a wide variety of participants that include people in job, self-employed, professionals and business men. In that to the variety of jobs and businesses was quiet segregated and was of different variety ranging from teachers to people working incorporates. The methodology adopted was through online questionnaire using google forms for recording response of the participants.

The composite and question wise analysis of the questionnaire recording the findings of the study reveal as under :

1. Among the total number of participants 81.9% agreed that they suffer from work related stress, 10.5% said that they don't while 7.6% had no say on the matter. Thus a major bulk of participants from different areas of functioning and nature suffer from work related stress.
2. When asked that the stress that you are subjected to at work is a positive stress leading to more energy and motivation 28.6% agreed that it is positive, 58.1% found it negative and 13.3% had no say on the matter. Thus a major bulk of the respondent believe that they suffer from stress and that is negative for them.
3. When asked whether you suffer from negative stress that makes you physically and emotionally exhausted 57.1% agreed, 21% disagreed and 21.9% had no say on the matter. Thus after going through the result of the responses of the previous two questions and response to this one it is clear that major chunk of respondents suffer from stress and that is a negative stress and it is taking a toll on their physical and emotional health.
4. When asked that whether you suffer from physical symptoms of stress like fatigue, headache, insomnia or gastrointestinal upset the response was also alarming and around 50.5% of them said that they suffer from these symptoms, 34.3% said no and 15.2% had no say in the matter. Thus suffering from negative stress bulk of the respondents were even having symptoms of physical and emotional stress taking a toll on their physical health.
5. When asked do you suffer from psychological symptoms like anxiety, discouragement, irritability, pessimism the results were even more alarming as 56.2% of them were agreeing to suffer from these psychological symptoms of ill health, 33.3% disagreed and 10.5% had no say on the matter. Thus negative stress was not only taking a toll on physical health it was more affecting the psychological health.
6. When asked that do you suffer from behavioural stress symptoms like increased sick days, aggression, mood swings, disinterest, isolation 43.8% agreed that they even suffer from these aggressive symptoms due to negative work stress, 42.9% disagreed and 13.3 had no say. behavioural stress symptoms usually occur in acute stages and uncontrollable stress parameters.
7. When asked being aesthetically profound and emotionally enriching music can be a remedy to negative effects of work stress in such a sizeable work stress relating population of respondents 66.7% of the respondents agreed music in general can be a remedy of stress reduction, 14.3% disagreed and 19% had no say on the matter.
8. When asked on way to work familiar music helps in reducing work related stress and its symptoms the 74.3% agreed that while commuting to office familiar well known music does reduce stress and its symptoms, 13.3%

- disagreed and 12.4% had no say in the matter. Thus familiar music while commuting to office helps in stress reduction.
9. When asked on way to work unfamiliar/imposed music helps in reducing work related stress and its symptoms the 40% agreed, 26.7% disagreed and 33.3% had no say in the matter. Thus while unfamiliar music also helps in stress reduction the sharp change in % as compared to familiar music question reveals that it is more the music of choice/familiar that bring solace and stress reduction as compared to unfamiliar one.
 10. When asked about familiar music in office reduces stress, provides break from work and creates space for reflection again the response was overwhelming and 67.6% agreed, 10.5% disagreed and 21.9% had no say in the matter. Just like the previous familiar music query this one also proves that in office and during breaks also familiar music relieves work stress.
 11. When asked about unfamiliar/imposed music in office reduce stress and its symptoms 30.8% agreed, 32.7% disagreed and 36.5% had no say on the matter. Thus a very less percentage of people as compared to those who said familiar music reduces stress during office time and breaks believed unfamiliar or imposed music is stress relieving. Highest number of people in this query had no say in the matter which signifies that they could not say whether it is beneficial or not.
 12. When asked whether familiar or imposed both music during office hours are a source of distraction and increase stress and its symptoms 31.7% of them agreed with the issue, 41.3% disagreed and 26.9% had no say in the matter. Again reaffirming that music does have a positive effect on the reduction of work related stress the benefit of which is more in the case of familiar as compared to imposed music.
 13. When asked about familiar music listening during office breaks and while on way back home can be stress buster again a large percentage of participants 69.2% believed that it does reduce stress and its symptoms, 16.3% did not agree and 14.4% had no say in the matter. This again points that two things are more essential for music to give positive effects in stress reduction that music should be familiar and its listening time should be out of office hours either in breaks or while commuting to office.
 14. When asked unfamiliar/imposed music listening during office breaks and while on way back home can be stress buster 30.8 agreed, 40.4% disagreed and 28.8% had no say in the matter. This points that unfamiliar music does not have the same effect as that of familiar music.
 15. When asked whether music listening while way to work, during the work, during breaks and while on way home can boost productivity a high percentage of participants 65% believed yes music has the ability of increasing the productivity as it also has stress reducing properties, 14.6% of them disagreed and 20.4% had no say in the matter.

16. When asked about musical workshops in staff induction and subsequently makes staff culturally literate and enhance cognitive performance abilities 62.5% agreed that music during induction and subsequently can make staff culturally literate and sensitive there enhancing cognitive performance abilities and productivity, 9.6% disagreed and 27.9% of them had no say in this matter.
17. When asked that as compared to other methods of stress reduction and boosting productivity greatest benefit of music is that it can be used with regular activities so that it does not take time from busy schedule 72.5% agreed that as compared to other stress reducing technique's and boosting productivity music is the best as it requires no extra time in the effort and can be judiciously combined with other activities, 11.8% of them said no and 15.7% had no say in the matter.

3. Conclusion

Through the analysis of the responses of the questionnaire it is concluded that a large part of the participants were suffering from work related stress. The stress according to them was largely negative in nature and it was giving them stress symptoms both physical and psychological in nature. The impact of this stress was also evident in their behaviour as they were unable to cope with it. Their response to multiple queries reflected that overall music does have a stress reducing and productivity increasing property but when it comes to in-depth analysis we found that the benefit of things was more when familiar music was heard during commuting to office and during office breaks which was not same during office hours. Unfamiliar/ Imposed music also had a positive effect but that was a meager percentage as compared to the familiar one. This again is reflecting that as stress in playing on them anything familiar has more soothing effect as compared to imposed one as they are already coping with imposed stress. One more thing comes out from the study that to boost productivity, to enhance cognitive capabilities and to make staff more culturally literate musical workshops in staff induction programs and subsequently can play an important role.

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Questionnaire

Q1. Do you feel that you suffer from work related stress?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q2. Stress that you are subjected to at work is a positive stress leading to more energy and motivation?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q3. You suffer from negative stress that makes you physically and emotionally exhausted?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q4. You suffer from physical symptoms of stress like fatigue, headache, insomnia or gastrointestinal upset?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q5. You suffer from psychological symptoms like anxiety, discouragement, irritability, pessimism?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q6. You suffer from behavioural stress symptoms like increased sick days, aggression, mood swings, disinterest, isolation?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q7. Being aesthetically profound and emotionally enriching music can be a remedy to negative effects of work stress?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q8. On way to work familiar music helps in reducing work related stress and its symptoms?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q9. On way to work unfamiliar/imposed music helps in reducing work related stress and its symptoms?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q10. Familiar music in office reduces stress, provides break from work and creates space for reflection?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q11. Unfamiliar/imposed music in office reduce stress and its symptoms?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q12. Familiar or Imposed both music during office hours are a source of distraction and increase stress and its symptoms?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q13. Familiar music listening during office breaks and while on way back home can be stress buster?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q14. Unfamiliar/Imposed music listening during office breaks and while on way back home can be stress buster?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q15. Music listening while way to work, during the work, during breaks and while on way home can boost productivity?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q16. Musical workshops in staff induction and subsequently makes staff culturally literate and enhance cognitive performance abilities?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

Q17. As compared to other methods of stress reduction and boosting productivity greatest benefit of music is that it can be used with regular activities so that it does not take time from busy schedule?

Agreed Disagreed Can't say

★

A Study on NPAs of selected Private Sector Banks in India

Manojkumar T. Rathod*

India is the fifth biggest economy of the world. There are many Public Sector Banks, Private Sector Banks and Foreign Banks are working as a part of Indian financial system. Banking sector plays an important role in the development of a nation. It provides many important services to the industries. There is a risk of NPA in providing loan and advances to the customers. NPAs are a major concern for the banking sector in India. The amounts of Non-Performing Assets are increasing year by year. It is a major issue for RBI and banking sector in India. The researcher tried to study the trend and level of NPAs in private sector banks in India for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18 and found that the level of NPA in selected private sector banks are increasing constantly.

[Keywords : Economy, Bank, Non-performing assets, Loan, Performance]

1. Introduction

India is a very fast developing country. Different sectors like agriculture, industry, infrastructure, education and health needs finance in a huge amount. It is necessary for the development of a nation. Banking industry can play a vital role in this regard. A sound financial system of a nation provides necessary funds to the different sectors and help them to develop themselves and also helps for the development of a nation. Indian banking sector contains public sector banks, private sector banks, foreign banks and non-banking finance companies. There are many private sector banks in India and they hold control on approximately 30% to 40% business of banks in India. Liberalization and Privatization policy of Indian

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Government opens the door for foreign banks and private banks in India. Private sector banks of India are becoming more and more customer friendly. They are providing loan and advances very easily to the customers for various purposes. These kind of business creates risk of bad debts.

2. Meaning of NPA

The full form of NPA is Non-Performing Assets. If a bank or a financial company fails to recover its money from debtors, that amount will be called Non-Performing Assets. It is a one kind of loss for the banks. Banks does not get back the principal amount and due interest on its loans and advances on due dates. Generally, the period of NPA is 90 days. If a borrower fails in paid up the instalment of principal amount and interest of loan in 90 days, that amount will be treated as NPA by bank. These kind of assets perform nothing for the banks. That's why it is called Non-Performing Assets.

3. Review of Literature

To know about the previous research done in this field the researcher has studied some research papers and articles on this topic.

Avneet Kaur (2012) studied the performance of selected Public Sector Banks in India in his research paper titled 'An Empirical Study on the Performance Evaluation of Public Sector Banks in India'. He tried to study the pattern of income and expenditure of Public Sector Banks in India for the period of 2000 to 2010. He also tried to analyze the Non-Performing Assets of Public Sector Banks in this research paper and find out that there is no significant difference between the growth rates, total income and net profit of Public Sector Banks in India.

Cheenu Goel and Chitwan Bhutani Rekhi (2013) examine the relationship among banks equity, assets and deposits size to profitability in their research paper 'A Comparative Study on the Performance of Selected Public Sector and Private Sector Banks in India'. He studied the profitability of selected public sector banks and also studied the factors that affected to profit earning of banks. They used different ratios and coefficient correlation for data analysis and concluded that credit deposit ratio and saving deposits have a high degree of positive association return on equity, capital adequacy ratio, time deposit is positively associated with net profit and net interest income and credit deposit ratio are negatively associated with net profit.

Gour Bandyopadhyay (2013) studied NPA levels of selected banks in his research paper 'Modeling NPA Time Series Data in selected Public Sector Banks in India with semi parametric approach'. In this paper, penalized spline, a very popular semi parametric technique has been fitted to GNPA data sets for six selected PSBs and it has been observed that these semi parametric models are very much relevant and useful as it enhances the precision level of the models in respect

of parameter GNPA in six selected PSBs in India. The study finds that NPA in PSB in India can be adequately captured by semi-parametric regression.

Sulagna Das and Abhijit Dutta (2014) compared the NPAs of Public Sector Banks in India for the year 2008 to 2013 in their research paper 'A study on NPAs of Public Sector Banks in India'. At the end of their research, they find out that there is a significant mean variation between the NPAs of Public Sector Banks during the study period.

4. Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study are as under :

1. To find out the trends of Non-Performing Assets of selected private Sector Banks in India.
2. To compare the Non-Performing Assets of selected private Sector Banks in India.

5. Research Methodology

5.1 Sample

There are 21 Private Sector Banks doing their business in India. The researcher has selected 5 Private Sector Banks in India as a sample for this study.

The lists of selected banks are as :

1. Kotak Mahindra Bank
2. Axis Bank Ltd.
3. HDFC
4. ICICI
5. DCB

5.2 Data Collection

The present study is purely depending on secondary data. It needs financial data of selected banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18. Required secondary data have been taken from the annual reports of selected private sector banks. The researcher also referred the websites of various banks. Moreover, many research papers, articles and newspapers are also referred for the present study.

6. Presentation and Interpretation of Data

The following table shows the details about the Gross NPAs of selected private sector banks in India from 2012-13 to 2017-18 on next page. On the basis of data contained in this table, we can say that the percentage of Gross NPA is increasing constantly from the year 2012-13 to 2017-18. The Non-Performing Assets of private sector banks are increasing year by year. HDFC Bank has

the lowest level of NPAs and ICICI bank has the highest level of NPAs among all of the selected five private sector banks. It shows the finest performance of HDFC bank and bad performance of ICICI bank in the area of NPA management.

Table-1 : Percentage of Gross NPA

Bank	Year					
	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Kotak Mahindra Bank	1.55	1.98	1.85	2.36	2.59	2.22
Axis Bank	1.06	1.22	1.34	1.67	5.04	6.77
HDFC	0.97	1.0	0.90	0.94	1.05	1.30
ICICI	3.22	3.03	3.78	5.21	7.89	8.84
DCB	3.18	1.69	1.76	1.51	1.59	1.79

Source : Annual reports of selected Private Sector Banks

The following chart shows the trend of Gross NPA of Private Sector Banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18.

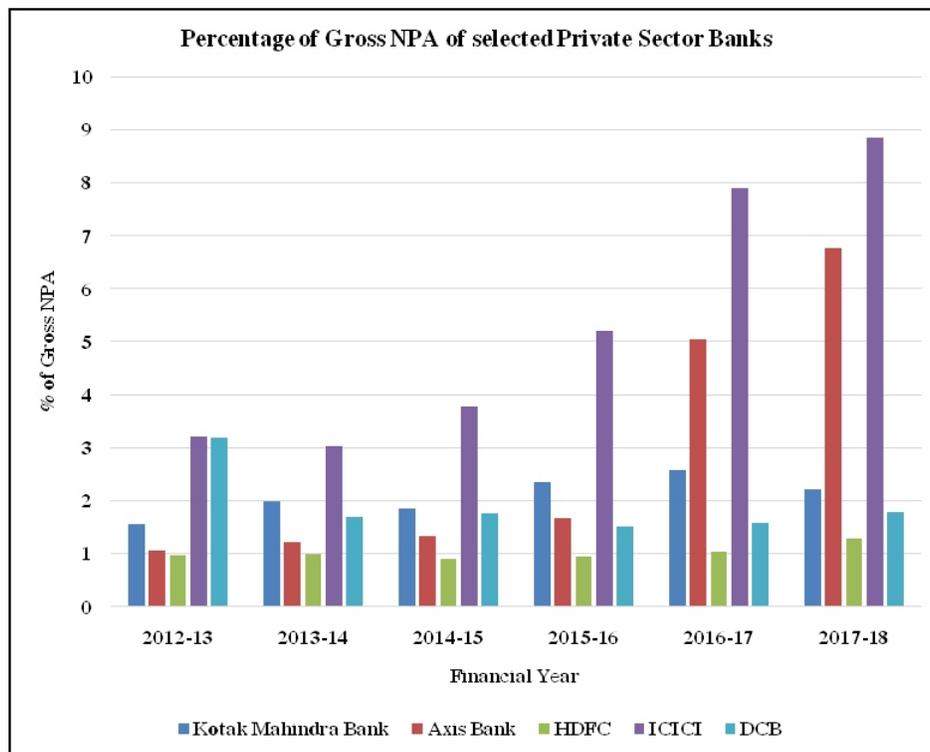
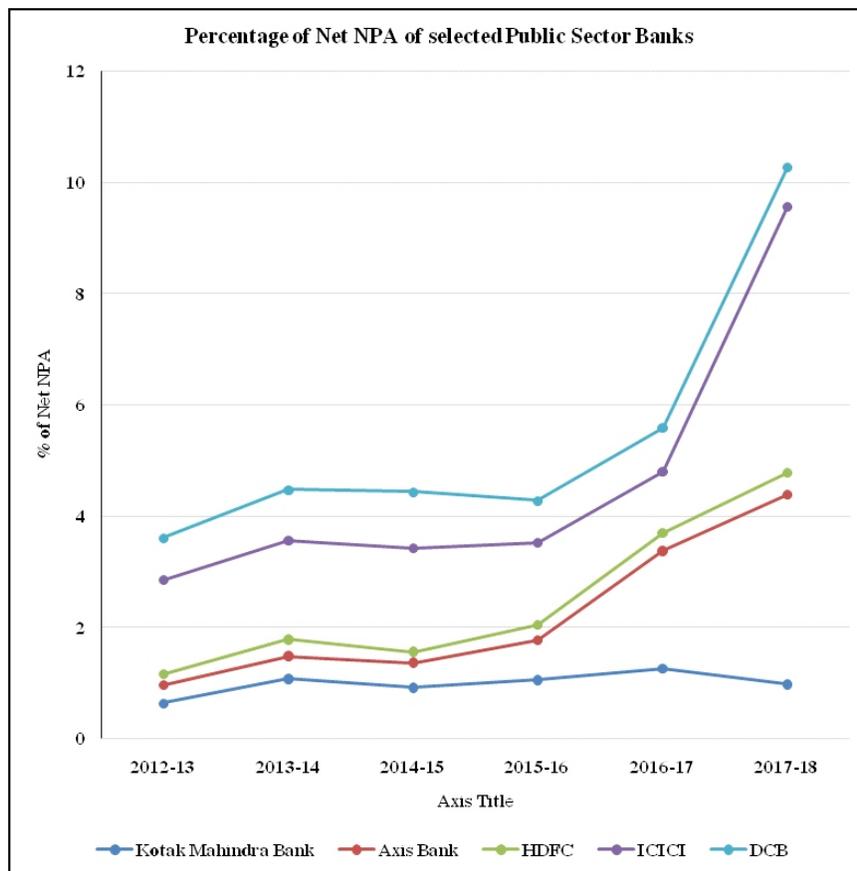


Table-2 shows the details about the Net NPAs of selected private sector banks in India from 2012-13 to 2017-18 on next page. From this table we can say that the Kotak Mahindra Bank, HDFC Bank and DCB bank performed very well in the management of Net NPA. All the above three banks Net NPA ratio is less than 1. It is a good sign for private sector banks in India. It provides motivation to other banks in India to maintain their NPA levels.

Table-2 : Percentage of Net NPA

Bank	Year					
	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Kotak Mahindra Bank	0.64	1.08	0.92	1.06	1.26	0.98
Axis Bank	0.32	0.40	0.44	0.70	2.11	3.40
HDFC	0.20	0.30	0.20	0.28	0.33	0.40
ICICI	1.70	1.78	1.86	1.49	1.10	4.77
DCB	0.75	0.91	1.01	0.75	0.79	0.72

Source : Annual reports of selected Private Sector Banks



7. Testing of Hypothesis

The researcher makes two null Hypotheses for compare the Gross and Net NPA of selected Private sector banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18.

1. H_0 : There is no important difference in the Gross NPA ratio of selected Private Sector Banks.

The researcher uses one factor ANOVA test for testing the above hypothesis and the result of the test are shown in Table-3 on next page.

Table-3 : One factor ANOVA

Mean	n	Std. Dev	
1.996	5	1.1211	2012-13
1.784	5	0.7957	2013-14
1.926	5	1.1030	2014-15
2.338	5	1.6834	2015-16
3.632	5	2.8300	2016-17
4.184	5	3.4012	2017-18
2.643	30	2.0980	Total

ANOVA table

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Treatment	25.5820	5	5.11641	1.20	.3376
Error	102.0690	24	4.25288		
Total	127.6511	29			

The above statistical results of ANOVA test indicate that the p value (0.3376) is greater than the significance level 0.05. Therefore, we are failing to reject the null hypothesis. It means there is no important difference in the gross NPA ratio of selected private sector banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18.

2. H_0 : There is no important difference in the Net NPA ratio of selected Private Sector Banks.

The researcher uses one factor ANOVA test for testing the above hypothesis and the result of the test are as under:

Table-4 : One factor ANOVA

Mean	n	Std. Dev	
0.722	5	0.5912	2012-13
0.894	5	0.5951	2013-14
0.886	5	0.6393	2014-15
0.856	5	0.4503	2015-16
1.118	5	0.6582	2016-17
2.054	5	1.9272	2017-18
1.088	30	0.9800	Total

ANOVA table

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Treatment	6.0014	5	1.20028	1.32	.2898
Error	21.8506	24	0.91044		
Total	27.8520	29			

The statistical results of ANOVA test indicate that the p value (0.2898) is greater than the significance level 0.05. Therefore, we are failing to reject the null hypothesis. It means there is no important difference in the net NPA ratio of selected private sector banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18.

8. Conclusion

Results of the present study clearly show the increasing level of NPAs in private sector banks in India. The increasing level of NPAs is not a good sign for banking sector and Indian economy. Both charts included in the study shows the trend of increase in NPAs in selected Private Sector Banks for the year 2012-13 to 2017-18. Banks has to take necessary actions to decreasing the size of NPAs. All the five selected private sector banks NPA amount is increasing year by year. The present study shows the lowest position of ICICI bank in the management of NPA among the selected private sector banks. HDFC Banks performed very well in the management of NPA. Private sector banks are providing good and latest services to the customers. They are now becoming customer friendly and trusted banks in India. They must maintain higher standards regarding NPA level and provide loans and advances only after proper investigation of borrowers.

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Cropping Pattern in Punjab : A District-wise Analysis

Manpreet Kaur*

Cropping pattern means the proportion of area under various crops at a point of time. Cropping pattern is, however, a dynamic concept as it changes over space and time. The cropping patterns of a region are closely influenced by the geo-climatic, socio-cultural, economic, historical and political factors. The optimal cropping pattern for Punjab, however, is a serious challenge to economist and policymakers as paddy-wheat dominated in the cropping pattern of Punjab. The state has witnessed a considerable change on cropping pattern in the post green revolution era with major focus on wheat-paddy crop rotation. It is because of technological innovations, higher economic returns, assured irrigation facilities, favorable policies etc. As a result of prolonged exposure to this monoculture, agriculture sector in Punjab has been facing a number of problems of soil fertility and decline in water level etc. Crop diversification is thus essential to augment farm income, generate employment, alleviate poverty and conserve precious soil and water resources. The present study has been attempted to study the extent of crop diversification in Punjab and its districts along with highlighting the challenges faced by the farmers for adoption of diversified cropping pattern. A time-series data were collected from various published sources like Statistical Abstracts of Punjab during the period 1980-81 to 2015-16 regarding area and production of various crops in different districts of Punjab. It is concluded in the study that Punjab agriculture is moving towards specialization of crops in almost all the districts of Punjab. Wheat and Paddy are the dominant crops in the overall cropping pattern during the study period.

[**Keywords :** Cropping pattern, Wheat-paddy crop rotation, Agriculture sector]

I. Introduction

Cropping pattern means the proportion of area under various crops at a point of time. Cropping pattern is, however, a dynamic concept as it changes over space

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and time. The cropping patterns of a region are closely influenced by the geo-climatic, socio-cultural, economic, historical and political factors (Mandal and Bezbaruah, 2018). The optimal cropping pattern for Punjab, however, is a serious challenge to economist and policymakers as paddy-wheat dominated in the cropping pattern of Punjab. The state has witnessed a considerable change on cropping pattern in the post green revolution era with major focus on wheat-paddy crop rotation. The area under wheat-paddy has increased manifolds during the last five decades whereas the area under oilseeds, pulses, maize and other cereals etc. has decreased sharply (Singh et al., 2013). It is because of technological innovations, higher economic returns, assured irrigation facilities, favorable policies etc. The predominant rice-wheat system in Punjab, which provided good returns to the farmers till a few years back and contributed greatly towards food security of the country, has created a number of serious problems. The intensive land usage under these crops has resulted in rapid depletion of ground water mainly in Central Punjab. Crop diversification is thus essential to augment farm income, generate employment, alleviate poverty and conserve precious soil and water resources.

The cropping patterns differ from region to region. It depends on the land, topography, slope, temperature, amount and reliability of rainfall, soils and availability of water for irrigation. The perception and evaluation of environment is also important for guiding which crop should grow in certain region (Kumar, 2017). Furthermore, the land occupancy, ownership of land, size of holdings and size of fields also enforce restrictions on the cropping patterns of a province. In the areas of small holdings, the farmers tend to be subsistent despite innovation diffusion also driving them towards suicides for getting negligible returns on their farms (Kaur and Mehra, 2018). Dissimilar to this, the farmers with large holdings have more risk bearing capacity and they have relatively high degree of commercialization (Haque, 1995).

The cropping patterns of a region unit may be determined on the basis of aerial strength of individual crops. The first, second and third ranking crops of an aerial unit may be called as the dominant crops of that unit. These crops, if occupying more or less the same percentage of the total cropped area, shall be competing for area with each other and the farmer will decide which crop may fetch him more profit in a given year under the prevailing rainfall and demand, supply and commodity price situation (Murugesan et al., 2018).

2. Objectives of the Study

Objectives of the study are as follows :

1. To study the area under and production of major crops in Punjab.
2. To examine the shift in cropping pattern in Punjab over the period 1980-81 to 2015-16.

3. To analyze the cropping pattern in different districts of Punjab during 2015-16.
4. To discuss the constraints in adoption of diversified cropping pattern in Punjab.

To fulfill the above mentioned objectives of the present study has been divided into five sections including Introduction. Section II reviews the literature. Section III gives data base and methodology. Section IV explores the results and discussion. Section V surveys the constraints in crop diversification in Punjab. Section VI gives conclusions.

3. Review of Literature

Sohal (2003) concluded in his paper that before the ushering of green revolution in Punjab, the index value of crop diversification was very high and as well as highly variable in its spatial extent. But with the introduction of green revolution technology, it had witnessed a drastic change in the level of crop diversification. According to Gibbs and Martin technique, it came down significantly from 0.88 to 0.74 during 1951 and 2001 respectively. Magnitude of crop diversification was noted high in major parts of Punjab in 1950-51 but during 2000-01, it was found lowest in about 80 per cent of the area. It was revealed that Punjab's agriculture had shifted from subsistence and highly diversified to highly intensive, commercialized and specialized nature.

Jha, Kumar and Mohanty (2009) studied the pattern of agricultural diversification in India. It was found that though the share of agriculture in the overall economy had been decreasing, the share of livestock and fisheries in agriculture had increased. There had been structural changes in the livestock and fisheries sectors of the economy. For many commodities, the production basket had concentrated over the years. For most of the crops the per cent share of leading producing states had increased towards specialization in agriculture production. Changes in the per cent of gross cropped area also suggested a move towards specialization.

Sharma (2015) examined the various challenges being faced by the agriculture in Punjab and also suggested the ways for improvements as well. It was observed that the growth of agriculture was less than 2 per cent all through the years from 2007-08 to 2013-14 and even negative in 2009-10 and 2012-13. However, the total food grains production had been on the rise since 1990-91. It was concluded that strategy for agriculture sector would have to be broken down to the last unit which is the village or at best district level. Issues at each district level would need to be prioritized and then efforts should be made for their solution.

Bendre and Singh (2017) tried to explore the role of agriculture diversification in Indian perspective, its concepts, rationale and approaches and recognized that agriculture diversification helped achieve food security, improved human

nutrition and increased rural employment. It can also impact favorably on soil fertility and pest incidence. India's agro-climatic regional planning has documented the zones of maximal opportunity for diversified agriculture on smaller farms. It was argued that planning (at local and regional scales) to utilize those opportunities and to provide the supportive agro-processing and market and communications facilities must involve farmers' representatives and cooperatives, administrators, researchers, input suppliers (public and private), and NGO's; it must address on-farm and non-farm features.

Singh et al. (2013) attempted to find out the diversification trends in Punjab agriculture. It was concluded that Punjab agriculture was moving towards specialization of crops mainly paddy and wheat in all districts of Punjab except American cotton in Malwa region; sugarcane and moong in Gurdaspur, Jalandhar, Kapurthala and Hoshiarpur districts. It was suggested in the paper that Punjab farmers needed to diversify their crop base into crops like soya bean, maize, fruit and vegetables. Developing dairy industries to produce milk and milk products for urban centers of north India was another way of diversifying the crop base in Punjab.

Pujara and Shahid (2016) studied the extent of crop diversification in Punjab and also highlighted the challenges faced by the farmers for adoption of diversified cropping system. It was observed in the study that Punjab agriculture was moving towards specialization of crops in almost all the districts of Punjab. Therefore, concentric efforts were required to stop the increasing adoption of paddy-wheat area. It was found that well-developed support system of government policies, innovative technologies, well settled production scenario and marketing system, socio-economic conditions of the farmers leads towards specialization of paddy wheat cultivation in Punjab.

4. Data Base and Methodology

To fulfill the objectives of the present study time-series data has been collected from various published sources like Statistical Abstract of Punjab, Economic Survey etc. during the period 1980-81 to 2015-16 regarding area and production of major crops in different districts of Punjab. The cropping pattern in Punjab and its different districts has been analyzed by calculating the percentage share of major crops to total cropped area.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Area under and Production of Major Crops in Punjab

Table-1 depicts the distribution of area under 10 major crops namely rice, wheat, cotton, maize, total oilseeds, potatoes, sugarcane, total pulses, bajra and barley. These crops covered about 92.58 per cent area of total occupied area of the state. Among these 10 crops, wheat and paddy were the main crops which occupied 80.45 per cent of the total cropped area of the state.

Table-1 : Distribution of area under major crops in Punjab 1980-81 to 2015-16

(Thousand hectare)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Cotton	Maize	Total Oilseeds
1980-81	1183	2812	649	382	238
1990-91	2015	3273	701	188	104
2000-01	2612	3408	474	165	86
2010-11	2826	3510	483	133	56
2011-12	2814	3527	515	130	52
2012-13	2849	3517	481	131	51
2013-14	2849	3510	445	131	47
2014-15	2895	3505	421	126	46
2015-16	2970	3506	335	127	48
Year	Potatoes	Sugarcane	Total pulses	Barley	Bajra
1980-81	40	71	341	65	69
1990-91	23	101	143	37	12
2000-01	60	121	54	32	6
2010-11	64	70	20	12	3
2011-12	70	80	20	13	3
2012-13	80	82	20	13	3
2013-14	79	89	19	12	1
2014-15	89	97	13	11	-
2015-16	92	92	20	12	-

Source : Statistical Abstract of Punjab 2016.

Paddy was cultivated in 1183 thousand ha in Punjab during the year 1980-81 while area under wheat was 2821 thousand ha. A shift towards more area under paddy and wheat was observed over the years as paddy was cultivated on 2970 thousand ha during 2015-16 (an increase of 151 per cent) and wheat was cultivated on 3506 thousand ha during 2015-16 (an increase of 24.68 per cent). An increase was also observed in area under potatoes from 40 thousand ha in 1980-81 to 92 thousand ha in 2015-16 (an increase of 130 per cent) while area under sugarcane was increased from 71 thousand ha to 92 thousand ha (an increase of 29.58 per cent) during the same period. As a result of this shift paddy and wheat dominated the cropping pattern of Punjab and area under other crops like cotton, maize, total pulses, total oilseeds, bajra and barley was decreased over the period under study. This shift was mainly due to the comparatively high economic return and yield stability from paddy and wheat crops as compared to other crops. However,

prolonged adoption of this monoculture system has resulted in degradation of land and water resources in Punjab.

The production of paddy was increased from 3233 thousand metric ton in 1980-81 to 11803 thousand metric ton in 2015-16 (an increase of 265 per cent) while production of wheat was increased from 7677 metric ton to 16068 thousand metric ton during the same period (an increase of 109 per cent) as can be seen in Table-2. The production of potatoes was increased from 767 thousand metric ton in 1980-81 to 2365 thousand metric ton in 2015-16 (an increase of 208 per cent) while production of sugarcane was increased from 392 thousand metric ton to 624 thousand metric ton during the same period showing an increase of 59 per cent. The production of all other crops was decreased over the period again indicating a shift towards paddy-wheat production in Punjab.

Table-2 : Production of major crops in Punjab 1980-81 to 2015-16

(Thousand metric ton)

Year	Rice	Wheat	Cotton	Maize	Total Oilseeds
1980-81	3233	7677	1178	612	187
1990-91	6506	12159	1909	333	93
2000-01	9157	15551	1199	461	88
2010-11	10819	16472	1822	491	73
2011-12	10527	17977	1621	517	69
2012-13	11390	16614	1627	482	70
2013-14	11259	17610	1491	510	60
2014-15	11111	15086	1342	460	58
2015-16	11803	16068	389	468	52
Year	Potatoes	Sugarcane	Total pulses	Barley	Bajra
1980-81	767	392	204	108	86
1990-91	453	601	105	101	13
2000-01	1166	777	39	109	5
2010-11	1609	417	17	44	3
2011-12	1743	467	10	51	3
2012-13	2001	483	12	50	3
2013-14	1980	552	17	46	1
2014-15	2230	600	12	39	-
2015-16	2365	624	10	44	-

Source : Statistical Abstract of Punjab 2016.

5.2 Shift in the Cropping Pattern in Punjab

It is seen in Table-3 that the share of wheat in total cropped area of Punjab has increased gradually from 41.58 per cent in 1980-81 to 44.54 per cent in 2015-16 experiencing a positive volume of change of 2.96 per cent during the study period. The major factor for high share of wheat cultivation is that wheat is more economical and assured crop than others. The area under rice was 17.49 per cent of total cropped area in Punjab in 1980-81 which jumped to 37.73 per cent in 2015-16 indicating that area under this crop has more than doubled during the study period. This crop has recorded a remarkable expansion in area under its cultivation in the study region as there has been a positive volume of change of 20.24 per cent under rice crop. The state has extreme specialization of paddy-wheat cropping system which may be attributed to effective implementation of agricultural price policy with minimum support price (MSP) and relative profitability of these crops as compared to other crops. As a result about 82 per cent of the gross cropped area of the state has been encroached by paddy and wheat.

Table-3 : Shift in Cropping Pattern in Punjab 1980-81 to 2015-16

Crop	1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2010-11	2011-12
Wheat	41.58	43.63	42.92	44.53	44.63
Rice	17.49	26.86	32.89	35.85	35.61
Cotton	9.60	9.34	5.97	6.13	6.52
Maize	5.65	2.51	2.08	1.69	1.65
Potato	0.59	0.31	0.75	0.81	0.89
Sugarcane	1.05	1.35	1.52	0.89	1.01
Pulses	5.04	1.91	0.68	0.25	0.25
Oilseeds	3.52	1.32	1.01	0.71	0.66
Crop	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	Percent Change 1980-81 to 2015-16
Wheat	44.69	44.72	44.61	44.54	2.96
Rice	36.20	36.30	36.85	37.73	20.24
Cotton	6.11	6.13	5.27	4.20	-5.40
Maize	1.66	1.67	1.60	1.61	-4.04
Potato	1.02	1.01	1.13	1.16	0.57
Sugarcane	1.04	1.13	1.23	1.17	0.12
Pulses	0.25	0.24	0.17	0.25	-4.79
Oilseeds	0.65	0.60	0.59	0.61	-2.91

Source : Statistical Abstract of Punjab 2016.

Cotton is ranked third in the cropping pattern of the state. The area under this crop was 9.6 per cent of gross cropped area in 1980-81 which fell sharply to 4.2 per cent in 2015-16 experiencing a negative volume of change of -5.4 per cent. After mid 1990s the area under cotton had adversely affected due to inclement weather and pest attack and its share in gross cropped area went down. The proportionate area under maize kept on declining from 5.65 per cent share in 1980-81 to 20.8 per cent in 2000-01 and then a sharp decline to 1.61 per cent in 2015-16. This crop also suffered a negative volume of change of -4.04 per cent over the study period. The maize cultivators are highly disappointed in the state for getting poor returns. The high-moisture content of the grains is the main reason for their non-procurement. Potato and sugarcane crops have also experienced a marginal increase in the area under their cultivation as they have undergone a positive volume of change of 0.57 per cent and 0.12 per cent respectively in area under these crops in the study region. However, respective shares of pulses and oilseeds in gross cropped area have recorded a sharp decline over the study period (-4.79 per cent and -2.91 per cent respectively).

Thus it is clear from the above analysis that there has been a shift towards specialization in favor of wheat-rice crops in Punjab during the period under study.

5.3 Cropping Pattern in different districts of Punjab

Table-4 represents the extent of cropping pattern in different districts of Punjab during 2015-16. The share of top five crops in these districts has been classified into different categories viz. high share, moderate share and low share.

A. Share of Wheat Cultivation

Wheat crop occupies first rank in overall cropping pattern having 44.54 per cent share in the total cropped area during 2015-16. Its percentage share ranges between 39.04 per cent in S.B.S. Nagar to 52.04 per cent in S.A.S. Nagar.

» High Share (> 45 per cent)

Pathankot, Tarn Taran, Rupnagar, S.A.S. Nagar, Ferozpur, Faridkot, Muktsar, Moga, Bathinda, Sangrur, Barnala, and Patiala districts have a high share in wheat cultivation in Punjab contributing more than 45 per cent. In these districts, the share of wheat cultivation varies between 45.33 per cent in Patiala to 52.04 per cent in S.A.S. Nagar. The main reasons for high share in these districts are developed agricultural infrastructure, well developed irrigational facilities, fertile soil, high yielding varieties of seeds and the adoption of advanced farm technology by farmers.

» Moderate Share (40-45 per cent)

The districts which fall in this category are Gurdaspur, Amritsar, Kapurthala, Hoshiarpur, Ludhiana, Fazilka, Mansa, and Fatehgarh Sahib. Most of the districts of this category are traditionally wheat growing areas. Moreover, the government

policies like subsidy on HYV seeds, chemical fertilizers etc. and agricultural loan on easy installment to the farmers encourages them to produce more wheat.

» **Low Share (<40 per cent)**

Two districts namely Jalandhar and S.B.S. Nagar comprise this category. The main reasons for comparatively low cultivation of wheat in these areas are rough topography, inadequate irrigational facilities, popularity of other crops etc.

B. Share of Rice Cultivation

Rice is enjoying second rank in overall cropping pattern holding 37.73 per cent share in the total cropped area during the study period. Its percentage is highly variable which ranges between 20.23 per cent in Hoshiarpur district to 47.16 per cent in Moga district.

» **High Share (> 40 per cent)**

This category includes districts namely Gurdaspur, Amritsar, Tarn Taran, Kapurthala, Ludhiana, Firozpur, Faridkot, Moga, Sangrur, Barnala, Patiala, and Fatehgarh Sahib. These areas are having flat land, fertile soils, well developed agricultural infrastructure and developed irrigational facilities which are responsible for high proportion of rice in these areas.

Table-4 : Cropping Pattern in different districts of Punjab 2015-16

District	Total Cropped Area ('000 hectare)	Percentage share of major crops				
		Paddy	Wheat	Cotton	Maize	Total Vegetables
Gurdaspur	413	42.37	44.55	-	0.24	0.52
Pathankot	91	30.77	46.15	-	7.70	0.34
Amritsar	440	41.14	42.73	-	-	1.64
Tarn Taran	396	44.95	47.98	-	0.23	0.66
Kapurthala	266	43.98	41.35	-	0.75	4.93
Jalandhar	418	39.95	39.95	-	1.67	6.22
S.B.S. Nagar	187	31.55	39.04	-	4.28	1.34
Hoshiarpur	341	20.23	44.57	-	15.84	1.51
Rupnagar	138	26.81	48.55	-	13.77	0.54
S.A.S. Nagar	98	31.63	52.04	-	6.12	4.16
Ludhiana	599	42.90	42.07	-	0.50	3.79
Firozpur	406	46.06	46.06	-	-	2.24
Fazilka	488	21.31	41.39	16.39	-	0.41
Faidkot	248	43.95	46.77	2.41	-	0.78
Muktsar Sahib	453	34.88	45.92	10.15	-	0.70

Moga	388	47.16	45.36	0.26	-	2.30
Bathinda	559	24.51	45.44	20.21	-	1.43
Mansa	368	25.27	44.84	19.57	-	0.47
Sangrur	622	44.05	45.66	1.77	0.16	0.66
Barnala	248	44.35	45.97	2.02	-	0.84
Patiala	514	44.75	45.33	0.19	0.19	1.95
Fatehgarh Sahib	191	45.03	43.46	-	0.52	2.76

Source : Statistical Abstract of Punjab 2016.

» **Moderate Share (30-40 per cent)**

Pathankot, Jalandhar, S.B.S. Nagar, S.A.S. Nagar, and Muktsar districts fall in this category. These districts have mix blessings of physical and man-made environment.

» **Low Share (< 30 per cent)**

The districts namely Hoshiarpur, Rupnagar, Fazilka, Bathinda, and Mansa have low share in rice cultivation. These areas suffer from lack of developed irrigation and thus are not highly suitable for cereal crops like wheat, rice, sugarcane etc. which require frequent watering. Moreover rice crop is facing competition with other crops like cotton, vegetables etc. in these districts.

C. Share of Cotton Cultivation

Cotton is important fiber crop and is very sensitive plant also. Bright days and dry climatic conditions are required during its growing and picking times. Loamy soils having good moisture holding capacity are good for its cultivation. This crop holds the third rank in the overall cropping pattern during the study period. Its percentage share ranges between 0.19 per cent in Patiala district to 20.21 per cent in Bathinda district.

» **High Share (>15 per cent)**

It includes three districts namely Fazilka, Bathinda and Mansa. Cotton cultivation in these districts ranges between 16.39 per cent in Fazilka to 20.21 per cent in Bathinda. The vital and determining factor in cotton cultivation in these districts is climate. Here the rainfall is low and temperature is high during its growing period and warm and dry weather at the time of picking which are the favorable factors for its cultivation.

» **Moderate Share (5-15 per cent)**

One district namely Muktsar fall in this category. Presence of unfriendly topography, unfertile soil and low rainfall are the factors responsible for moderate proportion of cotton cultivation in this district. Here also cotton crop faces strong competition from wheat, pulses and oilseeds.

» **Low Share (<5 per cent)**

This category includes Faridkot, Moga, Sangrur, Barnala, and Patiala. Farmers of these regions prefer to grow rice than cotton because environmentally these districts are ideally suitable for rice crop during Kharif season.

» **Areas without Cotton Cultivation**

It comprises Gurdaspur, Pathankot, Amritsar, Tarn Taran, Kapurthala, Jalandhar, S.B.S. Nagar, Hoshiarpur, Rupnagar, S.A.S.Nagar, Ludhiana, Firozpur and Fatehgarh Sahib. In these districts, food grain crops occupy major proportion of the area during Kharif season. Rice and wheat are the principal crops occupying large area of the total cropped area. In Hoshiarpur and Kapurthala districts most of the cultivated area is devoted to maize and sugarcane crops.

D. Share of Maize Cultivation

Maize is an important cereal crop occupying fourth rank in the overall cropping pattern in the study region. It performs poorly under low humidity and high temperature. It is seen that the distribution of maize was uneven. Some area had high proportion of maize cultivation while some were having negligible share of maize cultivation.

» **High Share (>10 per cent)**

Two districts namely Hoshiarpur and Rupnagar have more than 10 per cent share in maize cultivation. These districts having shiwalik hills, piedmont plain, relatively high rainfall, loamy sand soil, steep gradient and dissected topography which do not allow the water to stand in the field which is the prerequisite conditions for maize cultivation. In such conditions rice cannot be cultivated successfully. Moreover, the moisture and temperature conditions are favorable for maize cultivation.

» **Moderate Share (1-10 per cent)**

Four districts namely Pathankot, Jalandhar, S.B.S. Nagar and S.A.S. Nagar fall in this category. In these parts of the state, proportion of maize crops ranges between 1 to 10 per cent. In these districts, maize crop is used as fodder crop as well as food grain also. In addition, maize crop in these areas is facing competition mainly from rice crop because these are traditionally rice growing areas. Farmers prefer rice to maize during Kharif season because of its high and assured economic returns.

» **Low Share (< 1 per cent)**

The districts which fall in this category are Gurdaspur, Tarn Taran, Kapurthala, Ludhiana, Sangrur, Patiala and Fatehgarh Sahib.

» **Areas without Maize Cultivation**

Amritsar, Firozpur, Fazilka, Faridkot, Muktsar, Moga, Bathinda, Mansa and Barnala are the areas without maize cultivation due to the predominance of other crops mainly wheat, rice, cotton, and bajra.

E. Share of Vegetables

The share of vegetables in total cropped area varies from 0.34 per cent in Pathankot district to 6.22 per cent in Jalandhar district. These figures show a little variation in vegetable cultivation.

» **High Share (> 2 per cent)**

The districts having more than 2 per cent share in vegetables cultivation include Jalandhar, Kapurthala, S.A.S. Nagar, Ludhiana, Ferozpur, Moga, and Fatehgarh Sahib. The geo-climatic conditions are well suited to Rabi and Kharif seasons for vegetables cultivation. Secondly, all the districts have large urban centers and most of the population in these areas is urban raising the demand for vegetables. Road network and marketing facilities are more relevant for vegetable cultivation in these districts.

» **Moderate Share (1-2 per cent)**

This category includes five districts namely Amritsar, S.B.S Nagar, Hoshiarpur, Bathinda, and Patiala. Socio-economic conditions and heavy pressure on arable land for food grains are obstacles in vegetable cultivation in these districts.

» **Low Share (< 1 per cent)**

Gurdaspur, Pathankot, Tarn Taran, Rupnagar, Fazilka, Faridkot, Muktsar, Mansa, Sangrur, and Barnala fall in this category. Low share of urban population in these districts is mainly responsible for low proportion of area under vegetables.

Thus it becomes clear from above analysis that imbalance in favor of two main crops viz. rice and wheat in the cropping pattern has further sharpened despite all efforts of diversification in the state agriculture.

6. Constraints in Crop Diversification in Punjab

The major constraints inhibiting the process of diversification in Punjab are listed below :

6.1 Constraints in Diversifying to Agricultural Crops

The farmers in Punjab are reluctant to switch over to agricultural crops like vegetables, oilseeds and pulses than the dominant wheat-paddy system. It is observed in the study that the production of oilseeds and pulses have declined in the study region. The constraints in undertaking cultivation of agricultural crops are lack of availability of labour, lack of marketing facilities, non-availability of inputs in time, and price fluctuations (Girish, 2014). In addition, minimum support price (MSP) and assured procurement for wheat and paddy crops enforces farmers for growing more paddy-wheat to draw benefits.

6.2 Constraints in Diversifying to Non-agricultural Enterprises

No feasible good alternative system of other enterprises exist in Punjab as large number of small farming units in the state are with poor economic power and

are not in a position to take risks. Farmers particularly small and marginal farmers do not have the ability to invest in crop and non-crop enterprises which require high investment of capital and labour inputs they also find it difficult to spend time to learn about, undertake and assume risks of adopting any new agricultural economic activity unless the relative economic gains from such activity have already been demonstrated elsewhere. Moreover, small farmers do not have price information for some of the high value commodities in many places which constrain the process of diversification most.

6.3 Constraints in Technological Development

The present level of technological development for some of the high value fruits and vegetable crops is not only inadequate, but the available technology does not suit various agro-climatic situations. Moreover, the export led diversification would require technology for improving the quality of products, keeping in view the demands in domestic and international markets. There is need for development of not only appropriate farm production technology, but also processing and marketing technologies for all those crops which are being considered for future diversification.

6.4 Constraints in Infrastructure

The government financed infrastructures in the country are highly concentrated in certain developed regions. The small farms in backward regions do not have access to basic infrastructure facilities of road, transportation, linked market in the neighbourhood, cold storage, irrigation and power which are so essential for both horizontal and vertical diversification. Even the institutional credit facilities are monopolized by a few relatively developed regions.

6.5 Constraints in Geo-climatic Conditions

All types of lands and locations are not equally suitable for diversified, albeit profitable alternative farming. Moreover, in greater part of high rainfall and irrigated zones, heavy textured soil and poor drainage system stand in the way of diversification in favor of non-rice crops, unless land improvement and drainage measures are undertaken.

7. Conclusions

It is concluded that Punjab agriculture is moving towards specialization of crops in almost all the districts of Punjab. Wheat and paddy are the dominant crops in the overall cropping pattern during study period. The cultivation of different crops in the study area is mainly the outcome of physical environment and socio-economic factors. The cultivation of paddy crop is using lion's share of natural irrigation resources Punjab as a result there is an overexploitation of underground water. Well-developed support system of government policies,

innovative technologies, well settled production scenario and marketing system, socio-economic conditions of the farmers leads towards specialization of paddy wheat cultivation in Punjab. Therefore, concentric efforts are required to stop the increasing adoption of paddy-wheat area. Strong institutional support in the form of new infra-structural development, research and extension strengthening, development of cooperatives, marketing system development of international standard backed by sound government policies is required for switch over to other crops and enterprises. Instead of promoting crop diversification in all of Punjab, it might be better if those areas which are not fit for paddy cultivation are targeted first. Depending on the suitable alternative crop(s) for the region, area-specific strategies are required.

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Economic Growth and Development of Jammu and Kashmir : Critical Analysis of Sectors

Bilal Ahmad Khan*

The Kashmir economy had a cataclysmic start from Post 1947. In the given circumstances, the land reforms proved sufficient to the economic condition of the countryside. However, the uncertainty created since 1989 withheld the interest for the development of state. This meant the provision of employment to educated group, yet unskilled youth became useless tool. A situation was created whereby the state witness falling economic avenues, lack of capital investment opportunities, and economic leakage effect and supply gap in primary and secondary sectors. Consequently state is unable to generate resources on its own and depends considerably on central aid. Prior to the turbulent period, the J&K economy was primarily based on agriculture and the service sector was dominated only by tourism. Tourism was identified as the engine of growth and development. However, militant activities since 1989 onwards, there was a colossal setback of it. The main objective of the paper is to evaluate growth and development and contribution of sectors in growth and development of the state. The whole economy in the post-1989 period was quite distorted.

[**Keywords :** Independence, Countryside, Uncertainty, Tourism, Colossal, Growth and development]

1. Introduction

With a view to present development performance of the state after Independence, Kashmir economy had a cataclysmic start from Post 1947. The state embarked upon its development process by the enactment of Big Landed Estates

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Act 1949-50, a radical land redistribution measure which abolished as many as 9 thousand Jagirs and Muafis. The 4.5 lac acres of land so expropriated was redistributed to tenants and landless. Land ceiling was fixed at 22.75 acres. It was followed by little or negligible social disturbance. Despite this, no compensation was paid to landlords. This measure set the stage for new economy. In the given circumstances, the land reforms proved sufficient to the economic condition of the countryside with the hitherto tenants in a position to own land and cultivate it for themselves (Jamwal, 1994). However, the reforms though unprecedented in their nature and scale were not only pursued for their own sake but were also underpinned by an ambitious economic vision. Naya Kashmir, a vision statement of Shiekh Muhammad Abdullah, laid down more or less a comprehensive plan for a wholesome economic development of the state (Copland, 1991). But the dismissal of Shiekh Abdullah's legitimately elected government in 1953 by the centre changed all that. The consequent uncertainty which lingers even now created an adhocist political culture animated more by vested interest than a commitment to the development of state. Such a scenario after some time also frittered away the salutary potential of the land reforms. While the radical land redistribution measure had a massive political will at its back.

However, the land reforms in rural Kashmir down the decades have only shown diminishing returns. Most of the arable land today is economically unviable. The average size of land-holdings has declined from 1.7 hectares in 1949-50 to 0.5 hectares in 1997-98. Almost 90 percent of arable land constitutes marginal and sub-marginal holdings. This has reduced productivity from agriculture to a mere subsistence level. Subsequent developmental strategies failed to the steady agricultural decline (Jasbeer, 2004).

In fact, the development process in the state went astray in the post land reforms period. The successive state governments preferred market-led strategy of growth as against development-led strategy. As the market-led strategy ignored the growth of primary sector and put premium on the expansion of tertiary sector. This strategy withheld state's economy. A situation was created whereby the state witness falling economic avenues, lack of capital investment opportunities, and economic leakage effect and supply gap in primary and secondary sectors (Rekhi, 1993).

The state of J&K is unable to generate resources on its own and depends considerably on central aid. Prior to the turbulent period, the J&K economy was primarily based on agriculture and the service sector was dominated only by tourism. Tourism was identified as the engine of growth and development. However, militant activities since 1989 onwards, there was a colossal setback of it. The main objective of the paper is to evaluate growth and development of state and contribution of economic sectors in SDP. Judged in terms of NSDP, services sector is emerging as an important growth driver while agricultural productivity has decreased significantly. For achieving these given objectives, the study is based on

the secondary data used under appropriate statistical techniques. The secondary data is collected from various sources like, books, published papers etc. The study evaluates govt. reports and other unpublished work related to state of economy and assess the trends attributed to turbulent conditions.

2. Discussions and Findings

Prior to the turbulent period, J&K economy was primarily based on agriculture and the service sector was dominated only by tourism. Tourism was identified as the engine of growth. There was a colossal setback of it due to militancy. The fact that whenever and wherever militancy or political instability found roots, the economy of that region became a major causality (Bookman, 1991). The state is unable to generate resources on its own and depends considerably on central aid. Down the years, this dependence has only doubled as the table 1.1 below amply demonstrates. While the tax and non tax revenue has sharply declined and central grant-in-aid has correspondingly increased.

Table-1 : Tax and non tax revenue and Grant-in-aid, Percent

Year	Tax & non-tax revenue of J&K to total revenue	Grant-in-aid to total resources
1973-74	49.75	51.25
1977-78	43.98	56.02
1986-87	30.74	69.26
1997-98	18.76	81.24

Sources : State Finance Commission, various reports

Table-2 : Area, Production and Productivity of All fruits, 2005-06/16-17

Year	Fruit	Area (in Het)	Production in Lakhs MTS	Productivity
2005-06	Fresh	1.75	12.89	7.36
	Dry	0.93	1.24	1.33
	Total	2.68	14.13	5.27
2006-07	Fresh	1.85	13.77	7.43
	Dry	0.99	1.31	1.33
	Total	2.84	15.08	5.31
2009-10	Fresh	2.10	15.35	7.31
	Dry	1.05	1.78	1.70
	Total	3.15	17.13	5.44
2010-11	Fresh	2.17	20.46	9.43
	Dry	1.08	1.76	1.63
	Total	3.25	22.22	6.84

2015-16	Fresh	2.42	22.18	9.16
	Dry	1.12	2.76	2.87
	Total	3.56	24.94	7.38
2016-17	Fresh	2.42	19.59	8.09
	Dry	0.97	2.76	2.84
	Total	3.38	22.35	6.59

Source : Digests of Statistics, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, J&K Government, various issues.

Even the state has been bestowed by nature with suitable climate for enormous fruits. The opportunities were investigated in the state for exploiting vast potential of fruits under individual, joint venture and sponsored efforts. The area under fruits growing has been found 2.68 lakh hectares in 2005-06 that accelerated to 3.38 lakh hectares in 2016-17 and the production has increased from 14.13 lakh MTS in 2005-06 to 22.23 lakh MTS in 2016-17, recording an increase of 23.58 percent. The area, production and productivity of all fruits for the whole State from 2005-06 to 2016-17 is depicted above.

In order to understand the conflict from the internal perspective, it is important to focus on the 'identity economics of Kashmir'. As a result of prolonged conflict till now, the state's economy has been one of the slowest growing regional economies in South Asia. That is why it is among the poorer states of India. In 2001, it was the 6th poorest state in India in terms of PCY.

Insurgency has been a major factor over low productivity in agriculture and industrial sector. It leads poor industrial infrastructure along with the poor investment that has left the industrial sector in its infant stage which impeded employment and income generation. There has not been a suitable strategy for the potential sectors to achieve higher economic growth. Lack of good governance and sound fiscal management has also been responsible for poor economic growth of the state (GK, September 24, 2007).

Thus conflict and instability in the State have been a major hindrance to the region's development and progress and remains far from satisfactory. There is a vast array of literature on the same theme and the role of people in the middle of the two great regional powers of Pakistan and India (Bose, 1999).

2.1 Analysis of Development Potential

Economic growth in Jammu and Kashmir has been severely stifled due to security concerns. As a result, there are virtually no engines of job creation and resources are used inefficiently and without long-term vision. Additionally, the lack of domestic industry has made the state heavily dependent upon central government financing. Moreover, Jammu & Kashmir has seen little in the way of foreign investment (KSG, 1997). While the state receives significant amounts of aid

from the Indian government, most of that funding is used toward the state's immense bureaucracy, one plagued by corruption.

However, state does possess significant domestic resources that provide opportunities for economic development. Specifically, the agriculture, tourism, and infrastructure sectors hold significant development potential. Therefore, the benefits of successful projects focused on developing agricultural capacity will have a broad reach. Agriculture is a historically viable and sustainable industry in the region. Consequently, projects can focus on modernizing the industry instead of trying to incubate a new, untested industry. The mountainous geography within State presents a challenge to the modernization of transportation. Regardless, much of region remains environmentally appropriate for the agricultural projects underway (Jones Z; Corey S; Bartosz S; & Tahir, 2010).

The 2006 Task Force on Development of J&K identified tourism as one of the main engines of growth in the region. The development of the tourist industry can have a significant impact on the overall growth of the state because of its ability to create direct and indirect employment, as well as growth in allied industries. Tourism will likely contribute to the growth of secondary sectors such as handicrafts, which have historically benefitted to the state from visitors. By generating new employment and creating sources of income, especially for unemployed youth, tourism can undermine the sources of separatist recruitment. In 1998, unemployment in Jammu and Kashmir stood at 700,000 (JK Economic Survey, 2002, DSE). As tourism is widely recognized as a major mechanism of employment generation and holds significant potential for alleviating youth unemployment, thereby eroding separatist support.

Landlocked and distant from major markets of India, Jammu and Kashmir faces high transportation costs, making it harder for the state to compensate for the drawbacks of the small size of its domestic market. While a weakness in both public and private sector capacity is a key concern for the state, the geographical spread of the state adds a further dimension to the challenge, as internal distances are quite large and the population highly decentralized. Deficiencies in the institutional capacity of J&K reduce the state's ability to participate fully in trade activities, both of which harm its economy.

Jammu and Kashmir possesses significant potential in the area of energy production. The state's waterways have the capacity to generate 16,480 megawatts of hydroelectric power (Digest, DES, 2011-12), nearly equivalent to the total generating capability of the United States (U.S. Energy Information Agency, 2010). If this is efficiently harnessed, the state could become a major energy producer, supplying electric power to northern India, Pakistan, and Central Asia.

2.2 Absolute Level of Development

Although Jammu and Kashmir is far from achieving independent economic viability, the rise in the region's absolute development level carries the potential for

increasing separatist sentiment. The economic growth in Jammu and Kashmir may be used by those favoring secession as an economic argument to promote the ability of the state to survive independently. On the other hand, a decrease in economic growth has been found to be strongly associated with greater likelihood for conflict (Miguel, Satyanath, & Sergenti, 2003). Consequently, the effect of absolute development in J&K will depend on the overall strategy employed in addressing the specific risk and opportunity areas within the context of social, political, and economic environments.

Successful agricultural development will lead to increased income for a large portion of Jammu and Kashmir. This can lead to a perceptible rise in the level of overall development in the state, particularly in rural areas where the income from farming has not been strong. This improvement in the absolute level of development may increase secessionist sentiment as residents perceive the region is more viable as a free-standing entity (Report of ADS, 2010).

Meaningful growth of the tourism sector will necessarily influence expansion in allied sectors, leading to an overall rise in state income. This will strengthen state's economic viability. However, the likelihood that the resulting absolute growth will contribute to secessionism will probably remain low because current projects are firmly tied to larger national development plans and depend on national funding. In addition, the extent to which tourism depends on regional peace and stability further undermines the feasibility and success of separatist conflict (Tourism Department, J&K, 2010).

Improvements to the state's transportation, communication, and power infrastructure will lead to increased income in the region by facilitating increased productivity. Improved road and rail will increase the accessibility of tourist destinations and market access to Kashmiri goods. In this way, infrastructure can be a catalyst, enhancing the effect of improvements in the agriculture and tourism sectors. As such, infrastructure development must be coupled with development in major industries such as agriculture and tourism that can take advantage of the increased capacity (Schaffer, T. C., 2005).

2.3 Relative Level of Development

In context of Jammu and Kashmir, relative level of development is principally a function of degree to which benefits from economic development accrue disproportionately to any particular district or social group. Development that creates interregional disparity in income through resource draining or exploitative strategies effectively cancels out any positive effects on the region as a whole.

The economic underdevelopment of the state, coupled with perceived political discrimination, tends to fuel secessionist sentiments when the affected population is not ethnically representative of the nation as a whole (Lewis, Mitra, & Alison, 1996). This happens to be the case in Jammu and Kashmir, where Muslims represent two-thirds of the population and exhibited the highest levels of

separatist sentiment and insurgent violence, with the result economic activity has been most disrupted. Jammu, on the other hand, enjoys better location and transport infrastructure. Residents of the Kashmir Valley complain that central development programs tend to disproportionately benefit Jammu (Schaffer, 2005). Economic projects in the state must be chosen not on the basis of their convenience or ease of implementation, but rather on their potential to produce equitable development across all districts and social groups. Failure to do so will exacerbate existing inequity continuing to fuel separatist sentiment.

The extent to which tourism development is equitably pursued among all three regions will determine its effect on minimizing ethno-religious grievances between Muslims and Hindus. The positive effect of tourism development on allied sectors will contribute to overall rise in state income, thereby helping to decrease income inequality (Tourism Dept, J&K, 2007, retrieved 2010).

Infrastructure development will enhance the effects of agriculture and tourism projects by increasing efficiency and improving market access. An additional factor for consideration is the potential impact of power generation infrastructure for state as a whole. The potential for sustainable hydropower generation is exceptionally large. However, one must consider the feasibility of exploiting all available resources and the time necessary to implement such projects. It is unlikely that the region will produce sufficient electric power that it could become a net power exporter in the near future. Additionally, treaty complications with Pakistan for water use rights complicate fully exploiting the region's hydro resources, particularly if the benefits are conferred principally to India-controlled J& K (Digest, 2011-12).

2.4 Trade Dependency

An independent Jammu and Kashmir cannot be economically viable in its current state. However, the less that the state is integrated into the national economy, the higher likelihood for secessionist sentiment to persist. If the state and central authorities continue to be perceived as ineffective to invest in local development, secessionist sentiment will continue to fester and the risk of conflict will likely increase. Therefore, effective development measures would encourage domestic trade and investment linkages to substantially deepen economic integration with the rest of India. Much of the developments in agricultural sector come from increased access to export markets (via India). This makes trade more dependent on nation. Increased trade dependency reduces residents' desire to secede (Kraska, 2003).

Tourism as a service sector commodity presents significant export potential that ongoing and future development plans aim to address. It is thus intricately tied to other industries such as agriculture, land, and labour. Therefore, the tourist industry's trade dependence significantly is influenced by the level of dependence in other sectors of the economy (JK Economic Survey, 2012). Improvements to the

state's transportation and communication infrastructure will facilitate deeper economic integration with the rest of India by allowing Kashmiri goods to flow out and tourists to flow in. While there is the potential that these infrastructure improvements will open Kashmir to the global economy, direct trade with international partners is unlikely to become large relative to trade with India (Shekhawat, 2008).

2-5 Net Capital Flows

Jammu and Kashmir is one of the largest recipients of grants from the central government, placing the state in a firmly positive net capital flow position and minimizing the associated risk of a rise in secessionist activity. This is unlikely to change in the foreseeable future as current development plans envision a further rise in investments across economic sectors. Central and state authorities also seek to expand private and foreign investment sources. In turn, the State is among the lowest contributors of PCY tax to the central government. As a result, the state's present net outflow position does not increase the risk of secessionism. It is crucial, however, that profits realized under the current development schemes be reinvested back in the local economy in order to avoid public perception of economic exploitation, which would likely lead to rise in secessionist sentiment (Report of TFD, 2006, Retrieved, 2010).

Jammu and Kashmir has a very favorable net capital flow position relative to India as a whole. Government put more money into the region than they withdraw in taxes. Increased trade dependency may involve a slight rise in outflow, as some agricultural profits will be drawn by firms outside J&K (Report of TFD, 2010). However, it seems unlikely this outflow will be substantial enough to overcome the large inflow of national development support. As long as they are widely perceived, continued positive net capital flows will reduce the desire of Kashmiri residents to secede.

Violence have prevented meaningful development and left the infrastructure in shambles. As such, substantial investment is needed to expand and modernize the industry. Because of this, tourism will likely be a source of a significant capital flow into the state. Boosting investment, therefore, carries the potential of significantly increasing net inflows, thereby likely reducing insurgency. Attracting foreign tourism and investment is crucial, as tourists from abroad will bring in needed foreign currency.

Infrastructure development projects in Jammu and Kashmir had required significant capital investment from the Indian government and continue to require funding for the foreseeable future. As such, the Railway Link throughout whole valley, from several years for completion continues to draw funding from the central government. Other projects such as roads and telecommunications infrastructure completed over a shorter time period (Shekhawat, 2008). By increasing transportation costs, the risk of economic leakage increases. This loss of

funds may create the perception that foreign businesses are profiting at the expense of local stakeholders. This perception may arise despite absolute gains from trade in goods and services if residents of J&K State perceive a net loss in capital. This perceived loss will reduce the positive capital flows. Development of electric power generation infrastructure may produce similar effects if profits accrue mainly to national utilities located outside the state.

2.6 Economic Decentralization

Jammu and Kashmir occupies a semi-autonomous position within India. This boosts the perception and practicality of its viability as an independent entity and, in turn, contributes to a rise in secessionist sentiment. The higher degree of decentralization in J&K relative to the rest of India, however, is offset by the high level of economic integration and trade dependence with the national economy. Current development plans call for the expansion of private sector and small business ventures, which will contribute to increased decentralization of the local economy. However, this effect will likely be curbed by J&K's continued reliance on Indian markets and trade networks and may even decrease with the deepening of the state's economic integration with the rest of India. Any secessionist sentiment fueled by this decentralization of economic power will be tempered by the heavy financial reliance on the national government, insofar as this reliance is popularly perceived.

Although central and state authorities collaborate in creating development strategies, including a greater focus on private-sector investment and state-level implementation, overall investment and coordination is conducted predominantly at the national level. Consequently, as long as state development authorities continue to depend on central funding, the risk of heightened violence resulting from economic decentralization remains low. The development of the state's infrastructure is highly dependent upon central support for the duration of project and beyond (Rao, 2009).

Jammu and Kashmir relies almost entirely on central funding while generating virtually no resources of its own. The hostile environment has severely discouraged private investment and enterprise. By necessity, successful development projects require funding and central coordination from the Indian government, creating critical linkages between local and national institutions. Current Indian development programs in Jammu and Kashmir stand to increase absolute levels of development reduce economic decentralization, increase net capital inflows, and increase trade dependence on India. While increased absolute levels of development carry the possibility of increased secessionism and achieve a level of development sufficiently high to contemplate self sufficiency which is extremely low. The effect on relative levels of development is significantly more ambiguous, as residents may not recognize an improvement in their economic position relative to the rest of the country.

It would, therefore, be necessary to put the economy back on the rails to enable the average person to get employment opportunities. This would require giving fillip to the economic activities that have traditionally been the mainstay of the State's economy and continue to hold significant potential for growth and employment. Such activities include Agriculture, Handicrafts and Livestock on modern lines. It would be equally necessary to ensure diversification of the State economy, especially expanding the industrial base by generally have a traditional bent of mind. Diversification of agricultural activities is the need of the hour to keep up with the changed circumstances (Report from DAC, 2007, retrieved 2010).

The potential of Horticulture in J&K State is high, given the rich diversity in its flora and fauna and varied agro-climatic situation. The state enjoys monopoly in certain fruits, vegetables and medicinal plants and there is an immense scope for increasing the production of other horticulture produce that are marketed in rich and export markets. It is important that the limiting factors in both production and marketing of fresh produce are addressed speedily and linkages between farmers and buyers are established by developing agricultural and horticultural mandies at faster pace and on modern and scientific lines. This would not only reduce supply chain costs but would also help the farmers with an assured market for their produce.

Jammu and Kashmir has unexploited capacity to produce products which have value demand and ready for attractive markets both in India and Overseas (e.g. medical herbs, organic vegetables etc.). To enable exploitation of these opportunities, major programmes are needed to educate farmers to change traditional production habits and grow market rewarded crops. Potential for bringing additional area under Walnut is enormous. As per preliminary estimates (Indicators of Regional Dev. 2011-12 (Part-I), DES) about 0.50 lakh hectares are available on which walnut cultivation can be undertaken successfully. This will help to create green cover in hilly areas and conserve soil from erosion, besides, proving high value wood for wood carving industry, as well as walnuts for export purposes.

The three biggest employment generators in the region-tourism, horticulture and handicraft are facing their own challenges. While handicrafts are facing a serious threat from cheap machine-made imitations and counterfeits which has affected the livelihood of around 2.5 lakh artisans of state. Tourism has been hit by prolonged and continuous shutdowns (GK, Oct. 17, 2016). The sectors handicrafts and horticulture has rescued the state's economy in the absence of tourism in the past two and half decades. The income and exports from handicrafts alone has been Rs. 1151 crore and Rs. 1600 crore in the financial year 2016-17. Currently horticulture and handicrafts are hemmed in not only by an assortment of domestic problems; they also face severe pressures and competition from a globalizing economic regime. The state Govt. must promote handicrafts industries by

increasing shopping arcade in their existing properties and provide space for handicrafts industry to display their products.

The State of Jammu and Kashmir is rich in hydel power resources. The state power development corporation has estimated a total hydel power potential of 20000 MW and identified about 16000 MW for the four rivers in the state- Chenab (10853.81 MW), Jhelum (3141.3 MW), Indus (1598.7 MW) and Ravi (417.00 MW) in 2009-10. The state could be among the frontline states owing to huge hydel power potential but it is presently facing an acute shortage of energy resources as the current generation is only 1658.59 MW where as the current demand on account of domestic, industrial, agricultural and other demands is estimated about 2000 MW. This acute deficiency in energy sector has impeded not only the industrial development but also the other ancillary sectors. If the power sector is fully developed, the state would certainly attain the status of power exporting states (Indicators of Eco. Development, 2015-16).

What is needed, therefore, is the reconstruction of the enabling conditions for a functioning peacetime economy. More poverty alleviation and developmental schemes should be in operated in the State with central assistance in order to curb and tackle the prevailing situation in the state.

3. Changing Structure and Contribution of Various Economic Sectors

The Sector or activity wise composition of NSDP gives an idea of the relative position and contribution of a particular sector in the economy that facilitates to provide inputs to economists, policy makers planners etc. for formulation of plans for the overall economic development of the State. The primary sector played a leading role in NSDP and starts to dwindle since 1980. However, contribution of tertiary sector particularly increased.

Judged in terms of NSDP, services sector is emerging as an important growth driver and the manufacturing sector is relatively stagnant while agricultural productivity has decreased significantly. It is a point of concern that the combined contribution from primary and secondary sectors is becoming less than the lone contribution from service sector which is a very unhealthy condition for sustaining growth in the long run. Consideration the scope of expansion in manufacturing sector and service sector, it is the only agriculture that can hold us back (GK, January 29, 2013).

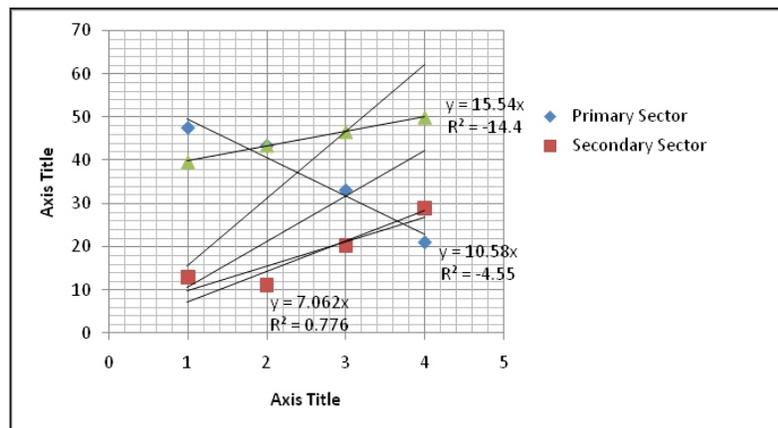
However, urbanization pressure has directly impacted the size of land holdings (average holding size 0.67 hectares against 1.23 hectares in India as per latest agriculture census, 2015-16 and area under cultivation (8% cultivable area and net area sown constitutes only 30% of the reporting area).

Table-3 : Distribution of NSDP by the sectors (Industry of Origin) at Current Prices and Constant Prices (1993-94), Per cent

Sector wise (NSDP)		1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2011-11
Primary Sector (Agriculture)		47.40	43.29	33.01	21.10
I	Agriculture including livestock	37.63	35.70	29.47	15.70
II	Forestry & Logging	8.96	6.97	2.68	4.61
III	Fishing	0.45	0.56	0.72	0.51
IV	Mining & Quarrying	0.36	0.06	0.14	0.28
Secondary Sector (Industry)		12.90	13.90	20.34	28.94
I	Manufacturing (registered Sector)	1.34	2.13	1.12	2.65
II	Manufacturing (Unregistered Sector)	3.31	3.41	2.21	3.82
III	Construction	7.65	9.96	11.21	19.82
IV	Electricity, gas & water supply	0.60	2.46	5.80	2.65
Tertiary Sector (Services)		39.70	43.49	46.65	49.95
I	Transport, Storage and Communication	0.82	0.37	8.20	7.97
II	Trade, hotels & Restaurants	17.16	16.48	8.20	7.97
III	Banking and Insurance	1.63	2.33	4.37	3.71
IV	Real estates, Ownership of dwellings and Business services	9.23	3.63	5.81	3.26
V	Public Administration	4.93	12.62	14.65	18.99
VI	Other Service	5.93	8.07	13.63	16.21

Source : Directorate of Economics & Statistics, various issues

Regression Linear Type



4. Performance of Primary and Non-Primary Sectors

By examining the sectoral shares of primary and non primary sectors in NSDP in terms of percentage, at current prices, the share of primary sector was

47.29% in 1980-81, decreased to 21.10% in 2010-11, showing a decrease of almost 26 percentage points while as at constant prices (at 1993-94 prices), in 1980-81, the percentage share of primary sector was 47.40% which decreased to 21.98% in 2010-11, showing a decrease of almost 25 percent points. At current prices, in 1980-81 the percentage share of non-primary sector was 52.71 percent which increased to 78.90 percent in 2010-11, showing an increase of almost 26 percent while as at constant prices (1993-94 prices), in 1980-81, the percentage share of non-primary sector was 52.60 percent which increased to 78.02 percent in 2010-11, showing an increase of 25.42 percentage points. The share of PS and N-PS in NSDP to state economy from 1981-2011 is shown in table below :

Table-4 : Share of PS and NPSs in NSDP to State Economy, 1981-2011 (Percent)

Year	Primary Sector/PS		Non-Primary Sector		NSDP	
	Constant Prices	Constant Prices	Constant Prices	Constant Prices	Constant Prices	Constant Prices
1980-81	47.40	47.29	52.60	52.71	100	100
1985-86	44.84	41.19	55.16	58.81	100	100
1990-91	38.47	43.29	61.53	56.71	100	100
1995-96	39.58	38.06	60.42	61.94	100	100
2000-01	32.58	33.01	67.42	66.99	100	100
2005-06	30.70	29.03	69.30	70.97	100	100
2010-11	21.98	21.10	78.02	78.90	100	100

Sources : Directorate of Economics and Statistics, J&K Government, various issues

In terms of Kuznets analysis the relative share of manufacturing has to increase in the long run there by demonstrating industrialization taking place in the economy. But disaggregating the data of Jammu and Kashmir economy, the relative share of industry is accounted for, by construction to a greater degree, i.e; by about 19.82 percent and 2.65 percent accounted for manufacturing sector and its ancillary (table 2.3). In comparison to other northern growing states, J&K is greatly dependent. Most of the construction materials and much of the labour in construction industry are imported. Therefore, the investment opportunities and gainful economic pursuits particularly in terms of employment generation are not realized in the state.

The Jammu & Kashmir economy product contribution of the agricultural sector (A-sector) has been very limited because of stagnant non-agricultural sector (non-A sector). Market contribution has also been low because most of the factor inputs required by rural population are imported like tractors, fertilizers, pesticides and other agricultural implements.

Factor contribution has remained relatively much higher than product and market contribution because increases in rural incomes, because of growth of

agricultural and tertiary sectors, have contributed significantly to capital formation which Kuznet terms as factor contribution. Further, agricultural sub- sectors like horticulture have contributed towards the foreign exchange earnings of the state which is not explicitly identified by Kuznets but is implicit in his market contribution. In order to show the contribution of agriculture to NSDP, the following expressions have been used.

$$P = P_a + P_n \quad \dots(1)$$

Whereas P = total national product P_a = agri. net product, P_n = non-agricultural net product

$$P = P_a + P_n \quad \dots(2)$$

Write r_a for P_a / P_a , r_n for P_n / P_n :

$$P = P_a r_a + P_n r_n \quad \dots(3)$$

$$P_a r_a = P - P_n r_n \quad \dots(4)$$

$$P_a r_a / P = 1 - P_n r_n / P \quad \dots(5)$$

Substituting for P on the RHS of equation (5) from equation (3) :

$$\begin{aligned} P_a r_a / P &= 1 - P_n r_n / P_a r_a + P_n r_n / P_a r_a \\ &= P_a r_a + P_n r_n - P_n r_n / P_a r_a + P_n r_n \\ &= P_a r_a / P_a r_a + P_n r_n / P_a r_a \\ &= 1 / (P_a r_a + P_n r_n) / P_a r_a \\ &= 1 / 1 + P_n r_n / P_a r_a \quad \dots(6) \end{aligned}$$

Kuznets formula expressing an inverse relationship between agriculture's share of GDP growth ($P_a r_a / P$) and the product of the ratio of sectoral shares of GDP (P_n / P_a) and the ratio of sectoral growth rates (r_n / r_a) is given by equation (6).

On the basis of these equations, relevant estimates are present in the table below

Table-5 : Agriculture's contribution to Economic Growth Rate in J&K, at 1993-94 prices

P_a		P_n		r_a		r_n	
1981 (TE)	2011 (TE)	1981 (TE)	2011 (TE)	1981-95	1996-2011	1981-95	1996-2011
47	22	53	78	2.41	3.50	4.14	9.48
P_n / P_a		r_n / r_a		P_a / r_a		P / P	
1981	2011	1981	2011	1981	2011	1981	2011
1.13	3.55	1.72	2.71	1.94	9.62	2.27	1.54

Source : Digests of Statistics, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, J&K Government, various issues.

TE : Triennium Average

P_a = A-sector (Primary Sector) share of NSDP

P_n = Non-A sector (Non-Primary Sector) share of NSDP

r_a = Average annual growth rate of A-sector product

r_n = Average annual growth of non-A sector product

P_a / r_a = Ratio of A-sector to NSDP growth (derive from P_a, P_n, r_a, r_n using Kuznets formula)

P / P = Average annual growth rate of NSDP.

The above table confirms various types of correlations explained by Kuznets Model of Structural transformation from primary to non-primary sector. The various types of correlations are as:

The percentage share of primary sector in NSDP was 47 percent where as the growth rate of non-primary sector was 4.14 percent in 1981 period. In 2011 period percentage share of NSDP decreased to 22 percent in primary sector while as the growth rate of the non-primary sector increased to 9.48 percent in the same time period. Therefore, shift of percentage share from primary to non-primary sector leads to increase in the growth rate of non-primary sector which is a viable shift for overall economy.

The growth rate of primary sector and the growth rate of non-primary sector are directly related to each other. The growth rate of primary sector was 2.41% in 1981 where as the growth rate of non-primary sector was 4.41% in the same time period. The growth rate increased to 3.5% of primary sector in 2011 while as the growth rate of the non-primary sector increased to 9.48% in the same time period. Therefore, the ratio of non-primary percentage share to primary has increased from 1.13 to 3.55 where as the ratio of growth rate of non-primary to primary sectors has increased from 1.72 to 2.71. The table again confirms the Kuznets model of inverse relation between P_a / r_a and P / P .

Therefore, from the above discussion it becomes clear that the growth rate of primary sector has not improved so much, i.e; it has not crossed 5 percent growth rate mark during the entire period. This is really a matter of concern for J&K state economy.

5. Crisis in Growth

Jammu & Kashmir economy is facing crisis in the agriculture and industrial sector as these sectors are showing a dismal performance. The agricultural sector is showing a declining trend from 1960-61 onwards and industrial sector is showing a constant trend which amounts to stagnation in the classic sense. The dismal performance of these sectors is mainly due to lack of clear cut strategy. Most of the expenditure incurred on agriculture in the state, increased over the plan period, has been on minor irrigation. Moreover the declining trend of primary sector can be attributed to the stagnation in food grain production from 1980-81 to 2010-11, lack of irrigation and modern technology. The state has not even become self sufficient in the production of agricultural commodities, both cereal and non-cereal. The production of total food grains stood at 15, 325 thousand quintals

in the year 2003-04. While as in the succeeding year, the figure stood at 15, 027 thousand quintals means a decrease by 298 thousand quintals and further decreased to 15, 025 thousand quintals during 2005-06. During 2010-11, import figure of food grains were accorded at 553.5 thousand metric tons (Digest, 2011-12, DES).

An important aspect responsible for underdevelopment of the state economy is the overdependence on imports to meet the growing needs of the population.

Table-6 : Value and Ration of Exports & Import, (in crores)

Year	Value of taxable goods Imported	Value of taxable goods Exported	Export Import Ratio (E/I)	Trade Deficit
1990-91	1253.75	507.40	0.40	746.35
1994-95	2536.53	560.84	0.22	1975.69
2000-01	938.24	939.80	0.24	-1.56
2004-05	8173.64	2509.10	0.31	5664.54
2010-11	21986.26	12202.48	0.55	9783.78

Source : Commissioner Office (Srinagar), Dept of commercial Taxes, J&K Government.

The state is suffering from very large trade deficit. The steady increase in the import and export in terms of value of taxable goods is presented in the following 1.6 table. The export-import ratio was 0.40 in 1990-91. For subsequent periods the estimates have been low the aforesaid estimates as 0.22 in 1994-95 then to 0.04 and 0.31 in 2001 and 2004-05 respectively. It is only 2010-11 that figure showed marginal improvement and has risen to 0.55.

In absolute terms the trade deficit of the state went up from 746.35 to 9783.78 in 2010-11 except in the year 2000-01 when the figure is showing the negative figure (-1.56). Exports from state include handicraft products, horticulture products, skin and hides and turpentine and wood in raw form only in the absence of necessary industrial base. The reason behind the above analysis is that the state has failed to expand its productive capacity particularly in secondary sector. However the import and export of the state has increased since last two decades attributed to the development in means of transport communication, besides banking and insurance.

6. Conclusion

To sum up, it is observed that the industrial setup prior to 1947 was practically non-existent in Jammu and Kashmir. Agriculture was the principal sector contributing towards the economy but being feudal in nature, it hardly contributed towards the development of the state economy. After independence, due importance had been given to industrial and other sectors. However, still agriculture maintains its dominance. Even government on the industrial front despite announced various measures for boosting industrial growth could not

promote industrial growth due to violence surfaced since 1989. Furthermore, the weak infrastructure has hindered in the exploration of such resources. The economic infrastructure, to a large extent, is the basis on which the economic and social development rests. Inadequate infrastructure has hampered the growth of productive sector. Thus the state economy remained a backward economy, which has been dependent on the loans, grants and packages from the centre.

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Employee Engagement : A Strategy to Business Management Tool

Richa Vats and S. K. Sharma***

Employee engagement is a workplace approach resulting in the right conditions for all members of an organization to give of their best each day, committed to their organization's goals and values, motivated to contribute to organizational success, with an enhanced sense of their own well-being. It is about understanding one's role in an organization, and being sighted and energized on where it fits in the organization's purpose and objectives. The more engaged an employee is the more work they'll put forth. Engaging employees is a long term task and cannot be accomplished by one training program, no matter how good its quality is. Organizations can build up engagement by integrity, recognition & appreciation, career growth & development and employee management relations. The purpose of this research paper is to design strategies for employee engagement, which can be used as an effective business management tool, in consideration with engagement drivers and essentials. To ensure success, the organizations should tie engagement strategy to relevant organizational outcomes and demonstrate how engagement positively affects business. By creating a culture of engagement, one can help produce tangible, upshot results for an organization.

[Keywords : Employee engagement, Outcomes, Organization, Strategy]

1. Introduction

An engaged employee is one who produces results, does not change job frequently and more importantly is the ambassador of the company at all times. The performance of an engaged employee as defined by Hay group is as follows, "a result achieved by stimulating an employees' enthusiasm for work and redirecting it towards organization success. This result can be achieved only when an

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employer offers an implicit contract to the employees aligned with organization's goals".

An employee could also be found to be experiencing three different levels of engagement. He could be engaged, not engaged or disengaged. Engaged employees are those who work with passion towards the organization's goals. An employee who is not engaged is one who is seen to be participating but not with passion and energy towards the organization's common goal. Disengaged employees are those who are unhappy at their work and act out of their unhappiness.

Engagement is also found to have three different facets, Intellectual engagement that refers to dedication towards performing better at one's job, affective engagement or feeling positive after performing one's job and lastly social engagement which is involved in discussions with others about enhancing work related improvements.

2. Defining Employee Engagement

Perrin's Global Workforce Study (2003) uses the definition, "employee's willingness and ability to help their company succeed, largely by providing discretionary effort on a sustainable basis." According to the study, engagement is affected by many factors which involve both emotional and rational factors relating to work and the overall work experience.

Gallup organization defines employee engagement as, the involvement with and enthusiasm for work. Gallup as cited by Dernovsek (2008) likens employee engagement to a positive employees, emotional attachment and employees commitment.

Robinson et al. (2004) define employee engagement as "a positive attitude held by the employee towards the organization and its value. An engaged employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. The organization must work to develop and nurture engagement, which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee."

This judgement and definition forwarded by Institute of Employment Studies gives a clear insight that, employee engagement is the result of two-way relationship between employer and employee pointing out that there are things to be done by both sides.

Furthermore, Fernandez (2007) shows the distinction between job satisfaction, the well-known construct in management, and engagement contending that employee satisfaction is not the same as employee engagement and since managers can not rely on employee satisfaction to help retain the best and the brightest, employee engagement becomes a critical concept.

Other researchers take job satisfaction as a part of engagement, but it can merely reflect a superficial, transactional relationship that is only as good as the

organization's last round of perks and bonuses. Engagement is about passion and commitment—the willingness to invest oneself and expand one's discretionary effort to help the employer succeed, which is beyond simple satisfaction with the employment arrangement or basic loyalty to the employer (Blessing White, 2008; Erickson, 2005; Macey and Schnieder, 2008).

Therefore, the full engagement equation is obtained by aligning maximum job satisfaction and maximum job contribution. Stephen Young, the executive director of Towers Perrin, also distinguishes between job satisfaction and engagement contending that only engagement (not satisfaction) is the strongest predictor of organizational performance (Human Resources, 2007).

Recent researches also indicate that Employee commitment and OCB are important parts and predictors of employee engagement in that commitment is conceptualized as positive attachment and willingness to exert energy for success of the organization, feeling proud of being a member of that organization and identifying oneself with it and OCB is a behaviour observed within the work context that demonstrates itself through taking innovative initiatives proactively seeking opportunities to contribute one's best and going extra mile beyond employment contract.

However, these constructs constitute the bigger construct employee engagement and they can not independently act as a replacement for engagement (Macey and Schneider, 2008; Robinson et al, 2004).

If looked at the available literatures on measuring employee engagement, one would get surprisingly several measurement items to the extent that it seems different constructs are being measured (Robinson et al, 2004; Cohen and Higgins, 2007; Perrin, 2003; Ellis and Sorenson, 2007; Dernovsek, 2008).

Future researches are expected to come up with clear definition and dimensions of employee engagement on basis of which the level of engagement can be measured thereby pointing out to managers the roadmap for fully engaging employees in their job. As the old saying goes "what you can't measure, you can't manage".

3. Drivers of Employee Engagement

Most work experiences are perceived by employees to be within the control of management. Engagement drivers are the deep down feelings and emotions that employees have about their position, management and organization. They correspond to the deeper needs of the individual and contribute to a state of well-being and increased levels of energy and passion that goes into every action.

When leaders manage these drivers and turn them into positive experiences, employees consistently strive to do their best work. Employees are the single most important asset in every organization, and their engagement level speaks volumes about the organizations health. By measuring employee engagement, employers

can see how to implement an engagement strategy to address any areas of declined employee engagement.

Analyzing and understanding the drivers of engagement can help identify where and how engagement initiatives should be targeted. Here are some options to consider :

1. **Integrity and Trustworthiness of Leadership/Management** : This is at the top of the list. To earn employee engagement, they must trust their managers, believe they have integrity, and demonstrate sincere interest in employee well being. Such managers have the ability to communicate difficult messages well, listen to employees, follow through with action, and communicate back.
2. **Employee/Management Relationship** : Buckingham and Coffman asserted that this is the most powerful driver of employee engagement. Relationships are four times more important in driving engagement, so spend time building that relationship.
3. **Freedom to Unleash Passion and Creative Potential** : This can be gained by contributing through special talents, skills and passion. Employees want to work with an organization that fully engages their unique talents, that encourages their passion, and that feeds their energy and drive.
4. **Career Growth and Development** : This refers to the degree to which an employee feels there are future opportunities for career growth and promotion within a modality, the department, or company, and, to a lesser degree is aware of a clearly defined path.
5. **Recognition and Appreciation** : Where employees are recognized, rewarded, appreciated, and enjoy a fair compensation package. Everyone wants a little recognition for their achievements - it is, perhaps, one of the most primal of human needs. Employee recognition reinforces individual and team accomplishments and encourages more of the same behaviour.
6. **High-trust** : Environment where there is mutual trust and support to take calculated risks. Employees have to be trusted to do what is expected of them, to make decisions that are best for the organization based on the guidelines in place. Employees also have to be able to trust management to communicate effectively and with integrity. When a team really clicks and is productive and in harmony, it is clear that they truly trust one another.
7. **Clarity of Purpose and Direction** : Understanding the vision, mission, road map and direction of the organization is critical. Employees want a clear sense of what their organization stands for and wants to accomplish. Employees want to know their exact roles and responsibilities and the roles of others in the organization. With clarity, everyone will be more willing to pull together for a common cause.

4. Employee Engagement Strategies

Employee engagement strategies listed below are :

- 1. Start it on day one :** Effective recruitment and orientation programs are the first building blocks to be laid on the first day of the new employee. Managers should be careful in pooling out the potential talent of the new employee through effective recruitment. The newly hired employee should be given both general orientation which is related to the company mission, vision, values, policies and procedures and job-specific orientation such as his/her job duties, and responsibilities, goals and current priorities of the department to which the employee belongs in order to enable him/her to develop realistic job expectations and reduce role conflict that might arise in the future. The manager should also ensure role-talent fit when placing an employee in a certain position and exert all managerial efforts needed to retain that talent in the organization.
- 2. Start it from the top :** Employee engagement requires leadership commitment through establishing clear mission, vision and values. Unless the people at the top believe in it, own it, pass it down to managers and employees, and enhance their leadership, employee engagement will never be more than just a fascination. Employee engagement requires dedicated heart and action-oriented service from top management.
- 3. Enhance employee engagement through two-way communication :** Managers should promote two-way communication. Employees are not sets of pots to which you pour out your ideas without giving them a chance to have a say on issues that matter to their job and life. Clear and consistent communication of what is expected of them paves the way for engaged workforce. Involve your people and always show respect to their input. Share power with your employees through participative decision making so that they would feel sense of belongingness thereby increasing their engagement in realizing it.
- 4. Give satisfactory opportunities for development and advancement :** Encourage independent thinking through giving them more job autonomy so that employees will have a chance to make their own freedom of choosing their own best way of doing their job so long as they are producing the expected result. Manage through results rather than trying to manage all the processes by which that result is achieved.
- 5. Ensure that employees have every thing they need to do their jobs :** Managers are expected to make sure that employees have all the resources such as physical or material, financial and information resources in order to effectively do their job.
- 6. Give employee's appropriate training :** Help employees update themselves increasing their knowledge and skills through giving appropriate trainings.

Generally it is understood that when employees get to know more about their job, their confidence increases there by being able to work without much supervision from their immediate managers which in turn builds their self-efficacy and commitment.

7. **Have strong feedback system** : Companies should develop a performance management system which holds managers and employees accountable for the level of engagement they have shown. Conducting regular survey of employee engagement level helps make out factors that make employees engaged. After finalizing the survey, it is advisable to determine all the factors that driving engagement in the organization. It is important that organizations begin with a concentration on the factors that will make the most difference to the employees and put energy around improving these areas as it may be difficult to address all factors at once. Managers should be behind such survey results and develop action-oriented plans that are specific, measurable, and accountable and time- bound.
8. **Incentives have a part to play** : Managers should work out both financial and non-financial benefits for employees who show more engagement in their jobs. Several management theories have indicated that when employees get more pay, recognition and praise, they tend to exert more effort into their job. There should be a clear link between performance and incentives given to the employees.
9. **Build a distinctive corporate culture** : Companies should promote a strong work culture in which the goals and values of managers are aligned across all work sections. Companies that build a culture of mutual respect by keeping success stories alive will not only keep their existing employees engaged but also they describe the new incoming employees with this catching spirit of work culture.
10. **Focus on top-performing employees** : A study conducted by Watson Wyatt Worldwide in 2004/05 on HR practices of 50 large USA firms shows that high-performing organizations are focusing on engaging their top-performing employees. According to the finding of the same research, what high-performing firms are doing is what top-performing employees are asking for and this reduces the turnover of high-performing employees and as a result leads to top business performance.

5. Avoiding Common Pitfalls in Engagement Strategy

1. Evaluate, evaluate and evaluate again! Many organizations focus on the implementation of engagement strategies without evaluating their effectiveness. Having an engagement strategy is key; however, you must also determine whether it is making a difference. An organization's values often determine what is critical to measure.

2. Focus on a few facets of engagement to build a strategy. Organizations often bite off more than they can chew with engagement strategies. Certain facets of engagement may not fit with your organization, market or industry, so carefully define the scope of your efforts. Use restraint when identifying key drivers of engagement and rational strategies for moving the needle.
3. Do not consider engaging employees an “initiative”. Engaging employees is a business function that should become part of the culture, as integral to business as sales or accounting. Organizations that treat it as just an initiative often fail to reap the rewards of engagement efforts.

6. Conclusion

Engaging employees is a long term task and cannot be accomplished by one training program, no matter how good its quality is. Organizations can improve engagement by opportunity thinking, enhancing employee decision-making, and commitment.

Organizations need to instill a sense of involvement, positive emotions about their work and a sense of community in their employees. Emphasis should be given employee opinions and opportunities should be provided to them to be heard. Transparency from the senior leadership will also make the organization culture more open. The organizations should also use appropriate training programmes to ensure supervisors build a supportive environment to empower their subordinates.

Employees who are highly engaged in their work are likely to be more productive and more committed to your organization. To increase engagement, create a broad engagement strategy, of which the engagement survey is just one part. Designing and implementing an effective and sustained engagement strategy requires input and buy-in from employees, leadership and other stakeholders, but it is well worth the effort.

To ensure success, the organizations should tie engagement strategy to relevant organizational outcomes and demonstrate how engagement positively affects business metrics. By creating a culture of engagement, one can help produce tangible, bottom-line results for an organization.

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The Impact Analysis of Foreign Direct Investment Inflows in Developing Economy

*Bhupendra Kumar**

This paper attempted to make an analysis of FDI in India and its impact on growth. It also focuses on the determinants and needs of FDI, year-wise analysis, sectoral analysis and sources of FDI and reasons. One of the economic aspects of globalization is the fact that increasing investments in the form of foreign direct investments. In the recent times due to the global recession most of the countries have not been able to pull investments. India has been able to attract better FDI's than the developed countries even during the crisis period also. Especially in the recent years the FDI in India has been following a positive growth rate. Since 1991 the government has focused on liberalization of policies to welcome foreign direct investments. These investments have been a key driver for accelerating the economic growth through technology transfer, employment generation, and improved access to managerial expertise, global capital, product markets and distribution network. FDI in India has enabled to achieve a certain degree of financial stability; growth and development to sustain and compete in the global economy.

[Keywords : FDI, GDP, Growth, Development, Indian economy]

1. Introduction

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is an investment directly into production and services in a country by a company located in another country, either by buying a company or by expanding business in that country. It is another mode of doing business in a foreign country (Subba Rao, 2009). Foreigners may subscribe to shares and debentures of another country's concerns. Foreigners may subscribe to shares and debentures of another country's concerns. Foreign direct investment is

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one of the measures of growing economic globalization. Investment has always been an issue for the developing economies such as India. The world has been globalizing and all the countries are liberalizing their policies for welcoming investment from countries which are abundant in capital resources. The countries which are developed are focusing on new markets where there is availability of abundant labours, scope for products, and high profits are achieved. Therefore Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has become a battle ground in the emerging markets. The objective behind allowing FDI is to complement and supplement domestic investment, for achieving a higher level of economic development and providing opportunities for technological up gradation, as well as access to global managerial skills and practices¹. South Asian countries such as china have implemented open door policies during 1980's but India liberalized its policies in 1991. Before pre-liberalization India followed conservative policies to protect the indigenous investors and industrialist. The economic growth has not been achieved. In 1991, the then congress government had implemented liberalization policies to restructure the Indian economy.

2. Objectives

The main objectives of this paper are as follows :

1. To make analysis of the growth and trends and patterns of FDI inflow in India.
2. To study impact of FDI on economic indicators in India.
3. To make projections of FDI in India and make necessary suggestions.
4. To identify the various determinants of FDI.
5. To understand the need for FDI in India.

3. Methodology

The study is based on the extensive survey of secondary data which is collected from published research papers, websites, reference books, journals and reports etc.

4. Literature Review

Andersen P. S. and Hainaut P. (2004) in their paper "Foreign Direct Investment and Employment in the Industrial Countries" point out that while looking for evidence regarding a possible relationship between foreign direct investment and employment, in particular between outflows and employment in the source countries in response to outflows. They also find that high labour costs encourage outflows and discourage inflows and that such effect can be reinforced by exchange rate movements. The distribution of FDI towards services also suggests that a large proportion of foreign investment is undertaken with the purpose of expanding sales and improving the distribution of exports produced in

the source countries. According to this study the principle determinants of FDI flows are prior trade patterns, IT related investments and the scopes for cross - border mergers and acquisitions. Finally, the authors find clear evidence that outflows complement rather than substitute for exports and thus help to protect rather than destroy jobs John Andreas (2004) in his work "The Effects of FDI Inflows on Host Country Economic Growth" discusses the potential of FDI inflows to affect host country economic growth. The paper argues that FDI should have a positive effect on economic growth as a result of technology spillovers and physical capital inflows. Performing both cross - section and panel data analysis on a dataset covering 90 countries during the period 1980 to 2002, the empirical part of the paper finds indications that FDI inflows enhance economic Growth in developing economies but not in developed economies. This paper has assumed that the direction of causality goes from inflow of FDI to host country economic growth. However, economic growth could itself cause an increase in FDI inflows. Economic growth increases the size of the host country market and strengthens the incentives for market seeking FDI. This could result in a situation where FDI and economic growth are mutually supporting. However, for the ease of most of the developing economies growth is unlikely to result in market - seeking FDI due to the low income levels. Therefore, causality is primarily expected to run from FDI inflows to economic growth for these economies. Klaus E. Meyer (2005) in his paper "Foreign Direct investment in Emerging Economies" focuses on the impact of FDI on host economies and on policy and managerial implications arising from this (potential) impact. The study finds out that as emerging economies integrate into the global economies international trade and investment will continue to accelerate. MNEs will continue to act as pivotal interface between domestic and international markets and their relative importance may even increase further.

5. FDI Policy in India

In the pre-liberalization period, India had followed an extremely cautious and selective approach while formulating FDI policy. The historical background of FDI in India can be traced back with the establishment of East India Company of Britain. British capital came to India during the colonial era. Before independence, major FDI came from the British companies. After Second World War Japanese companies entered in the Indian Market. After independence, issues relating to foreign capital, MNCs, gained attention of policy makers. The industrial policy of 1965, allowed MNCs to venture through technical collaboration in India. The govt. has provided many incentives such as tax concessions, simplified licensing etc to boost the FDI inflows. In fact, in the early nineties, Indian economy faced severe balance of payment crisis. India was left with that much amount of foreign exchange reserves which can finance its three weeks of imports. In this critical face of Indian economy, economic reforms were made in 1991 and India opened its

doors of FDI inflows and adopted a more liberal foreign policy to restore the confidence of foreign investors.

A series of measures that were directed towards liberalizing foreign investment included the following :

- Introduction of dual route of approval of FDI : RBI's automatic route and Government's approval route through Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) and Secretariat for Industrial Assistance (SIA).
- Automatic permission for technology agreements in high priority industries and liberalization of technology imports.
- Permission to NRIs and Overseas Corporate Bodies to invest up to 100% in high priority sectors.
- Hike in the foreign equity holding limits to 51% and liberalization of the use of foreign brands name.
- Signing of the convention of multilateral investment guarantee agency for protection of foreign investments these efforts were boosted by the enactment of Foreign Exchange Management Act. 1999 that replaced the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act.1973. This along with the sequential financial sector reforms paved way for greater capital account liberalization in India. GOI announced significant measures like 100% FDI in business to business (B2B), airports, e-commerce, power sector, oil refining. Manufacturing activities in all SEZs can have 100% Automatic route except for arms, explosives, allied defence equipments, narcotics etc.

6. Need for FDI in India

As India is a developing country, capital has been one of the scarce resources that are usually required for economic development. Capital is limited and there are many issues such as Health, poverty, employment, education, research and development, technology obsolesce, global competition. The flow of FDI in India from across the world will help in acquiring the funds at cheaper cost, better technology, employment generation, and upgraded technology transfer, scope for more trade, linkages and spillovers to domestic firms. The following arguments are advanced in favor of foreign capital :

- 1. Sustaining a high level of investment :** As all the under-developed and the developing countries want to industrialize and develop themselves, therefore it becomes necessary to raise the level to investment substantially. Due to poverty and low GDP the saving are low. Therefore there is a need to fill the gap between income and savings through foreign direct investments.
- 2. Technological gap :** In Indian scenario we need technical assistance from foreign source for provision of expert services, training of Indian personnel and educational, research and training institutions in the industry. It only comes through private foreign investment or foreign collaborations.

3. **Exploitation of natural resources** : in India we have abundant natural resources such as coal, iron and steel but to extract the resources we require foreign collaboration.
4. **Understanding the initial risk** : In developing countries as capital is a scare resource, the risk of investments in new ventures or projects for industrialization is high Therefore foreign capital helps in these investments which require high risk
5. **Development of basic economic infrastructure** : In the recent years foreign financial institutions and government of advanced countries have made substantial capital available to the under developed countries. FDI will help in developing the infrastructure by establishing firm's different parts of the country. There are special economic zones which have been developed by government for improvising the industrial growth.
6. **Improvement in the balance of payments position** : The inflow FDI will help in improving the balance of payment. Firms which feel that the goods produced in India will have a low cost, will produce the goods and export the same to other country. This helps in increasing the exports.
7. **Foreign firms help in increasing the competition** : Foreign firms have always come up with better technology, process, and innovations comparing with the domestic firms. They develop a completion in which the domestic firms will perform better it survive in the market.

7. Positive Aspects of FDI in Retail

- More investments in the end to end supply chain and world class cold storage facilities.
- Low spillage and wastage of farm produce during the transportation.
- Better options and offers to the consumer.
- Increase in economic growth by dealing in various international products.
- According to the UPA Government 1 million (10 lakh) employment will be created in next three years.
- Billion dollars will be invested in Indian retail market.
- Agriculture related people will get good price for their goods.

8. Negative Aspects of FDI in Retail

- Will affect 50 million small merchants in India.
- Profit distribution and investment ratios are not fixed.
- An economically backward class person may suffer from price raise in future.
- Retailer faces heavy loss of employment and profit.

- Workers safety and policies are not mentioned clearly.
- Inflation may be increased.
- Small farmers will not benefit by FDI policy.
- The rural India will remain deprived of the services of foreign players.

9. Determinants of FDI

The determinant varies from one country to another due their unique characteristics and opportunities for the potential investors. In specific the determinants of FDI in India are :

1. **Stable policies** : India stable economic and socio-policies have attracted investors across border. Investors prefer countries which stable economic policies. If the government makes changes in policies which will have effect on the business The business requires a lot of funds to be deployed and any change in policy against the investor will have a negative effect.
2. **Economic factors** : Different economic factors encourage inward FDI. These include interest loans, tax breaks, grants, subsidies and the removal of restrictions and limitation. The government of India has given many tax exemption and subsidies to the foreign investors who would help in developing the economy.
3. **Cheap and skilled labour** : There is abundant labour available in India in terms of skilled and unskilled human resources. Foreign investors will to take advantage of the difference in the cost of labour as we have cheap and skilled labours. Example: Foreign firms have invested in BPO's in India which require skilled labour and we have been providing the same.
4. **Basic infrastructure** : India though is a developing country, it has developed special economic zone where there have focused to build required infrastructure such as roads, effective transportation and registered carrier departure worldwide, Information and communication network/ technology, powers, financial institutions, and legal system and other basic amenities which are must for the success of the business. A sound legal system and modern infrastructure supporting an efficient distribution of goods and services in the host country
5. **Unexplored markets** : In India there is large scope for the investors because there is a large section of markets have not explored or unutilized. In India there is enormous potential customer market with large middle class income group who would be target group for new markets. Example : BPO was one sector where the investors had large scope exploring the markets where the service was provided with just a call, with almost customer satisfaction.
6. **Availability of natural resources** : As we that India has large volume of natural resources such as coal, iron ore, Natural gas etc. If natural resources

are available they can be used in production process or for extraction of mines by the foreign investors.

10. Impact of FDI on Indian Economy

FDI have helped India to attain a financial stability and economic growth with the help of investments in different sectors. FDI has boosted the economic life of India and on the other hand there are critics who have blamed the government for ousting the domestic inflows. After liberalization of Trade policies in India, there has been a positive GDP growth rate in Indian economy. Foreign direct investments help in developing the economy by generating Employment to the unemployed, generating revenues in the form of tax and incomes, financial stability to the government, development of infrastructure, backward and forward Linkages to the domestic firms for the requirements of raw materials, tools, business infrastructure, and act as support for financial system forward and back ward linkages are Developed to support the foreign firm with supply of raw and other requirements. It helps in Generation of employment and also helps poverty eradication There are many businesses or Individuals who would earn their lively hood through the foreign investments There are legal And financial consultants who also guide in the early stage of establishment of firm.

11. Conclusion

This paper focuses on theoretical aspects of FDI in India during the last ten years, determinants and need of FDI in Indian scenario. India has been one of the developing Countries and has managed to show a positive GDP growth even during the recession period. It has comparatively performed well, and then the average growth rate of world GDP. India has all the variables such as fine infrastructure, potential markets, abundant labour, availability of natural resources, and at last the economic and trades policies which has been favoring FDI. India is now rated as the second-most favored destination for FDI in the world after China, but it is expected that in future India would out beet china as it has a large proportion of young population with one of the fastest growing economies. Instead of the government should formulate the policies FDI in India will bring various benefits like advancement of knowledge, skill, technology, exports, employment and management. But MNCs may create for drain from India. Indian companies will face stiff competition from foreign companies. Thus, while allowing different sectors like multi-brand retailing, GOI should have to take a cautious steps.FDI in retail could expose the retail traders in domestic markets to unfair competition and thereby eventually reading to job losses. A balanced and objective view needs to be taken in this regard; foreign investment in portfolio may be withdrawn at any time. Therefore GOI should stress to attract more equity investments. Further the regulatory policies should be made favorable and policymakers should avoid uncertainties for boosting FDI in India and ultimately

to increase GDP, Trade and Foreign reserves. Retailers in India can fight against foreign retailers and survive in the competition due to their own merits like- local market, low price, close customer relations, credit facility, intimacy with customer and personalized services.

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India's Engagement in Afghanistan : Post Taliban Scenario

Mohd Shahzad*

India and Afghanistan have enjoyed a good relationship based on historical and cultural links since time immemorial. Also there is no denying that peace and stability in Afghanistan is essential prerequisite for the entire region of South Asia. In recent past, in 1979, India was the first South Asian nation which recognized the Soviet Union backed communist government, the People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan (PDPA). However, the relations between two countries were badly damaged in the Taliban era. Most of the countries of the world did not recognize the Taliban except Saudi Arabia, Pakistan and United Arab Emirates. After 9/11, when the Taliban was toppled by the United States of America, the relations between both the countries improved. In the area of reconstruction and development of Afghanistan, India has been playing a very important role. Apart from many reconstruction works, India also helped in the areas of education, health care and other sectors of Afghanistan for its better development. Recently, Indian Prime Minister Mr. Narendra Modi inaugurated Afghan Parliament and Salma Dam (located in Herat Province) constructed with the help of India. The paper will be based on both primary and secondary sources of data. This paper will highlight the relations between India and Afghanistan post Taliban regime particularly in the areas of reconstruction and educational development. Concluding aspect of this paper will highlight the growing activism of India's diplomacy vis-à-vis Afghanistan under the present government.

[**Keywords :** Taliban, Reconstruction, Development, India, Afghanistan]

1. Introduction

Afghanistan is the one of the nearest neighbouring country of India, sharing a very long history of social and cultural ties with each other. A war-ravaged

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country, suffers much from terrorism with Taliban establishing deep roots with the alleged favour of Pakistan.¹ India has been actively involved in Afghanistan since 2001, especially, reconstruction and development of new Afghanistan. India has invested more than 3\$ billion dollar particularly in the areas of health, education, dams, roads, military equipments and women empowerment. The relations between India and Afghanistan can be gauged from the four phases. First phase began in the aftermath of India's freedom from British Government in 1947 and lasted until the end of cold war (1990). India and Afghanistan both enjoyed a cordial relationship during this phase despite Soviet intervention in Afghanistan (1979-89).² The second phase commenced with the demise of the Cold War in 1991 and continued till Taliban regime was ousted in 2001. During this phase, India was generally isolated from Afghan political scene for the first time since 1947. New Delhi had very limited communication with the victorious Afghan mujahedin during the Afghan jihad. In the presidency of Burhanuddin Rabbani, however, for a short period, the relations between both countries were of lukewarm nature. But, after the Taliban came back to the power, the relationship became worse between both the countries. However, on the other hand for the first time in Afghan history, Kabul's bilateral relations with Islamabad became very strong. It was because of India's support to the Northern Alliance, Taliban never tried to improve its diplomatic relations nor showed any overtures to New Delhi.³

The third phase began when Taliban Government was toppled in 2001. And Indian educated Hamid Karzai became the President of Afghanistan. In this particular phase, India emerged as an important regional power and investor. Gradually, India opened its embassy in Kabul and four other consulates in Jalabad (Eastern Afghanistan), Herat (Northern Afghanistan), Kandhar (Southern Afghanistan) and Mazar-e-Sharief (Western Afghanistan). India pledged to give more than \$ 2 billion in aid and therefore, it became fifth largest international donor. With the strong support of India, Afghanistan became a new member of the South Asia Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC) regional grouping. In addition, in 2011, under Dr. Manmohan Singh, India signed a Strategic Partnership Agreement (SPA) with Afghanistan and hence agreed to assist Afghanistan in the "training, equipping and capacity building programmes for Afghan National forces."⁴ The fourth phase began when Narendra Modi became prime Minister of India and Ashraf Ghani became President of Afghanistan.

2. India's Assistance to Afghanistan

2.1 Education

To helping the Afghans especially in the area of higher education the Indian Government formulated a scholarship programme particularly designed for Afghan students under auspices of Indian Council of Cultural Relations (ICCR). The main goal of this scholarship programme was to provide quality higher education to all deserving Afghans without any discrimination in terms of gender,

ethnicity, religion or geography.⁵ ICCR every year provides approximately 3365 scholarships schemes to students from all over the world, namely from Third-world countries from Asia, Africa, South and Central America. From these scholarships, 1000 are especially for Afghan students. This scholarship was started for Afghan students in 2005 during the Karzai Government. The ICCR scholarships are given to graduate, post-graduate and doctoral programmes as well as professional courses such as Engineering, Pharmacy, Accountancy, Business Administration and management in different universities of India. In addition, it offered for learning Indian dance, music, painting Sculpture, etc.⁶ Moreover, when Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi visited Kabul in December 2015, promised that he will provide 500 scholarships for the children of the martyrs of Afghan Security Forces in different Universities in India.⁷ These kinds of scholarships should be increased and also implemented for Afghan's students which can help improve and enhance their educational skills and boost up their confidence.

To helping school going children in Afghanistan, India provided approximately 500,000 tonnes of wheat, later it was converted in the form of fortified wheat biscuits with the help of World Food Programme and distributed per day up to 2 million Afghan school children. In Jun 2011, there was a disagreement between Indian and Afghan government's over the payment for the transportation while Pakistan blocked wheat transition through its area. Finally in March 2012, Pakistan agreed to allow 100,000 tonnes of wheat to pass through its territory by road and rail via Karachi.⁸ Apart from this, India also helped to rebuild Habiba College, which is situated in front of Babar Mausoleum. The Habiba School is oldest school of Afghanistan founded in 1903. The school was severely damaged due to three decade of conflict. Most of the walls and windows were broken by the gun. To motivate and improve Afghanistan's education skills, India began reconstruction work of Habiba College building in September 2003. Within the span of two years the whole school was rebuilt with the costing about \$5 million.⁹

2.2 Health

Due to three decades of war in Afghanistan, there were a umpteen civilian deaths and many more were injured. To reach the urgent and emergency needs, India sent a team of 13 doctors and paramedics to Kabul in the end of 2001 and subsequently, a number of camps were established in different areas of Afghanistan for fitting artificial limbs. In addition, India sent a five Indian Medical Mission (IMMS). The five IIMS gives free consultation and free medicines to the poorest of the poor patients from neighbouring provinces (such as a Kabul, Herat, Jalalabad, Kandhar and Mazar-e-sharief). Approximately, 360, 000 patients are being received these services annually.¹⁰ India took the responsibility to rehabilitate the Indira Gandhi Institute for Child Health (IGICH, Kabul) in 2003. This is one of the special hospitals for children in Afghanistan. The foundation stone of this prestigious hospital's was laid by last late king Zahir Shah and late President of India Dr. Zakir Hussain in 1966. It was inaugurated in 1972 by King Zahir Shah, and later in 1985 it

was renamed as Indira Gandhi Institute of Child Health. India completed its new three stories surgical block in 2005 and the polyclinic block was completed in 2007. Now, there are facilities of CT scan and MRI. Moreover, there were some IGICH's doctors who were trained at All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi.¹¹ In this entire renovation phase, India has spent nearly \$2.7 million.

Furthermore, due to longevity of conflict a very huge toll of persons lost their limbs, in January 2002. India established Jaipur foot fitment camp at Kabul Military Hospital. Roughly, 1000 limbs were fastened. To help more patient, India opened another camp in Mazar-e-sharief where around 600 appendages were fixed. After closing the camp, all materials & equipments were given to the authority of Mazar-e-sharief and in this manner and following the sequence of events the training camp was named jointly by two countries as Indo-Afghan Rehabilitation Centre.¹²

2.3 Military Sector

India has not been actively involved in military assistance to Afghanistan since 2001 in comparison to humanitarian assistance. However, India has provided some equipments and other help to Afghan's Army. However, the foreign ministers of both the countries agreed that India will provide more assistance to strengthen to its security forces and will also increase training facilities to its defence forces that have been battling hard against resurgent Taliban for many years.¹³ In this regard, on October 4, 2011, both nations agreed to sign a milestone agreement on "strategic Partnership" which included economic and security cooperation, and to train and provide equipments to Afghan Nationals Forces, and hence make a "strategic dialogue" between both nations' possible in order to provide a framework for cooperation for the Afghan National Security.¹⁴

Moreover, according to one report, \$8 million value of high-altitude warfare equipments were provided to Afghanistan by India and shared high ranking military advisers and helicopter technicians from its secret foreign counter intelligence organization, and the Research and Analysis Wing (RAW).¹⁵ Despite Pakistan's protest, Afghanistan searched for Indian help in the military sector. India provided help in servicing the Afghan Air force fleet of MIG 21 fighters and other defence apparatus, mainly those which were made by Russia.¹⁶ According to a new report, India has already expended \$3 billion aid to Afghanistan, to providing security help in the form of training and has also provided some utility and attack helicopter.¹⁷

2.4 Reconstruction

India has been playing very important role since Taliban was toppled by Afghanistan Central power backed by USA. In this very sector, India has helped in many sectors like highways, roads, dam, parliament building etc.

2.4.1 India-Afghanistan Friendship Dam (Salma Dam)

The \$290 million dam was formally inaugurated by the Indian Prime Minister Narendar Modi and Afghanistan President Ashraf Ghani in 2016. Earlier it was

known by the name Salma Dam, but was renamed as Afghan-India Friendship Dam in 2015.¹⁸ However, the construction work in Afghanistan was started by India early in 1976. But due to war, it was heavily damaged. Again in 1998, an Indian Company took the responsibility of project but the work on halted due to security concerns. But again with the assistance of Indian government it was re-started in 2006. It has about 640 million cubic metres storage capacity and can generate 43 MWs of electricity and will help irrigate about 80,000 acres agricultural land.¹⁹ In this entire project, India invested nearly \$300 million.

In the area of highways and roads constructions, India has significantly contributed to Afghanistan. It built 215-km Zaranj-Delaram Highway, which connects Afghanistan to Iran. It will be able to access sea via Iran and will provide a shorter route to Afghanistan for Indian goods. India as well as deployed a strong-300 Paramilitary force for safety of this project.²⁰ The highway has connected most of the Afghan main cities such as Kabul, Kandhar, Herat, Mazar-e-sharif and Kunduz to each other. Moreover, most of the major cities of Afghanistan have been connected to the Chabhar.²¹ In completing this project, six Indian lives were consumed including four ITBP soldiers and one BRO (Border Road Organization) driver and 129 Afghans were also lost their lives. Initially, the cost of the project was approximately Rs. 740 crores but BRO Completed it before six months ahead of stipulated time period and only at cost of Rs. 600 crores.²² Strategically this highway is very significant for India and could be a gateway for Indian goods to Central Asian countries in near future.

2.4.2 Chabhar Port

After inauguration of first phase of Chabhar Port in December 2017 in Sistan-Baluchistan Province by Iranian President India can get access to very cheapest routes for their goods transit to Central Asian Countries and for European Countries in near future. It is also said that it will compete Chinese-built Gawader Port of Pakistan, and approximately, 80 Km away from Chabhar.²³ India has already pledged to invest \$500 million to build this project.

In 2017, India sent three consignments of wheat through this port to Afghanistan (It is on the list of agreements between India and Afghanistan that India will send 1.1 million tonnes of wheat to Afghanistan). India also pledged to make a multi-purpose terminal and a 610 Km north-south railway line connect to Afghanistan and Central Asia by this port.²⁴ For this rail link, India has committed to provide \$1.6 billion.²⁵ When the construction of Chabhar Port gets fully completed, Indian goods will reach not only to Afghanistan, rather they will further go to Central Asia via International North-south Transport Corridor (INSTC).²⁶ It is said that this route can reduce the cost of expenses of goods. Some studies revealed that, "the corridor could bring down cost, time of cargo trade to Europe by about 50%."²⁷

3. India's Policy towards Afghanistan under Modi Government

Initially, after becoming the president of Afghanistan under National Unity Government (NUG), Ashraf Ghani wanted to please Pakistani political

establishment and subsequently tried to secure Pakistan's assistance in order to end the insecurity and bring about a long-lasting peace in Afghanistan. The new president felt that Pakistan was supporting the violence, hence if Kabul removed Pakistani concerns it might help Afghans. Ghani did not visit India for a period of about 7 months to please Pakistani leadership. On the other hand; Kabul sent Afghan soldiers to Pakistan Military Academy for training and signed a memorandum of understanding on intelligence sharing with Pakistan's Intelligence Service (ISI).²⁸ Ghani even visited Pakistan army's General Headquarters (GHQ) in Rawalpindi in November 2014 which was not perceived well by the Indian political establishment. While, he also visited Beijing, and indicated that he looked forward of India's role in Afghanistan in an aid work and other areas of priority, but this was understood as a clear shift in approach from his predecessor Karzai who always considered India as a critical security partner.²⁹

But gradually, Kabul's policy towards Islamabad changed after Pakistan's failure to take any stern and coherent action against the Taliban or bring them to negotiating table. Rather what followed was the high insecurity and a series of bomb blast explosions in Kabul.³⁰ In the aftermath of all this, his disappointment was much palpable over the failure of Pakistan to bring the Afghan Taliban to a negotiating agreement. He blamed Pakistan for disturbing peace and security in the region.³¹ In August 2015, Ghani said that, "Pakistan still remains a venue and ground for gatherings from which mercenaries send us messages of war... and the bomb making facilities used to target and murder our innocent people still operate, as in the past, in Pakistan."³² In December 2016, Mr. Ghani rejected Pakistan's foreign policy advisor Sartaz Aziz's, pledge of USD 500 million assistance for the reconstruction of Afghanistan, at the inaugural of the Sixth Heart of Asia Conference-Istanbul Process in Amritsar, and he stated that "the money was of no use until there was peace and stability in his country."³³ Further he stated that, "This fund could very well be used to contain extremists because without peace any amount of assistance will not meet the needs of our people."³⁴

Due to above statements regarding Pakistan by the President Ghani, India again started to mend its relations with Afghanistan. In this context, Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi visited Kabul in December 2015, and inaugurated two of India most important initiatives that is, the Afghan Parliament building and provided four M-25 attack helicopters. Supply of military helicopters indicated that India not only supplied non-lethal help such as transport vehicles and training to Afghanistan but lethal assistance like a M-25 helicopters under Prime Minister Modi. In June 2016, PM Modi again visited Afghanistan and jointly inaugurated the Afghan-India Friendship Dam in Herat Province. This was a second visit in span of six months. After inauguration of Dam Modi, Modi said, "India will not forget you or turn away... Your friendship is our honour; your dreams are our duty." The importance of this was that Mr. Modi was conferred highest civilian honour of Afghanistan, The Amir Amanatullah Khan Award.³⁵ India has recently signed a 9.5 million Memorandum of understanding with Afghanistan in January 2019. The

MoUs were for infra-structure such as public services, health clinics and governance related projects.³⁶ Therefore, it can be said that under Modi, India has capably managed its relationship with Afghanistan and has continued to provide aid and train Afghan security personnel while creating an air corridor to strength bilateral trade. Apart from and among all this, India has gone ahead with the construction of a port in Chabhar, Iran, in order to create a land-and sea route to Afghanistan.³⁷

4. Conclusion

The Indo-Afghan relations have been of cordial nature ever since Taliban rule. The relations have been remarkable especially in the areas of reconstruction of Afghanistan. India has assisted in infrastructure and welfare projects of war-torn country worth millions of dollars and hence has earned goodwill from Afghanistan.³⁸ The relations between both countries have further strengthened under the Narendra Modi and Ashraf Ghani, and India has signed some new projects and MoUs worth millions of dollars. For future perspectives, India should actively involve itself more and more in Afghanistan. Also India has signed TAPI gas project that connects four countries and particularly it will fulfil the energy demands of India and Pakistan.³⁹ The most important reason why India should involve itself more in Afghanistan is fight against Jehadi groups. As I would like to quote one of the most prominent scholar of modern time, Henry Kissinger, once who said that "In many respects, India will be the most affected country if Jehadi Islamism gains impetus in Afghanistan."⁴⁰ USA has already directly started to negotiate with Taliban without Afghan government representatives. It can strategically and diplomatically create problem for India in the foreseeable future.⁴¹ The option before India should be to pressurize its close ally, USA to involve Afghan government representatives in US-Taliban talks. India can also pressurize its old friend Russia for the same purpose. If the things do not proceed as per the above said then world again could see a situation that happened after the withdrawal of Soviet Union from the Afghanistan.

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Administrator's Image among Politicians : A Study of Himachal Pradesh

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Administrators and politicians play crucial role in development, social welfare and national building. There are some situations where conflicts among both arise on certain issues. Administrators are responsible for implementing the government policies and programme, but in some cases politicians find that Administrators are not implementing the programme fairly and impartiality. The federal system cannot run smoothly if Administrators and politicians are not sincere to each other. There are some situations when conflict arises among them. Keeping in view this vital aspect, the present study is conducted in Himachal Pradesh to analyze the Administrator's Image in among Politicians.

[**Keywords** : Administrator's image, Performance orientation, Fair treatment, Ruling group]

I. Introduction

In India, at all levels, the allocation of values is more precisely, the allocation of benefits which is mostly done by political elites in convenience with bureaucratic elite (Kumar, 1997). In the contemporary world, rapid changes are taking place because of scientific, technological and social revolution. These changes are radically affecting development ethos and strategies. In the transformation of the modern democratic state to the "welfare oriented" society, political power is structural and there are three essential features to such structure;

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first, there is a system for exercise of political power; secondly, there have to be decision making organs viz., legislative, executive and judiciary, through which the will of the people is transformed into action and thirdly, there is an administrative apparatus, bureaucracy for the execution of policies laid down by the decision making organs. In a democratic system interaction between politics and administration is that one between ends and means.

Development structures need to articulate and aggregate social interests, to perform the tasks of political socialization, to link together the heterogeneous people by establishing pipelines of information and network of mass communication. For development the politico-administrative structure need to be viable and effective and must establish a functional relationship with other non-political or socio-cultural and traditional structures. It is worthwhile to examine that the administrative and political elites are involved in the nation building, structural innovation, reorganization and reconstruction.

In case of administrators dimensions have been selected. These included such dimensions as attributes like corrupt, rigid, inefficient, etc., that are generally imputed to administrators as a group, their fairness and impartiality, their orientation towards work facilitation, and their disposition towards people as well as political leaders. The present study attempts to analyze the administrator's image among politician on various vital issues.

2. Methodology

The present study was based on the primary data. The data was collected through a sample survey. For the collection of primary data well prepared schedules, which consisted of both open-ended and close-ended questions, were administered to the respondents selected through sampling method. For the collection of first hand data in the present study multi stage random-cum-purposive sampling was adopted. At the first stage, two districts (Chamba and Una) were selected to represent Himachal Pradesh. At the second stage, two blocks, one from each district, namely Chamba (Chamba district) and Haroli (Una district) were selected purposively. At the third stage, panchayats were selected. There were 39 gram panchayats in Chamba block, out of these 39 panchayats; 10 gram panchayats (25 per cent of the total gram panchayats) were selected. In Haroli block, out of total 43 gram panchayats, 11 gram panchayats (25 per cent of the total gram panchayats) were selected. At the last stage, a total 116 politician (58 from Chamba district and 58 from Una district) were selected.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1 Administrators Image : Fairness and Impartiality

Administration can be characterized as impartial structure and need administrators must work impartially and fairly while performing their function in

administrative structure. Politician's opinion regarding fairness and impartiality of administrators has been shown in the following table :

Table-1 : Administrators Image : Fairness and Impartiality

Responses	Statement		
	Administrators guarantee fair and just treatment to all	Administrators work in the interest of ruling groups	Administrators are partial to particular groups and classes in the district
Chamba District			
Agree	24 (41.38)	24 (41.38)	27 (46.55)
Partly agree	5 (8.62)	6 (10.34)	11 (18.97)
Disagree	29 (50.00)	28 (48.28)	20 (34.48)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)
Una District			
Agree	27 (46.55)	28 (48.28)	33 (56.90)
Partly agree	2 (3.45)	7 (12.06)	8 (13.79)
Disagree	29 (50.00)	23 (39.66)	17 (29.31)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)
Total			
Agree	51 (43.97)	52 (44.82)	60 (51.72)
Partly agree	7 (6.03)	13 (11.21)	19 (16.38)
Disagree	58 (50.00)	51 (43.97)	37 (31.90)
Total	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses represent percentage.

Figures in reveals that 50.00 per cent of politicians believe that fair and just treatment to all cannot be expected from administrators. 43.97 per cent of politicians were of the opinion that the administrators guarantee fair and just treatment to all. It was found that 50 per cent of politicians in each district were disagreed with the statement that administrators guarantee fair and just treatment

to all. Data reveals that majority of politicians see administrators with suspicion with regard to fairness and impartiality. This is supported by the responses to another second and third item in the Table. As much as 44.82 per cent of politicians agreed that administrators work in the interest of ruling groups. But district-wise data tells the different story, in Chamba district majority of politicians (41.38 per cent) showed their disagreement with the statement that administrators work in the interest of ruling groups, while in Una district majority of politicians (48.28 per cent) were agreed with it. On the other hand, 10.34 per cent in Chamba district, 12.06 per cent in Una district and 11.21 per cent in overall sample were partly agreed with it. It can be inferred that administrators are not impartial in their dealing with people. It is confirmed by the fact that 51.72 per cent of politicians think that administrators are partial to particular groups and classes in the district.

But on the other hand 31.90 per cent of politicians were not convinced that administrators are partial. With regard to partiality it was found that in Chamba district 46.55 per cent of politicians were agreed, 18.97 per cent of politicians were partly agreed and 34.48 per cent of politicians were disagreed with the statement that administrators are partial to a particular groups and classes in the district. While in Una district and in Chamba district 56.90 per cent of politicians were agreed, 13.79 per cent of politicians were partly agreed and 29.31 per cent of politicians were disagreed with it.

From the above analysis it can be concluded that administrator's fairness and impartiality is suspected by the politicians. It is apparent that politicians did not rate administrators very favourably.

3.2 Administrators' Image : Performance Orientation

The test of an administrator's success depends in is his capability to perform the tasks he has been assigned. Particularly in the context of increasing interaction for provision of services and solution of personal as well as community problems between administrators and citizens in carrying out of developmental programmes implies a confidence on the part of the public in the administrators' capacity to perform various tasks. Data regarding administrators' orientation towards performance has been presented in table-2 on next page.

Data contained in table-2 show that out of total selected politicians 64.66 per cent of politicians were agreed that administrators are stickler of rule. On the other hand 19.82 per cent of politicians disagreed and 15.52 per cent of politicians were partly agreed with the statement. The responses of politicians in both the district show that 62.07 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 67.24 per cent of politicians in Una district agreed with the statement that administrators are sticklers of rule. While on the other hand, 20.69 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 19.83 per cent of politicians were disagreed with it. This shows that administrators are more concerned with the rules and regulations. Politicians reflect their favourable evaluation of administrators with regard to the statement that

administrators have a tendency to expand department and increase procedures instead of solving concrete problems. As much as 81.90 per cent of politicians believe that administrators have a tendency to expand departments and increase procedures instead of solving concrete problems. Thus expansion of departments leads to diminishing administrative performance. The percentage of agreement was highest in both the districts in this regard, as 77.59 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 86.20 per cent of politicians in Una district favour the statement.

Table-2 : Administrators' Image: Performance Orientation

Responses	Statement		
	Administrators are sticklers of rule	Administrators have a tendency to expand departments and increase procedures instead of solving concrete problems	Administrators are more concerned with putting up a show than doing concrete work
Chamba District			
Agree	36 (62.07)	45 (77.59)	33 (56.90)
Partly agree	10 (17.24)	5 (8.62)	11 (18.97)
Disagree	12 (20.69)	8 (13.79)	14 (24.13)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)
Una District			
Agree	39 (67.24)	50 (86.20)	27 (46.55)
Partly agree	8 (13.79)	4 (6.90)	8 (13.79)
Disagree	11 (18.97)	4 (6.90)	23 (39.66)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)
Total			
Agree	75 (64.66)	95 (81.90)	60 (51.72)
Partly agree	18 (15.52)	9 (7.76)	19 (16.38)
Disagree	23 (19.82)	12 (10.34)	37 (31.90)
Total	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses represent percentage.

This is again confirmed from the responses to the statement that administrators are more concerned with putting up a show than doing concrete work. As much as 51.72 per cent of politicians agreed with the statement. On the other hand, 31.90 per cent of politicians disagreed and 16.38 per cent of politicians partly agreed with it. District wise data also reflects the same trend. Data in the table demonstrates politician's tendency to label administrators as committed to less work and more safeguarding their vested interest in administrative structure. Administrators give more priority to rules and regulations while performing their jobs and duties. It can be concluded from the above analysis that administrator's image in the eyes of politicians is pretty low.

3-3 Administrators Image : Orientation towards People and Politicians

It is necessary to investigate administrator's orientation towards people and politicians. Table-3 presents data on the degree to which administrators are perceived by politicians to be well oriented towards people and politicians. Table-3 demonstrates that 82.75 per cent of politicians felt that administrators keep themselves aloof from the people. But 14.66 per cent of politicians did not agreed with it and 2.59 per cent of politicians were partly agreed. District-wise data shows that 77.58 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 87.94 per cent of politicians in Una district agreed with the statement that administrators keep themselves aloof from the people. It shows that administrators do not believe in closer contact with the people, instead they keep distance from the people.

Table-3 : Administrators Image: Orientation towards People and Politicians

Responses	Statement				
	Administrators keep themselves aloof from the people	Administrators are indifferent to people's difficulties	Administrators are helpful to people in redressing their grievances	Administrators do not appreciate viewpoints of politicians	Administrators do not pay attention to the proposals and demand of politicians
Chamba District					
Agree	45 (77.58)	44 (75.86)	20 (34.48)	35 (60.34)	27 (46.55)
Partly agree	2 (3.45)	5 (8.62)	10 (17.24)	16 (27.59)	9 (15.52)
Disagree	11 (18.97)	9 (15.52)	28 (48.28)	7 (12.07)	22 (37.93)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)

Una District					
Agree	51 (87.94)	45 (77.59)	22 (37.93)	37 (63.79)	25 (43.10)
Partly agree	1 (1.72)	3 (5.17)	9 (15.52)	12 (20.69)	11 (18.97)
Disagree	6 (10.34)	10 (17.24)	27 (46.55)	9 (15.52)	22 (37.93)
Total	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)	58 (100.00)
Total					
Agree	96 (82.75)	89 (76.72)	42 (36.21)	72 (62.07)	52 (44.83)
Partly agree	3 (2.59)	8 (6.90)	19 (16.38)	28 (24.14)	20 (17.24)
Disagree	17 (14.66)	19 (16.38)	55 (47.41)	16 (13.79)	44 (37.93)
Total	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)	116 (100.00)

Note : Figures in parentheses represent percentage.

This is further supported by the responses to next item. As much as 76.72 per cent of politicians viewed that administrators are indifferent to people's difficulties. The percentage of those who disagreed with it is very low, that is, 16.38 per cent and 6.90 per cent of politicians partly agreed with it. The percentage of those politicians who showed their agreement in Chamba and Una district was 75.86 per cent and 77.59 per cent respectively. Further 47.41 per cent of politicians believe that administrators are not helpful to people in redressing their problem. Only 36.21 per cent of politicians felt that administrators are helpful to people in redressing their problems. As much as 34.48 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 37.93 per cent of politicians in Una district were found agreed with the statement that administrators are helpful to people in redressing their grievances. While on the other hand 48.28 per cent of politicians in Chamba district and 46.55 per cent of politicians in Una district were disagreed with it. It can be concluded that politicians have poor view of administrators' usefulness in redressing peoples' grievances.

Politicians are the representatives of people. In this capacity they know people's aspirations and wishes. They can render best viewpoint with regard to the implementation policies. Administrators need to appreciate their viewpoint in solving problems. Data in this connection reveals that only 13.79 per cent of politicians in overall sample, 12.07 per cent in Chamba district and 15.52 per cent in Una district disagreed with the statement that administrators do not appreciate the viewpoint of politicians. But the majority of politicians, that is, 62.07 per cent in

overall sample, 60.34 per cent in Chamba district and 63.79 per cent of politicians in Una district agreed with it. They felt that administrators show their indifferent attitude towards their viewpoint. There seems low agreement on the statement that administrators do not pay attention to the proposals and demand of politicians. 44.83 per cent of politicians agreed with the statement while 37.93 per cent politicians disagreed and 17.24 per cent of politicians partly agreed with it. The data reveals that majority of politicians believe that administrators do not pay attention to the proposals and demands of politicians.

4. Conclusion

On the basis of above discussion it can be concluded politicians are suspecting administrator's fairness and impartiality. Politicians have a tendency to label administrators as committed to less work and more safeguarding their vested interest in administrative structure. Administrators give more priority to rules and regulations while performing their jobs and duties. It was found that majority of politicians believed that administrators do not pay attention to the proposals and demands of politicians. It can be concluded it is important to that the administrators and politicians should make such a transparent system that the social welfare can be increased.

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Becoming a Superstar : Performance and Music Reality Shows in India

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The term 'superstar' invokes an awe of uniqueness. It brings to one's mind the image of a person with extraordinary talent; something that leads to his/her tremendous success and popularity. But being a 'superstar' is (now) not necessarily limited to a few privileged. Reality TV, with its claim of creating a democratic space of public participation, has made the 'superstar' image accessible. That comes with an underlying message that these shows are open for anyone who possesses the talent and quality to be in a show to be watched by millions. One need not be a celebrity to be in a reality show, whilst being in a reality show can make one a celebrity overnight. All of these are within the reach of any common person watching TV at home because it is real, true and possible. A very significant aspect of reality shows is the behavioural dimension of the participants- the performance. It is through the performances of participants that the entire definition of the 'reality' is successfully constructed. 'Performance', however, is meaningfully a very slippery term. It presents numerous questions- is performance simply what the contestants present on stage? Further, who decides what a 'good' performance is? And indeed, what exactly does 'performance' in a reality show entail? This paper is a part of a larger project that aims to study music reality shows in India, especially the one meant for children and adolescents. Hence, the case study for this research consists of three major music reality shows in India - Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Little Champs, Indian Idol junior and The Voice kids, India. Based on fieldwork observations and interviews with music reality show contestants, this paper will reflect upon the manner in which the performances in music reality shows are shaped. Accordingly, the 'superstar' image that contestants or aspiring are promised is carved out of a complex process of physical, emotional and psychological labour that deserves closer study.

[**Keywords** : Superstar, Performance, Music reality shows, Contestants]

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CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES, Vol. 28, No. 2 (April-June), 2019

1. What is 'Performance'?

Understanding performance theoretically requires one to begin with the philosophical notion of 'play' that Johan Huizinga illustrated in his book "Homo Ludens" (1949). As against the common reference of man as 'Homo sapiens'-a thinking being, Huizinga calls humans 'ludic' beings, i.e. players. What exactly is 'play' cannot be defined, rather it has to be understood in terms of a few characteristic features of the term. Nevertheless, Huizinga does make it very clear that 'play' is much more than a mere physiological phenomenon or a psychological reflex. In play, Huizinga emphasized, "there is something 'at play' which transcends the immediate needs of life and imparts meaning to the action" (Huizinga, 1949 : 1).

Play is present everywhere and is so closely intertwined with culture that it may even be said to have been one of the main bases of civilization. For the researcher, the concept that Huizinga has referred to as 'play' reflects the creative potential of human action. He termed play as a special form of activity, a social function and a significant 'form' of action which permeated into even the greatest "archetypical" activities of human society- for instance, language. Language was the first superior mechanism man developed to communicate with each other. It is with language that man was capable to "distinguish, to establish, to state things; in short, to name them and by naming them to raise them into the domain of the spirit" (Ibid, 5). Language, therefore, gave "expression to life" (Ibid). Similarly, the creative potential of human action that Huizinga calls 'play' can be seen as the roots of other developments like that of law and order, commerce and profit, craft and art, poetry, wisdom and science alike.

It needs to be clarified at this point that it would be wrong to understand play superficially in terms of the general usage of the term- non-seriousness and merrymaking behaviour of young children or animals. Rather, the play-concept as Huizinga stressed is non-material and cannot be defined by the dichotomies of "wisdom and folly...truth and falsehood" (Ibid). The higher forms of play- or the social manifestations- have to be read in events like contests and races, performances and exhibitions, dancing and music, pageants, masquerades and tournaments.

'Play', according to Huizinga, comes freely and at leisure to a person. Only when play assumes a fixed form as a cultural phenomenon- like a ritual, ceremony or rite- it gets bound by the notions of obligations. It is in this situation that mannerisms associated with play get structured. As a recognized cultural function, it gets transmitted and may even become a tradition. Moreover, in this form of structured presentation, play can be repeated at any time. "In nearly all the higher forms of play the elements of repetition and alternation (as in the refrain), are like the warp and woof of a fabric" (Huizinga, 1949 : 10).

Associated with this is another very important characteristic of play, namely, that play is not "ordinary" life. It is rather "a stepping out of real life into a

temporary sphere of activity with a disposition all of its own" (Ibid, 8). And since it involves a shift from the ordinary, it also has a space marked out separately for its performance. Be it the stage, the market, the classroom, the screen, etc., all are temporary "worlds within the ordinary world, dedicated to the performance of an act apart" (Ibid, 10).

Huizinga has not directly related 'play' to 'performance' or aspects of 'performativity' anywhere in his conceptualization of the 'Homo-Ludens'. 'Play', may not be directly replicable in 'performance', but a sociological understanding of 'performing' does seem to be viable through the characteristics of 'play'. On careful reading of his text, the characteristics of play do seem to closely resonate to Goffman's understanding of ritualistic social life where 'performance' of 'roles' is an essential ingredient of achieving a social act. Performance of a social definition/situation is 'special'; it is marked by a space and defined by certain rules. Nevertheless, it is effortless in the sense of its embeddedness in the everyday. Humans are always in a state of play- they interact amongst themselves, create meanings, perform roles and execute social situations.

Goffman (1959) believed that performance entails two types of communication - consciously produced expressions and implicit content or meaning. It is on the basis of the second type - the non-verbal and supposedly non-intentional - that he developed his study of 'The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life' (Alfirevic and Alfirevic, 2017 : 152). Each individual in everyday situations presents himself/herself and his/her activities to others. Hence, analysis of social life involves examining the ways in which he/she uses that presentation to guide and control the impressions that others form of him/her. Individuals continually 'perform' a self for others to read and make sense of the situation they are involved in. Social reality, therefore, is not fixed rather created in the process of interaction between different individuals. The initial phase of this interaction is collecting/giving information about oneself as a prerequisite for the further definition of a certain situation. In this process, Goffman stresses, the real attitudes of individuals are hidden and are only reached indirectly, through symbols and associative moments. The conclusions are made based on assumptions, and the final construction of a certain social situation depends on the interpretation of a certain phenomenon. Every aspect of identity, therefore, is 'performed' by an individual, who interacts with his/her surroundings and seeks to manage how the world perceives them. To quote him :

"Regardless of the particular objective which the individual has in mind and of his motive for having his objective, it will be in his interest to control the conduct of others, especially their responsive treatment of him. This control is achieved largely by influencing the definition of the situation and he can influence this definition by expressing himself in such a way as to give them the kind of impression that will lead them to act voluntarily in accordance with his own plan" (Goffman, 1959 : 15).

Hence, it all boils down to the fact that when an individual plays a part she/he implicitly expects the observers to take the impression being fostered seriously. But of course, there can be two extremes of how the performers themselves perceive the performance. At one end, one may find a performer who is fully taken in by her/his own act, i.e. she/he can be “sincerely convinced that the impression of reality which he stage is the real reality” (Ibid, 28). At the other end of the extreme, we may find a performer who is a cynic and may have no belief in his own act (Ibid). Nevertheless, the ‘Individual’ who ‘performs’ an identity through everyday manifestations of the self, is a conscious, active being in Goffman’s conceptualization of ‘presentation of self’.

Judith Butler, on the other hand, believes that performance of an identity is not exactly a conscious act. Identities, especially gender, she claims are always already constructed within and through discourse. What then requires to be emphasized upon is not ‘performance’ but ‘performativity’ which highlights the repetitive and citational aspect of identity performance. Performativity is clearly different from the theatrical notion of performance (that Goffman’s work highlighted). Whilst “performance implies the expression of an inner identity”, performativity is more about “the construction of selves that are embodied through the repetition of established norms” (Silva, 2013 : 13). Applying Butler’s perspective, the interactions that Goffman takes into consideration as performances need to be placed under another filter- in relation to the “discursive practices” in which society is embedded. The notion of the performative, in fact, highlights how identity construction is framed by power relations. But of course, Performance and Performativity cannot be seen as opposites or unrelated to each other. In attempting to reflect upon the complementary relation between Goffman’s performance and Butler’s performativity, Nicky Gregson and Gillian Rose (2000 : 441) wrote :

[P]erformance - what individual subjects do, say, ‘act out’ - is subsumed within, and must always be connected to, performativity, to the citational practices which reproduce and subvert discourse, and which at the same time enable and discipline subjects and their performances. Performativity then, involves the saturation of performances and performers with power, with particular subject positions.

In terms of the specific emphasis of this paper, it is important to realize that contestants of Music Reality shows rely heavily on impression management of an ‘artist’ image. The image is maintained through the performances- both musical and physical- and the audience reinforces one’s identification as an artist through its responses- cheering, voting, etc. This is not to say that the dominant discursive practices operative in the shaping of the performances can be ignored; more often than not conventions of gender roles are highlighted and even glorified. And if the dominant discourse is read in terms of the entertainment industry’s compliance to a wider culture industry, the unconscious leanings towards the ‘familiar’ is evident in the way the music reality shows are structured and marketed. After all, no show

wants to risk being invisible and unsuccessful. The performances of all the participants involved- the contestants, judges, host, jury members, etc.- ensure the creation of a specific definition of the situation. But of course, the performance of the contestant in the spotlight is the most crucial in terms of reinforcing the claim of being a 'reality', within a common man's reach, while at the same time adhering to the standards of talent marketable in the industry.

But what exactly goes into the making of these 'performances'? Let us look into it in a detailed manner.

2. Becoming a 'Performer'

With regards to the actual experience of 'performance' in a reality TV show, the researcher interacted and interviewed a number of Music Reality Shows contestants, both children and adults¹ (and some who were children at the time of their participation but are now adults). In every interaction, there was one question that provided illustrious and interesting answers- "How do music reality shows define the concept of 'talent' or 'artiste'"? Now, all these respondents were not merely spectators (like most of us) watching the show through television sets. They all have been involved in the process of the functioning of Reality T.V. and have seen the internal of the structure that the researcher sought to understand. Needless to say, the answers varied from person to person. Some chose to keep it simple and explain their views in a single sentence while others elaborated in details. However, there were a few aspects that commonly appeared in all the responses - "versatility- ability to sing different kinds of songs", "expertise in music", "good appearance on stage", "stage-presence", "good voice quality and confidence", "good voice and body language". And these were the answers of contestants regardless of the age-group they belonged to, i.e. these characteristics are considered, according to the contestants, 'essential' in defining a 'talented performer' or 'artiste' for music reality shows of both children and adults. Any 'performance' of a music reality show contestant, therefore- be it on stage, in outdoor promotions or any other public appearance- had to express these qualities for the contestant to 'stand out' and 'outshine' others.

Now, if these seemingly important aspects of emphases are taken as 'typical essential characteristics' of what defines an 'artiste' for music reality shows in India, it would probably not be wrong to say that music reality shows of today create 'ideal types' of successful artists/talents which then possibly become untold criterion to understand what is 'saleable' in the music industry. Typically, the 'ideal' in the 'ideal type' is not the 'perfect' version of an artiste. As Weber had clarified, an ideal type is formed from characteristics and elements of the given phenomena. It is not meant to refer to perfect things, nor to statistical averages but rather to stress certain elements ideal-typical to most cases of the given phenomena.

Deducing from the responses of the interviewees, an ideal-typical talented 'artiste' in the context of an Indian Music Reality Show, then, is a person who has a

good voice, knows how to maintain a good body language, appearance and confidence on stage and can sing different kinds of songs with ease. Being able to display these essential typical characteristics brings about the recognition of a person as a 'talented artiste'.

However, in the context of a modern consumerist society, the essential typical characteristics that form the 'ideal types' of a talented artiste/singer, has to be understood in relation to the perception of what music means to the market. Significantly, the essential-typical characteristics cannot be seen without association to the dictates of the modern music industry with specific demands of marketability. An ideal-type of music performer is the one that the industry can tap its resources on without the risk of facing a loss. Significantly, the ideal-type of a talented artiste mapped out in this section is not limited to any one particular show or even shows of either adults or children. It is almost an overarching phenomenon common to most major music reality shows in India. There is a culture industry in operation and the ideal types no longer remain value neutral entities. Rather the 'essential - typical characteristics' become the most preferred characteristics of a phenomenon. There is a value-judgement to the characteristics that goes into the 'essential' of the ideal-type, and the 'need to fit' model of the culture industry very aptly applies to its subtle acceptance across different music reality shows. The 'artist' of music reality shows becomes that identifiable, commonly occurring phenomenon. Of course, the meanings have never remained constant. But what an ideal performer entails at a certain point in time is largely shaped by the demands of the market that is in operation.

As one respondent², who had been the winner of one such music reality shows as a child, said :

"During the time of singers like Shreya Ghosal or Sunidhi Chauhan, the main parameter of becoming an artiste was only and only musical knowledge. The entire focus was on the 'sur' and ability to sing on proper notes. Gradually, as Indian television has modernized and become more glamorous, an artiste needs to have much more than just the knowledge of sur and taal. She/he has to be versatile and an all-rounder; she/he needs to have the ability to grasp the audience's attention and also have the looks, the attitude, the body language and stage presence" (Told during an interview with the researcher on 23-12-2017).

A significant discovery that came the researcher's way during the interviews was the process of training and preparation that goes behind the final performance of every single song on stage. This information was something that opened up new arenas for the researcher as an outsider to the shows actual processes of creating 'reality'. Here are excerpts from one such narrative :

"For every week's performance, we were given a theme and were told to think of a few songs related to the theme. There were instructors and voice trainers who then asked us to sing the first few lines of the songs we had

chosen. Accordingly, the song that best suited our voice (and we had a grasp of) was finalized for us. The next three days were then meant for rigorous rehearsals with the instructors. They watched us and assisted us on various performance aspects- how to hold the mic, how to connect with the audience, etc. If, in case, certain songs had peppy, dance beats, we also had a choreographer who taught us a few steps of dance to complement our performance. Our trainers and groomers prepared us well. Of course, we rehearsed our singing but the groomers helped us in creating an entire personality for a stage performance.

Fridays and Saturdays were meant for technical rehearsals where we were supposed to rehearse with the lights, mic and everything else on stage. This is where our stage appearance and performance was prepared and rehearsed. The next day, i.e. on Sundays, we were allotted costumes according to the theme for the week. We were prepared to not just sound good but also to look ready for a stage show" (as told to the researcher during an interview on 4-11-2017).

What seems like an effortless performance and display of untainted reality on stage has a background of hours of toil. Much like a soldier preparing to fight at the battleground, the reality show performers 'train' to face their greatest challenge- displaying 'real' talent. The 'reality' had to be rehearsed over and over again till it looked effortlessly perfect on stage. It had to look real in the sense that the contestant had to be able to display it as a 'natural' ability or inclination she/he is endowed with; a talent for which she/he has been selected to be part of the prestigious reality show. But of course, like other aspects of the spectacle that reality TV constructs, the effortlessness of the confident and active performer in itself involved hours of hard work and practice.

The training, of course, has to be seen in the light of the 'ideal type' of artiste that these shows sought to create. The image presented in front of the public had to represent all the qualities that it sought to legitimately proclaim as 'talent'. Interestingly, the training of the 'ideal typical artiste' was not limited to the preparation process of already selected contestants. Another serendipity finding during this research was the discovery of courses focusing on "Reality TV singing". Coaching institutes providing training for Civil Services, Engineering, GATE, CAT or NET aspirants are very common in the country. But, operating at a very huge yet not widely known level, are courses on Reality Shows' singing that claim to prepare a reality show aspirant with all the nuances of reality TV participation. It began with the chance discovery of Indian Idol Academy and its interesting list of programmes. In the course of further investigation, the researcher came across a number of other academies providing courses in the similar lines. In fact, there are numerous music schools all over the country- especially in Delhi, Mumbai and Kolkata- some even with online courses providing special classes on 'reality shows singing'.

The major name in the business, however, is of Indian Idol Academy. It was launched as a 'music learning program' in the Grand Finale of the first season of

Indian Idol Junior in 2013 and rapidly spread its branches in over 25 cities all over the country. Needless to say, the academy has gained a lot of popularity through association with the brand name of one of the most acclaimed music reality shows in India.

In a conversation with the course co-ordinator of Indian Idol Academy, Mumbai the researcher discussed at-length about the academy's purpose and the manner in which classes are held. The co-ordinator emphasized that the academy is mainly focused on "building confidence in aspiring contestants". The academy provides various short-term and long-term courses ranging from a time period of six months to one year, for both children and adults. The courses are divided on the basis of different 'possible stages' of learning- beginners, intermediates, talented singers, Indian idol aspirants and music trainers.

Alongside, the academy also hires people trained in classical Indian music as mentors or music instructors. They conduct the regular music lessons and facilitate various other activities that consist of the academy's courses. In one of the respondent's words, the mentors are hired mainly to "cross-check the development of the child in terms of her/his musical as well as presentation skills".

The academy also has a special program for the children/adults preparing for auditions in music reality shows (especially Indian Idol). It is called the 'Pre-Audition Intensive Course'. The course claims to prepare the reality show aspirants "under the tutelage of people associated with the Indian Idol show". It is a six-week course with 54 hours of intensive audition by the mentors of the Indian Idol Academy. As a part of the program, the students are provided with Indian Idol merchandise and they also get access to footage from all previous shows of Indian Idol. At the end of the six-week long course, the brochure claims, "you will be able to sing at least 10 songs in a superior way, get an opportunity to impress the judges and win a ticket to the show". There are modules emphasizing on aspects like- knowing how to hold the microphone, face the camera, modulate voice, and correct body posture.

Another academy which, deriving from its association with the name of the infamous music reality show, has garnered a lot of following, is the Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Academy in Mumbai. The music academy was launched in September 2016 by Gajendra Singh, the executor of some of the biggest music reality shows in India like Sa Re Ga Ma Pa, Antakshari, Chote Ustaad, etc. According to its website, the main vision of the academy is to bridge the gap between the music industry and abundant singing talent in the country. The aim is to hone talent and nurture them into 'complete global artists'. The academy has a number of courses- ranging from courses for beginners in music, professional course for those seeking to pursue a music career, specialization course, course on perfecting any specific song and reality star courses.

The 'Reality Star Course' of Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Academy provides two options to choose from- a 3 month full time reality star course and a 6 month part time

reality star course. The difference between the two is in the number of hours of classes and fees. Apart from that, both claim to teach “what it takes to develop a killer reality television singing sensation”. The programs involve- Mock auditions by top audition experts, commercial Bollywood singing techniques and training, performance training and guidance, voice culture, diction, personality development and 2 celebrity sessions.

Equally competing with the Indian Idol Academy and Sa Re Ga Ma Pa Academy for recognition as a legitimate foundation for those aspiring to be reality show stars are other music schools with prominent claims of ‘special classes by reality show winners’ and attractive course outlines. It is interesting to find amongst all the conventional classical music courses, a course dedicated to Reality Shows ‘preparation’. What was most striking in the course description was the usage of the words “presentation tips” and “special training on how to sing in reality shows and how to dance on TV reality show stage”, entailing the untold understanding that being a reality show participant requires more than knowing the art of singing or dancing.

The internet, in fact, is full of such online classes of music reality shows singing catering to a larger audience than the traditional classroom mode of teaching-learning. And the emphases on ‘easy’, ‘quick’ and ‘relevant’ learning (in terms of the ‘requirements’ of reality shows) are the major selling points.

3. Inferences

The academies, programs and processes of preparing a ‘performer’ may be named differently, but a closer look at their methods in training indicate an underlying similarity of philosophical inclination and point of focus- the performer’s body. Singing, undoubtedly, is important and learning to catch the proper notes is essential. But there is an ‘extra’ element to music reality shows’ singing and performance which these academies, courses and the pre-performance training seek to teach and inculcate.

The manner in which ‘reality TV singing’ courses emphasise on the body and control over its movements, in fact, echo a reproduction of what Foucault termed as the ‘docile body’. A docile body is the manifestation of disciplinary control that emphasizes on subjection, use, transformation and improvement. It is driven by the economy of the body where methods of discipline are employed to make the body more ‘useful’. These disciplinarian methods are the ways of controlling the operations of the body imposing a relation of docility-utility.

Foucault (1975 : 136-37) wrote how :

The classical age discovered the body as object and target of power. It is easy enough to find signs of the attention then paid to the body - to the body that is manipulated, shaped, trained, which obeys, responds, becomes skilful and increases its forces...Many disciplinary methods had long been in existence- in monasteries, armies, workshops. But in the course of the seventeenth and

eighteenth centuries the disciplines became general formulas of domination. They were different from slavery because they were not based on a relation of appropriation of bodies; indeed, the elegance of the discipline lay in the fact that it could dispense with this costly and violent relation by obtaining effects of utility at least as great. They were different, too, from 'service', which was a constant, total, massive, non-analytical, unlimited relation of domination, established in the form of the individual will of the master, his 'caprice'.

The body, therefore, has remained the subject of attention over centuries. However, the projection of control over it has changed from being physical torture to subtle forces of discipline. The body is no longer punished but disciplined. Discipline is different from force or violence because it is a way of controlling the operations and positions of the body. It is through discipline that docility is achieved. And the reality-show singing courses do just the right amount of disciplining to make the body be controlled by the dynamics of the 'requirements of the stage'. The entertainment industry runs on the display of the body's perfection and in doing so, the discipline it demands in creating these 'aesthetic' body leads to a form of subtle coercion. The body learns how to sway itself to the tunes of music and maintain eye-contact with the audience in utter seduction. The spotlight is not much of an opportunity rather a sophisticated prison of consumption where docility to the rules of the industry is dubbed as the sought-for success. Music schools with courses on 'Reality-Shows' singing are only practical reflections of how the modern prison of the spotlight has become a legitimate means of creating bodies that are institutionally disciplined.

The disciplinary techniques through which docility is achieved, for Foucault, begins with the scale of the control. The body is no longer treated as a 'wholesale', as if it were a unit. Rather, it is worked upon as 'retail', i.e. individually. There is an exercise of "subtle coercion, of obtaining holds upon it at the level of the mechanism itself- movements, gestures, attitudes, rapidity : an infinitesimal power over the active body" (Ibid). The emphasis is on the economy, the efficiency of movements, and their internal organization. It is, what Foucault calls, the birth of "an art of the human body...directed not only at the growth of its skills...but at the formation of a relation that in the mechanism itself makes it more obedient as it becomes more useful, and conversely" (Ibid, 138).

Linking the performance of artists, activists, workers, executives, etc., to the idea of discipline, McKenzie (2001) (quoted in Matthews 2011) noted that performance, much like discipline, produces a new subject of knowledge and it is a subject quite different from the one that was produced under the regime of panoptic surveillance. These are "subjects of performative power" and unlike centred and actual subjects of panoptical surveillance, they may be fragmented or even virtual.

Where disciplinary power seeks to normalize deviation, performative power stimulates norms to transform themselves through their own deviation and

transgression. The mechanisms of performative power are neither rigid nor sedentary but flexible and nomadic, governed only by the imperative 'Perform- or else' (Matthews, 2011 : 35).

The pressure, therefore, is on learning or rather internalizing the discipline in one's body. Otherwise, coming back to what Adorno and Horkheimer wrote with regards to the culture industry, the performers have to face the risk of being obsolete, unnecessary or even inefficient. In such a situation, 'training' for performance, seems to be the safety valve. And 'training' here not only entails practicing an act with the aim to improve oneself, it consists of a whole range of activities that inculcate discipline; often unconsciously. As Matthews (2011) contended, training often involves learning obedience. Some parts of it are already imbibed in us as a part of the socialization process- actions like listening to elders, learning by taking instructions, etc. The practice of training contains within it certain conditions of relatedness that can be mapped on to interpersonal networks, thereby conducting a 'personal' experience into a group context. 'Listening to' becomes an important element of maintaining the balance of individual agency whilst relating oneself to a group. This, to the researcher, also indicates the subtle existence (and acceptance) of certain rules defining inter-personal relationships in a social setting. Training to become a music reality show star is no different from this process of socialization. In a way, these music schools may also be a source of re-socialization of aspiring 'artists' to understand and follow what entails being a Reality TV star. As the course descriptions have pointed out again and again, it is not merely about learning an art or honing one's singing skill, it's about becoming an 'image' - the superstar, 'performer' par excellence.

4. Conclusion

'Performance' of reality TV singing, therefore, is not merely an act of displaying one's skill of musical knowledge. The nature of music, and by extension that of an artiste, has altered to fit into the definitions of a society marked by consumption and consumerism. The shows are largely guided by the tendency of creating a 'hero' giving rise to a 'celebrity culture'. However, it is about creation of the 'attributed celebrity' or 'celetoid' which is the opposite of the celebrity status achieved through an achievement. Instead, the celetoid is generally made famous as 'exceptional' or 'noteworthy' through concentrated representation by cultural intermediaries (Rojek, 2004 : 18). And, as Horkheimer and Adorno emphasized, the presentation of such 'star images' acts as 'ideals' through which people might experience their dreams, leading to a devaluation of the self; defining personal success in terms of "those attributes by which he can replace everybody else" (Adorno and Horkheimer, 2006 : 368). Regardless of what 'talent' that 'star' is supposed to be a representation of, it is the image construction that occupies central emphasis. The spectacle of a 'performance' determines the magnanimity of its value. And the value is generally associated with being 'seen'. A singer, therefore, is no longer heard to be appreciated; s/he is being 'watched' and assessed accordingly as a 'performer' of value.

Footnotes

1. The time period taken into consideration is 2006-2017; the first music reality show for children in India was Sa Re Ga Ma Pa little champs 2006.
2. The respondents' name and identity have been kept anonymous for ethical purposes.

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Emile Durkheim's Educational Thoughts : A Practical Approach in Modern Indian Education System

*Pintu Kumar**

It is difficult to thoroughly disapprove or approve any particular theory in the evaluation process because each of the theory has its notion of truth. This concept also applies to the educational and pedagogical thoughts of Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), which developed in French society. It possesses a reality of the particular society and usefulness for other societies. The paper aims to outline Durkheim's ideas on education and to show how their linkages with modern society. The focus is on two major works of Durkheim viz. Education and Sociology and Moral Education, which discuss the development of education in France. Does it provide tools to analyze the contemporary social and education system? The paper will base on this inner reality and arguments will be developed in its support.

[**Keywords** : Socialization, Moral, Status, Culture, Anomie, Axiom]

1. Introduction

Emile Durkheim has been called not only one of the founding father of general sociology and sociology of education but is perhaps the most distinguished of scholars to have ever held a chair in education. He was the first to profess most frequently the application of intelligence and psychology to education. His thoughts on education was based on three significant aims (1) Sociology of education as a discipline of academic standing; (2) Apply the methods of natural science, as he understood them, to study the society; (3) Discover how an orderly

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society was maintained (Blackledge & Hunt, 1985 : 07). The paper aims to describe Durkheim's ideas on education and to show how they are closely linked with a modern society based on his two major works viz. *Education and Sociology* and *Moral Education*. These books are a collection of Durkheim's lectures on pedagogy and education, which he gave as a Professor of Sociology at the University of Bordeaux and Paris, weekly. Do these two treatises of Durkheim provide tools to analyze the contemporary education system?

2. Durkheim : The Man and His Approach

The aim of Durkheim's query of writing, i.e. "to discover how an orderly society was maintained" leads him to initiate a functional approach in the field of sociology and education. Functional analysis of education suggests certain functions for education and specifies certain relations between education and society. Functionalism, therefore, plays an essential role in the understanding of education by providing with a starting point. However, Durkheim confines his publications on education, mainly to the lectures he gave. Durkheim is, of course, well known for his works on suicide, division of labour, and religious forms, but he is less recognized for his educational viewpoints.

Durkheim combines his general perspectives with the specific analyses he made of the historical evolution of the French education system. He provides empirical materials and fundamental hypotheses for a systematic understanding of educational institutions. At a time when the Third Republic was seeking to create a viable secular education system, Durkheim's views seemed relevant. Durkheim, although he is socialist in his thinking, appears to disregard social inequalities that may arise through birth or family upbringing. The capitalist society has criticized his approach to education as "too bourgeois". Whereas Durkheim wished to establish a new base for a social order that would not be religious, the sociologists of the 1960s and 1970s were dealing with what they believed was a crisis in social relationships that required radical solutions, one in which moral education was called upon to play a significant role.

3. Education and Sociology

Durkheim's brief book *Education and Sociology* is a translation of four of his essays : (1) *Education, Its Nature and Its Role*; (2) *The Nature and Methods of Pedagogy*; (3) *Pedagogy and Sociology*; and (4) *The Evolution and Role of Secondary Education in France*. These four chapters are only a sample of Durkheim's pedagogical works. Throughout all these essays, Durkheim stresses the fact, now increasingly accepted, that education directly reflects the culture of the community. The culture is a product of the interaction of school and various cultural groups, which comprise the environment, which the school serves. He explicitly states, "Education is the influence exercised by the adult generations on those that are not yet ready for social life" (p. 71). The general function of education

is to prepare a child by developing a certain number of physical and mental states as per the need to a particular society, caste, class, family and profession (p. 70). All forms of education contain a common core, which all children receive. Each society Durkheim sets up an idea of the man of what he should be as much as from the intellectual point of view as from the physical and moral (p. 70).

Children always have to go through training to get membership of their social group. Education is the only means by which society prepares within the children the necessary conditions of its very existence. Eachus consists of two beings, the individual being and the social being. It is the social being, which constitutes the main aim of education, which includes a system of ideas, feelings, habits, religious and moral beliefs and practices, national or professional traditions, and collective opinions of all sorts. Education transmits different aspects of social reality through books, monuments, tools, instruments, and the spoken tradition etc. Hence, the collective consciousness which is derived from the interaction and combination of individual consciousness, and at the same time enters into, changes, and develops the individual being, as it was adding to him a social being. It may be stated that he over-stressed the influence of society, and neglected the aim of realizing the full powers of the personality by the harmonious development of the individual's abilities and aptitudes (Ottaway, 1995 : 217).

In the above definition of education, as a sociologist, Durkheim is both a revolutionary mind and an educational reformer. Durkheim had the sense that the school cannot dictate to society; preferably, society always controls the school. Durkheim understands education, not in terms of content, but terms of function. Education is an important institution communicating the modes of authority from one generation to another. Durkheim means the same when he writes that education is a socialization of the younger generation. Here, in contrast with most of his predecessors Rousseau, Marx, Weber, Pareto, etc., Durkheim emphasizes "education as the conservative functioning of society and a matter of authority". Durkheim is free from the characteristic utopianism that renders so much otherwise first-rate literature in education obsolete.

It is from the accumulated knowledge of our society in the past and the present that the content of academic learning is derived, which creates differentiation in the content. Durkheim concludes that it is impossible by the use of reason alone to specify what the content of education has to be. He tells the reader of this small volume that there can be no 'ideal' system of education. What we must do is look at society to know how education fits into it. When we do this, we will see that education is social; and that it is a means to an end. The principal function of education is not to develop the individual abilities and potentialities for their own sake, but rather it is to develop those abilities and capacities that society needs. He states "the man whom education is realized in us is not the man such as nature has made him, but as society wishes him to be; and it wishes him such as its internal economy calls for" (p. 121).

In short, the book is full of hints, if not full of answers. Modern Indian schools mainly Convent Schools, International Schools, and Private Schools etc. are losing its crucial social function of socialization. Now they are doing a different type of socialization, which think less about society than the individual himself. Modern societies reflect that the school is not the transmitter of civilized values but only a complex of training programs. The specialized schools reflect the culture of a dominant group, and it trains students to be part of that dominant class by accruing specific powers or skills through education. Students are getting away from traditional culture and almost forgetting it. Durkheim's ideas become more relevant in the context of the modern Indian education system, which has forgotten the primary function of education.

The Weberian approach of education talks about the authority of dominant class on school education, which is different from Durkheim's social authority as a whole. As Randall Collins says in his book, "The Credential Society", the major function of schooling has been with the teaching of status cultures of the dominant class or group of that particular society (pp. 60-62). The content of the status culture varies of course from society to society, but the curriculum, social organization and even the social activities of schools can all be as a way of conveying a particular set of admired qualities of young. Durkheim wedded his sociology of education to viable social psychology. As Talcott Parsons puts the matter in his foreword of this book : Durkheim grasped the essentials of the educative process in terms of the "internalization of culture as part of the structure of personality itself, not simply as providing 'environment' within which the personality . . . functioned" (p. 09).

4. Moral Education

Durkheim's Moral Education is not a scientific work in the sense that *Suicide*, *The Elementary Forms*, and even *Division of Labor* are. It is the collection of 18 lectures among 20 lectures that he offered at the Sorbonne in 1902-03. His treatment of morality is mostly definitional, fused with a graphic element. As we have noted above, education's function is to maintain stability in society and socialize man; the sort of person produced by education, Durkheim argued is the one required by society. However, what sorts of person would that be, and how would education go about producing him? In the book *Moral Education*, which is a posthumous collection of Durkheim's lectures, we get some suggestions.

In this volume, Durkheim appears to be trying to solve the problem of how a man can be saved from the possibility of anomie in the postindustrial society in which the traditional constraints and religious morality are decaying. Here he connects education with morality, which is crucial from both theoretical and practical point of view for him. Theoretically, any stable system of human relationships must be seen as basically moral that provides the basis for social unity. Practically, a sound secular morality was the condition of national health or even survival. Morality is a social thing and being a supra-individual, it is

endowed with a kind of transcendent ideal. In this way, he defines morality as it involves consistency, the regularity of conduct: what is moral today must be moral tomorrow.

Durkheim adopts the method of examining morality as a social fact, which is common to all behaviour (p. 23). This domain of morality is the domain of duty, and duty is a prescribed behaviour. He thinks that there are three characteristics, which all-moral systems share, i.e. the theory of duty, of the good, of autonomy. Having laid down the fundamental element of morality in the seven lectures of the first part, he tries to apply his ideas to school in the paralleling second part of the book entitled "How to Develop the Elements of Morality in the Child."

4.1 The Spirit of Discipline

The first and fundamental aspect of morality-discipline (pp.17-31), is closely related to Durkheim's notion of anomie. In a long and complicated argument, Durkheim suggests that moral conduct involves abiding by the norms, which we are not free to change. Morality thus makes our conduct consistent and demands our submission to rules for which we must have the spirit of self-discipline. Children are naughty and unstable in the mood by its nature. Here Durkheim suggests that school must develop the spirit of discipline. Rules and punishments (not physical) are essential in this process, but it is not an instrument of morality. A child in school, he is faced with the rules that bind him through punishment (Blackledge & Hunt, 1985 : 19). Punishment reaffirms those beliefs and commitments that challenge defections and delinquencies (pp. 211-26).

4.2 Attachment to Social Group by the Individual

Here Durkheim wishes to show that moral action involves acting in the interest of society and actions that benefit other individuals or all individuals are a non-moral action. Durkheim is going a little far when he endowed society with both life and consciousness (p. 59). Society can have interests of its own, which may differ from any member or all members. The school must be organized so that the child can lead a communal life. The school must give the child an image of the group to which he belongs. Collective punishment and rewards can be used for this purpose from time to time.

4.3 The Self-determination or Autonomy

Durkheim had discussed little the third element of morality. Durkheim mentions that in modern society ever perhaps the fundamental axiom is that human being is the sacred par excellence (p. 107). So, we are unable to accept the imposition of morality upon us. In other words, we demand autonomy. Durkheim tries to relate autonomy to the spirit of discipline and attachment to groups by using the example of science. Durkheim felt that children needed to know the reason for acting morally; they must, therefore have an understanding of their

society and its needs. The best way to develop this understanding is through science (p. 274).

Durkheim's ideas on moral education are, in some sense, conservative. He clearly demands a structured class and school in which moral values are clear, and conformity to them is expected. Children must be brought to see that their desires are less important than the desires of the class, school or society. However, on the other hand, Durkheim would put scientific study above all other forms of study in education. It will permit the child to see why he should act morally.

5. Durkheim and Modern Indian Educational System

Talcott Parsons points out that the concepts of Durkheim have real significance in modern education and sociology because sociologists and educators are finding stimulating food for their thought. The fact is that more than half-century has passed since these essays were written and Parsons is commenting upon it after fifty years later. A question that arises here is that does in the age of Parsons Durkheim was relevant? His concepts of education seem suitable to Parsons for the society for that point of time. Parsons took Durkheim's functional approach as an essential and general way of thinking about the education that leads to the growth of new approaches such as conflict, interactionist etc. for the explanation of education and society.

Durkheim's study helps us to adopt a more balanced view of what education does, and what have to do in modern Indian society. Indeed, some of our modern concepts had their beginnings in his works. We can note an interesting fact that Durkheim pointed out the changing and developing nature of the educational system according to the time and society. He intended to present a perpetual but stagnant theory of education for the changing society. His two-way connection between education and culture, i.e. education determines culture and vice-versa is still relevant for India.

Educational theories are often derived from or are an element of social and political ideologies. The value of these theories varies according to time. The appropriate change in the structure of the educational system is essential for its betterment and survival. Durkheim's general principles provide the empirical materials for a systematic understanding of educational institutions viewed in the context of the social structures. They cover, as Parsons notes in the foreword, the period of Durkheim's developing recognition of the process of internalisation of socio-cultural norms. What is internalized, of course, is the moral component (the collective conscience).

A product of his cultural environment, Durkheim's educational theories are far too intellectualistic. However, this does not spoil the accuracy of his sociological conception of the educational process as essentially a "methodical socialization" of the young. As rightly said by Hamnett that Durkheim had a conservative view of

the education since he viewed it as being bound to subordinate itself to the ends and morality established in society at large (Fenton, Reiner & Hamnett, p.144). Is this not a prescription for a school system dedicated to preserving things as they are and for inculcating the acceptance of things as they are? The existence and continuity of society, family, caste and class is then possible.

Now the situation in India has changed a lot in comparison to France of the 20th century. The current social order is closely related to the ideas about meritocracy, democracy, and specialization (Hurn, 1969 : 45-46). Modernity started from the age of the Renaissance with the growth of individualism and is increasing day by day. Now individualism has touched a peak point where everybody is thinking in terms of his or her profit and less about society, which is leading to hard competitions and crisis within the society. The top Indian schools and colleges are carrying forward ideas of modernity, westernization, democracy, specialization, and meritocracy in the younger generation. They feel that they are living in a new world with minimum morality and maximum selfishness. Durkheim seems to rightly argue that there must be some basic principles that all members of the society share; otherwise, there would be conflict and chaos in society. The function of a school is to pass on these fundamental values. It means that Durkheim's concepts of morality and socialization became quite useful today.

Durkheim argues that the education system should not be in hold of an individual because an individual holds them into a business. Another point that he is making is that education can study separately from the individuals who hold them. These statements are especially true for the modern Indian education system. Today education has prominently become business that is associated with the benefits of an individual, who is developing and organizing it. Its association with society and morality is very negligible. Schools think and execute that children work best when freed as far as possible from external constraint and learn the methods of cooperation and democracy by practising them. It is probably true that Durkheim would not have favoured self-government and these activities of the modern school, which are taking our society and culture down. Durkheim's ideas of education are especially suitable in primary schooling.

Durkheim believes in society as a reality and the social determination of education. He saw society as both unity and multiplicity, and it is society and each particular social milieu that determine the ideal that education realizes (Lukes, 1973, p. 130). A partial objection to Durkheim's notion of society is that it tends to reduce human freedom and creativity to nothing. Society is both inside and outside of us all, and this is the essential irony at the centre of Durkheim's sociology. Durkheim's study of the development of education in France is an excellent example of his ideas about causal explanation. He writes educational transformations are result and symptom of the social transformations. He does not consider theories of education to have an independent causal role. In the process of development, education starts to give more attention to individual needs.

Durkheim declares that it is not his "aim to formulate moral education for man in general, but for men of our time and country" (Moral Education, p. 03). Nevertheless, many of the questions he raises are as pertinent for the world today as they were for France. As society has progressively transcended the limits of kin and locality with the whole of humankind as its final limit, morality has undergone a corresponding expansion. The educational concepts of Durkheim are applied even today to some extent. In the way of proving sociology of education, he analyses education and morality as a social fact. It is relevant for all societies because every society has education and morality in varied forms that are related to social structure and institutions. He also shows that certain functions are performed by education in a society, such as socialization of the child, integration of society, etc., which is also right for all societies. On the particular and formal level, Durkheim emphasizes that whatever function education performs, education is shaped by society and time according to its need, which is more than socialization and integration.

6. Conclusion

The educational thoughts of Durkheim are applicable in the context of Indian society up to an extent. India is a more diverse society than France. Indian society consists of a series of social groups or classes or castes with different sets of values, rules, norms etc. There is a need to inculcate traditional unity in diversity in younger generations, which has weakened with the time through Durkheim's educational thoughts. The other aspect where Durkheim becomes relevant is related to decreasing morality in youngsters. Schools are following and diffusing the post-modern individualism, consumerism, meritocracy, globalization etc. and going far away from moral education as per the demand of our society. The traditional Indian values, morality and traditions loosening with the time and a crisis have reached to the door. There is a need for a universal countrywide educational system with shared values, which all groups can share. Durkheim's educational ideas are old, but his functional approach to education as a tool of socialization, morality generation and connection between schools, society, and children might help India in the current situation in the formation of an education system as per the need of our society.

Although predictions are not allowed in social sciences if we can dare to do so regarding Durkheim's moral education, Durkheim cannot satisfy those who seek for a moral law, which is independent of the sanctions of a given society. Nor would he consider that such a search could succeed. Modern society will reach a stage of development where Durkheim's moral education will be necessary for the survival of society. If the profit-seeking behaviour of humankind is going to prevail as it is at present, then the society will sure move on the path of degeneration and crisis. Because at present education is centred on the training to get success in the intense competition, not for the welfare of society. Then at the stage, moral education will be needed for the integration of society and the preservation of social values.

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Place of Publication	:	Delhi, India
Periodicity	:	Quarterly (English)
Printer's Name	:	Dr. Priyanka Mahajan M/S Saksham Computers
Nationality	:	Indian
Address	:	D-59, Shastri Nagar Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)
Editor's Name	:	Dr. Dharam Vir
Nationality	:	Indian
Address	:	D-59, Shastri Nagar Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)
Names and addresses of the individuals who own the journal and of the partners or share-holders holdings more than one per cent of the total capital	:	Dr. S. S. Shashi B-4/245, Safdarjung Enclave New Delhi-110 029 Dr. Dharam Vir D-59, Shastri Nagar Meerut-250 004 (INDIA)

I, Dr. Dharam Vir, hereby declare that the particulars given above are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

Dharam Vir

ISSN 0302-9298

Regd. No. RN 23807172

Double-blind Reviewed, Indexed & Refereed Quarterly International Journal

For enquiry, please contact :

The Managing Editor

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL SCIENCES

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