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New India Challenges: Problems & Prospectives

Editor in Chief
Anish Kumar Verma

Associate Editor
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The labels ‘New India’ and ‘New Indian’ are now in the recent news at high trends. The concept of New India seems to the similar with street advertisement “Nayi Indian, Nayi Deluxe Bike” (New Indian, New Bike, a fading advertisement on a brick wall in Bansberia, West Bengal, December 2009). But now the concept New India is the first time officially used by PM Narendra Modi in his speech of Mann Ki Baat on 30th July 2017, said that a “New India is rising. A new India is the dreams of its Yuva Shakti are taking shape. A new India that fulfills aspirations of its Nari Shakti is taking shape. A new India about giving opportunities to the poor is taking shape” and the Bharti Janta Party’s (BJP) national executive meeting adopted a six-point agenda, seeking to rid the country of poverty, terrorism, casteism, communalism and corruption, to realize Prime Minister’s vision of a new India by 2022, when India will celebrate 75 years of independence. Is there is really a new India, which is different from what it was before an unstated old India, a new Indian in New India who is assumed to enjoy the fruits of a modern, industrial and dynamic India, neither bound by the past nor by provincial thinking?

The phenomenon of New India is like a ‘old wine in new bottle’ where all the previous scheme and slogans like Achche Din, Make in India, Startup India, Skill India, Digital India, Clean India, etc. has been filled in the new bottle of New India to hide or extend the failure of BJP governance. Now the question why has the BJP set 2022 as the deadline year for completion of majority of its ambitious programs like pucca houses, healthcare, sanitation and education for poor; doubling of farmers’ income; opportunities for youth and women; and freedom from corruption, communalism, casteism and terrorism in 2022? Is deadline show the BJP’s overconfidence that 2019 is a foregone conclusion or does it signify some deeper political strategy of a defensive party struggling against economic challenges before the next big elections? Observers believe that setting 2022 as the target is suggestive of two aspects. One, that the saffron party has publicly extended the deadline for its “achche din” promise to 2022. In other words, “New India by 2022” could very well be the slogan it will be going to public with in 2019.

The political resolution, passed at the party’s national executive meeting, also sought to dispel concerns over the state of the economy and praised measures like GST and demonetization. With the ripples of demonetization and a poorly-designed GST spreading economic distress, voters will assess the promise of Narendra Modi’s ‘New India’ in due course. Suddenly, the BJP is feeling besieged by news of economic distress all around. After a badly botched up demonetization exercise, we are seeing an equally botched up implementation of the GST which has sent small businesses into a tailspin, exacerbating the decline in output and employment seen during the months after demonetization. But given the messy implementation, analysts say the re-stocking process is quite slow and firms would rather wait for the GST system to stabilize before going full swing again. All this is happening just before the festive season. This is bound to impact GDP growth in the second half of 2017. As predicted by many, inflation too has marginally gone up post GST. The economy and society of India is at worse condition where economic growth faces slow down, employment is not generation, farmers and agriculture labour are committing
suicides, investment is not taking place and bad loans (non-performing assists) of banks are not coming back. The present situation can be explained through the poem of Amandeep Kaur (Research Scholar at Punjabi University);

Here people are dominated wrapped with weapons of velvets smoothly,
But the reality is they are miserably tortured and treated brutally,
They are armless even in the armour of democratic government,
Thus it portrays the occurrence of state of pitiable and wonderment,
Dream of New India, developed India seems like far-fetching dream,
Where people are trapped in policies that allures to them like sweet cream,
GST and many new schemes are like dark clouds where there seems no hope of rain,
“Achhee din aane wale” phrase seems wrapped with strokes of ironic pain,
Where does the progress lie?
Where does the welfare of people lies?
Nowadays, the people seems like lame, hollow, dull reptiles,
They want to fly… But the created situations made them feel die,
Even their wings are tattered, scatter under the present regime,
These circumstances gives birth to millions of crime,
Curse is that, they think escapes lies in dying rather than keep on flying!!

We come-up with this supplement issue 2017 on the theme of ‘New India Challenges: Problems and Prospectives’ and tried to discuss the major problems and challenges that may help in transform the India. We express extreme gratitude to Dr. Jagdeep Singh, Dr. Purusottam Lal Vijay, Dr. Anoop Kumar, Dr. Sanjay Kumar Tiwari, Mr. Pankaj Singh, Miss. Romee Maurya, Mr. Jagdev Singh, Mr. Jaskaran Singh, Mr. Taranjeet Singh, Mr. Naresh Kumar, Mr. Harsimran Singh, Mr. Vikaram Singh, Mr. Gurdeep Singh, Miss. Jaspreet Kaur, Miss. Amandeep Kaur, Miss Anchal and all other contributors who have contributed and devoted their essential insights and came up with their manuscripts for this issue which directly as well as indirectly is the contribution to the society.

Last but not least we are very thank-full to all the researcher and reader. We will be very happy if you give us or write up your valuable comments and suggestion.

Chief-Editor
Anish Kumar Verma

Associate Editor
Kamlesh Goyal
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Extent of Poverty in North-West India: Recent Trends

Jaskaran Singh*
Jagdev Singh**

Abstract: Presently, it is more important to find out a reliable measure to estimate poverty in India. The extent of poverty is different in one and other region and varies according to different estimates, but the huge gap between official estimates and estimates of independent researchers is a matter of concern. North-west region of the country has its own importance because it has both hilly and fertile geographical landscapes. Punjab and Haryana are the states which are called heart throbb of Green Revolution. Hilly states- Himachal Pradesh, Jammu-Kashmir and Uttrakhand have their own locational features. Intra-regional extents of poverty from the official figure reveal declining trends in poverty in all the states except Jammu and Kashmir. Whereas, a direct poverty line drawn by Utsa Patniak presented a gloomy picture and found that more than half of the population in all north-west states lives in poverty. More interestingly, the proportion of rural poor people is highest in Punjab and Haryana topped in the proportion urban poor people. Though these all state performed better than from the national level as for proportion of poor people is concerned but absolute number of poor are still quite high. Despite high agricultural growth in some states, poverty could not be eradicated. More inclusive measures based on decenteralisation will have to be adopted by the government to eradicate poverty.

Keywords: Poverty, North-West India, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu-Kashmir and Uttrakhand.

Introduction: One of the ironies of our rapidly developing and increasingly progressive world is that poverty continues to remain widespread and rampant and the vulnerable population seems to have grown ever more vulnerable. Even as we continue to talk about expanding opportunities and new sectors of growth, it is equally true that all-pervasive phenomena such as population explosion, unemployment and governance failures have accentuated the lack of adequate income-earning opportunities and productive investment incentives and increased the vulnerability of the population to livelihood shocks. While it is true that development efforts for almost six decades, many economies in Africa and South Asia continue to have large populations with income levels less than a dollar a day (Asian development Bank, 2011).

India recognised the challenge of poverty and made its removal the central aim of its economic planning. Yet, it is also distressingly true that our efforts have met with a limited degree of success than what was originally anticipated. For the first decade and a half after independence in 1947, it was widely believed that growth would automatically reduce and eliminate poverty. But, by the end of the 1960s, it had become evident that growth alone was not enough and that active state intervention through re-designed as well as new policies of income and asset redistribution is necessary (Bandyopadhyay, 2007).

Since independence, there has been an evolution of policy strategies from time to time towards poverty alleviation. But population still suffers from abject poverty and a large section of poverty afflicted people is entangled by the poverty trap, i.e., they suffer from chronic poverty. The incidence as well as intensity of poverty has also been reflected in its various dimensions such as social, regional, occupational, ethnical etc in both rural and urban areas of our economy.

The incidence of decline of poverty has not accelerated with an impressive record of economic growth. Poverty has become a major challenge for policymakers in our country as the population in the country is growing. Therefore, a need has arisen to develop new poverty reduction tools and approaches to attack the multi-dimensional issues of poverty. For this, policymakers at the national and local levels should have a good understanding of the nature of poverty as well as accurate data on various issues relating to it, in order to develop programme/policies to manage poverty in a systematic manner (Government of India, 2010).

The recent emphasis on ‘Harmonious Growth’ by the Chinese Communist Party and ‘Inclusive Growth’ by the Indian Planning Commission raises the obvious question of how are the benefits of this growth shared among various population groups and spatially between states and provinces. Despite this, the concern is more in the nature of the redistributive impact of the growth on the domestic economy and its ability to grow despite the

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bottlenecks imposed by constraints of a large and growing population, most of which is still dependent on agriculture for livelihood (Himanshu, 2008).

Defining and measuring poverty is a complex exercise. This is primarily because any characterisation of poverty involves both subjective and objective elements. In its most basic manifestation, poverty can be defined as socially perceived deprivation with respect to basic human needs. Basic human needs include food, clothing, shelter, health facilities and minimal education. These basic needs are deemed necessary for human survival, and are not substitutable by any other resource or service. Poverty also has many other faces, such as the extent of vulnerability of people to adverse events over which they have little control, of relative deprivation, social exclusion and livelihood un-sustainability (Asian Development Bank, 2011).

This study is confined to north-west states of India. North-west region of the country has its own importance because it has both hilly and fertile geographical landscapes. Punjab and Haryana are the states which are called heartthrob of Green Revolution. North-west region of the country has its own importance because it has both hilly and fertile geographical landscapes. Whereas, Punjab and Haryana are the states which are called heartthrob of Green Revolution. There is a tremendous contribution of these two states for national foodgrain requirement of India. Hilly states- Himachal Pradesh, Jammu-Kashmir and Uttarakhand have their own locational features like horticulture a produce and tourism industry. It is a matter of concern how the extent of poverty differs among these states and from the national figure. To see the pattern and extent of poverty in recent times among five states, the temporal analysis for years 2009-10 and 2011-12 has been made for five north-west states Punjab, Haryana Himachal Pradesh, Jammu-Kashmir and Uttarakhand. Official estimates on the basis of Methodologies of Tendulkar Committee and Rangarajan Committee have been compared with Direct Poverty line derived by Utsa Patniak in 2013.

**Poverty in North-West India: Official Estimates:** North-west region of India includes states of Haryana, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Uttarakhand. As per Census 2011, Haryana and Punjab has 2.09 and 2.29 per cent share of total population of India. The percentage share of total population of Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Uttarakhand is 0.57, 1.04 and 0.84 per cent respectively. Data on percentage decadal growth (2001-2011) shows that except Himachal Pradesh and Punjab, this region has higher percentage decadal growth rate than all India level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Percentage share of total population of India</th>
<th>Percentage decadal growth (2001-2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>25353081</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>6856509</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>12.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and Kashmir</td>
<td>12548926</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>23.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>27704236</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>13.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakhand</td>
<td>10116752</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>10.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1210195422</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>17.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census, 2011.

A comparison of the poverty ratio for the two years 2009-10 and 2011-12 derived from the Expert Group (Rangarajan) method and the Expert Group (Tendulkar) method shows that the average level of poverty ratio derived from the Expert Group (Rangarajan) method is higher than that derived from the Expert Group (Tendulkar) method. The all India poverty ratio derived from the Expert Group (Rangarajan) method is 8.4 percentage points higher in 2009-10 and 7.6 percentage points higher in 2011-12 than that derived by the Planning Commission using the Expert Group (Tendulkar) method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage of Poor Persons</th>
<th>Number of Poor Persons (in million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tendulkar Methodology</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduction</strong></td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rangarajan Methodology</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduction</strong></td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The official poverty ratios released by the Planning Commission, show a decline from 29.8 per cent to 21.9 per cent as per Tendulkar methodology and from 38.2 per cent to 29.5 per cent as per Rangarajan methodology over 2009-10 to 2011-12. Though Rangarajan Committee methodology gives higher level of absolute poverty ratio, the reduction in poverty ratio from Rangarajan method is not very different than that of Tendulkar method.

Poverty in North-West India: The table 3 shows that percentage share of poor persons in north-west India is lower than all India level. As per Tendulkar methodology, the percentage share of poor persons in Haryana has decreased from 20.1 to 11.2. In Himachal Pradesh, the percentage of poor persons was 9.5 in 2009-10 and it has decreased to 8.1 per cent in 2011-12. The percentage share of poor persons in Jammu and Kashmir revealed reverse trends against other states of this region. The poor persons have increased from 9.4 per cent in 2009-10 to 10.3 per cent in 2011-12. The percentage share of poor persons in Punjab and Uttarakhland has decreased from 15.9 and 18.0 in 2009-10 to 8.3 and 11.3 in 2011-12. According to this methodology, the percentage share of poor persons at all India was 29.8 in 2009-10 which has decreased to 21.9 per cent in 2011-12. As per Rangarajan methodology, the percentage share of poor persons in Haryana has decreased from 21.1 to 12.5. In Himachal Pradesh, the percentage of poor persons was 12.3 in 2009-10 and it has decreased to 10.9 per cent in 2011-12. The percentage share of poor persons in Jammu and Kashmir has decreased from 19.2 per cent in 2009-10 to 15.1 in 2011-12. The percentage share of poor persons in Punjab and Uttarakhland has decreased from 20.0 and 26.7 in 2009-10 to 11.3 and 17.8 in 2011-12. According to this methodology, the percentage share of poor persons at all India was 38.2 in 2009-10 which has decreased to 29.5 per cent in 2011-12.

The absolute number of poor persons in north-west India, as per Tendulkar methodology, shows that number of poor persons in Haryana has decreased from 50.0 lakhs in 2009-10 to 28.8 lakhs in 2011-12. In Himachal Pradesh, the number of poor persons was 6.4 lakhs in 2009-10

Table: 3 Percentage Shares of Poor Persons in North-West India:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2009-10 Rural</th>
<th>2009-10 Urban</th>
<th>2009-10 Total</th>
<th>2011-12 Rural</th>
<th>2011-12 Urban</th>
<th>2011-12 Total</th>
<th>Reduction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tendulkar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakland</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rangarajan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakland</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table: 4 Absolute Number of Poor Persons in North-West India (in lakhs):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2009-10 Rural</th>
<th>2009-10 Urban</th>
<th>2009-10 Total</th>
<th>2011-12 Rural</th>
<th>2011-12 Urban</th>
<th>2011-12 Total</th>
<th>Reduction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tendulkar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakland</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>27.92.1</td>
<td>76.4.7</td>
<td>33.46.8</td>
<td>2166.6</td>
<td>331.2</td>
<td>2697.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rangarajan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kashmir</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakland</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>3259.3</td>
<td>1286.9</td>
<td>4546.2</td>
<td>2603.2</td>
<td>1024.7</td>
<td>3629.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and it has decreased to 5.6 lakhs in 2011-12. The number of poor persons in Jammu and Kashmir has increased from 11.5 lakhs in 2009-10 to 13.3 lakhs in 2011-12. The number of poor persons in Punjab and Uttarakhand has decreased from 43.5 lakhs and 17.9 lakhs in 2009-10 to 23.2 lakhs and 11.6 lakhs in 2011-12. According to this methodology, the number of poor persons at all India was 3546.8 lakhs in 2009-10 which has decreased to 2697.8 lakhs in 2011-12. The Table shows that as per Rangarajan methodology, number of poor persons in Haryana has decreased from 52.5 lakhs in 2009-10 to 32.4 lakhs in 2011-12. In Himachal Pradesh, the number of poor persons was 8.3 lakhs in 2009-10 and it has decreased to 7.5 lakhs in 2011-12. The number of poor persons in Jammu and Kashmir has decreased from 23.6 lakhs in 2009-10 to 19.3 lakhs in 2011-12. The number of poor persons in Punjab and Uttarakhand has decreased from 54.6 lakhs and 26.5 lakhs in 2009-10 to 31.6 lakhs and 18.4 lakhs in 2011-12. According to this methodology, the number of poor persons at all India was 4546.2 lakhs in 2009-10 which has decreased to 3629.9 lakhs in 2011-12. The table also shows that poverty is more severe in the rural areas as compared to urban areas of this region.

Direct Poverty Line in North-West India: A study by Utsa Patnaik (2013) analysed that a comparison of the consumption expenditure and associated nutritional intake data for 2009-10 with that of 2004-05 shows worsening poverty in terms of the percentage of people unable to reach the minimum required calories energy intake through their monthly spending on all goods and services. The author argued that this result must be seen in the context of neo-liberal policy, the financial crisis and consequent global recession affecting export production, the rapid rise in food prices, declining employment growth, the drought of 2009-10, and in spite of a positive development like the National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme. It is argued that the decline claimed in the official poverty ratios is spurious.

The table 5 shows that official poverty line is not sufficient to fulfill the minimum requirement of 2200 calories in the rural areas and 2100 calories in the urban areas. Through official poverty line, Haryana and Uttarakhand could attain only 1780 calories each in the rural areas. Minimum calories intake at official poverty line in Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Jammu

Table 5 Direct and Official Poverty Line in North-West India (2009-10):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Direct poverty line (2200 calories)</th>
<th>Official poverty line</th>
<th>Minimum calorie against official poverty line (2100 calories)</th>
<th>Direct poverty line</th>
<th>Official poverty line</th>
<th>Minimum calorie against official poverty line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>1290</td>
<td>791.6</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>975.4</td>
<td>1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>708.8</td>
<td>1950</td>
<td>1650</td>
<td>888.3</td>
<td>1780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and Kashmir</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>727.9</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>845.4</td>
<td>1900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>830.0</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>1700</td>
<td>960.8</td>
<td>1750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakhand</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>719.5</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>898.6</td>
<td>1730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>672.8</td>
<td>1890</td>
<td>2125</td>
<td>859.6</td>
<td>1710</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


and Kashmir was 1850, 1950 and 2000 respectively in the rural areas. The calories intake in the urban areas of Haryana and Uttarakhand were 1600 and 1730 kcal respectively. Minimum calories intake in Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Jammu Kashmir was 1750, 1780 and 1900 kcal respectively in the urban areas. At all India level calories intake was 1890 kcal in the rural areas whereas it was 1710 kcal in the urban areas.

Table 6 Percentage Shares of Poor Persons as per Direct Poverty Line in North-West India (2009-10):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>Rural (2200 calories)</th>
<th>Urban (2100 calories)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu and Kashmir</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttarakhand</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per direct poverty line, the percentage of poor persons in Punjab, Uttarakhand and Haryana is 56, 55 and 52 per cent in the rural areas and 56, 71 and 62 per cent in the urban areas. The proportion of poor persons in Himachal Pradesh and Jammu and Kashmir is 36 and 38 in the rural areas and 44 and 24 per cent in the urban areas respectively. The percentage share of poor persons at all India level is 75.5 in the rural areas and 74.1 in the urban areas.

Conclusion: In India, people continue to struggle within the violence of deprivation and powerlessness, burdened by the dilemmas of everyday existence (Planning Commission, 2002). It is a fact that poor, disadvantaged and marginalised sections of the society do not get proper facilities and discriminated in the matter of participation in various government schemes (Roy and Baldeo Singh, 2010). The concern for equity and social justice is one of the biggest challenges for shining India. Our development vision is conscious of the crucial role that weaker sections can play in triggering of socio-economic development on a firm and enduring basis (Despande and Sridevi, 2005).

Intra-regional extents of poverty from the official figure reveal a reduction in poverty in all the states in north-west region except Jammu and Kashmir. Whereas, a direct poverty line drawn by Utsa Patniak presented a gloomy picture and found that more than half of the population in all north-west states lives in poverty. More interestingly the proportion of rural poor people is highest in Punjab and Haryana topped in the proportion urban poor people. Though these all state performed better than from the national level as for proportion of poor people is concerned but absolute number of poor are still quite high. Despite high agricultural growth in some states, poverty could not be eradicated. Decentralise and more inclusive measures will have to be adopted by the government to eradicate poverty. Poverty, inequality and food security are the most important issues which reveal that poor persons particularly which belong to weaker sections are affected adversely over the period of time. Despite a high rate of economic growth right from the 1990s, absolute poverty persists in most parts of rural India. The high rate of economic growth has not led to the trickle-down effect to reduce poverty. The starvation deaths, high level of malnutrition among the children and farmers' suicides are testimony to the fact that rural India is going through a severe crisis.

The importance of arriving at realistic poverty lines and estimating poverty ratios using realistic lines should be obvious. All current official welfare schemes, whether they give access to affordable food through the PDS or access to affordable medical insurance rely on identifying beneficiaries using the official poverty estimates. Given that these are gross underestimates of the true extent of poverty, a much larger number of deserving families are excluded than are included at present. The problem of large-scale wrong exclusion affects the more narrowly targeted schemes for special groups as well. As long as such exclusion continues, no effective countervailing public policy exists to moderate the welfare-reduction and mass impoverishment induced by following neo-liberal economic policies over the last quarter century (Patnaik, 2013).

In a large and diverse country such as India, local understanding of the processes of development is critical in effective implementation of the poverty reduction programs. It is critical that democratic institutions of local governance be strengthened and empowered to enable them to play an effective role in the delivery of services needed for poverty reduction.

References:
Mounting Agrarian Crises in Punjab

Dr. Jagdeep Singh*

Abstract: At present farm productivity is stagnant thus rate of return from agriculture is decreasing. A large number of studies related to Punjab agriculture are the view that stagnation in agricultural productivity is result of optimum use of technology, over exploitation of soil and water. Other reasons behinds this slow down in agriculture are less institutional credit facilities, lack of modern market, rural infrastructure, unsuitable input pricing policies etc. With the stagnation in farm productivity farm income and profitability has also decreasing. The main consequences of agrarian distress in Punjab are that marginal and small farmers are leaving the agriculture, because these classes cannot bear the pressure and stand with the present situation. But without any skills it is difficult for them to find a suitable work in industrial sector.

Keywords: Agrarian Crisis, Punjab's Economy, Production, Yield, Expenditure.

Introduction: Though a large number of studies have discussed the problem but most of them are that of post green revolution period. Farm management survey data are used, which were collected from Punjab, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Mumbai and Madras, where inverse relationship was established as the small farmers were mostly depended on family labour for cultivation and large size class used wage labour based capitalist cultivation.

The issue of inverse relationship is highly debated among economists. Studies, which were conduct during post green revolution to measure relationship between farm size and productivity, confirm inverse relation of farm size and productivity. Contrary to the above advanced technologies are mostly used by large size classes to get more productivity which was not possible earlier due to labour intensive techniques. But some of the economist has argued on the basis of their findings that because productivity of small size class, which mostly use their family labour, is higher than the large size class.

The farmers of Punjab in general took the best advantage of green revolution and as a result the farm productivity increased many fold with high rate of return per unit of land, labour and capital, which lead to the status of agriculturally developed states and agriculture sector in Punjab behaved like an industry. After achieving high growth rates in agriculture, it was observed during 1980's that there was a gradual decline in rate of return and productivity per unit. This may be attributed to poor farm management practices and poor infrastructure including marketing. The concern is that once the agricultural productivity was reached to diminishing rate of return the challenge remains to enhance further to a higher level. In this regard during post globalization period large numbers of studies have been carried out to analyze the agriculture production and productivity with reference to farm sizes, regional variation and farm income and distribution of gains. However there is no agreement on conclusions.

There is a clear cut conclusion that Punjab agriculture has grown at a fast pace than the other states of the country, which has slowed down gradually after1980s. By and large the fact remains that there is inverse relation in farm size productivity and rate of return on factors of production in Punjab also. General impression comes out to be that though the relationship has remained unchanged, yet there is emerging stagnation condition in the farm productivity leading to lower rate of returns. In other words, the relationship between farm size and productivity in India has become a subject of controversy among the economists. At present farm productivity is stagnate thus rate of return from agriculture is decreasing. A large number of studies related to Punjab agriculture are the view that stagnation in agricultural productivity is result of optimum use of technology, over exploitation of soil and water.

Following are the main objectives:

To estimate Annual Compound Growth Rate of Production under Various Crop in Punjab.
Annual Compound Growth Rate of Yield under Various Crop in Punjab
For the study, secondary data has been also used. Data is collected from agricultural census has also been used for the study.

The paper is divided into three sections. First section deals with objectives, and in this section deals with growth in production and yield of various crops and second section deals with trend and pattern in area under various crops.

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Mounting Agrarian Crises in Punjab

Growth in Production and Yield of Various Crops: Therefore, the some of the changes are discussed at Punjab level. The present section discusses the change at Punjab level.

Table 1. Average Annual Compound Growth Rate of Production under Various Crop in Punjab

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>Bajra</th>
<th>Maize</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Barley</th>
<th>Sugarcane</th>
<th>Potato</th>
<th>Cotton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980-81 to 1990-91</td>
<td>7.24</td>
<td>-17.22</td>
<td>-5.90</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>-5.13</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91 to 2000-01</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>-8.76</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>9.91</td>
<td>-4.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02 to 2007-08</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>-3.68</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>-8.85</td>
<td>-2.12</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>10.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 2007-08</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>-10.51</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>2.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 show that the production of rice grew at the highest rate among all the crops during 1970-71 and 2007-08. Other crops, which had grown significantly during the same period, are wheat, potato and cotton. The growth rate of production of wheat was above 4 percent in period I and period II, and declined period III and period IV. The production of Potato grew at a higher rate in period I (13.52 percent). The production of potato experienced a negative rate of growth (-5.13 percent) during period II, however it again turned positive in period III (9.91 percent). Despite decline in growth rate of production of potato in period IV, the rate of growth remained high (5.66 percent). Cotton production also had negative growth rate in period III, which changed to high positive growth rate (10.10 percent) in period IV. The major reason for decline in cotton production during 1990s was destruction of cotton crop due to bollworm, which came into control with BT cotton. Other major crops, Bajra, Maize and Barley, either had negative growth rate or did not grow from 1970-71 to 2007-08. Sugarcane showed an increase in production in period II and period III, however the growth rate was relatively low and turned into negative in period IV.

Table 2. Average Annual Compound Growth Rate of Yield under Various Crop in Punjab

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>Bajra</th>
<th>Maize</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Barley</th>
<th>Sugarcane</th>
<th>Potato</th>
<th>Cotton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 1980-81</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>-2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81 to 1990-91</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>-1.16</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91 to 2000-01</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>-2.13</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02 to 2007-08</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>-0.77</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 2007-08</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The growth rate of crop yield shows that the change in production is the result of change in yield as well as area under the crop (Table 2). The table indicates that growth in production of rice was initially due to higher yield as well as increase in land under rice cultivation (which may be the result of shift of land from other crops or high cropping intensity), but in the later phase (period IV) the growth in production is due to yield effect. The increase in yield also contributes significantly in production growth between 1970-71 and 2000-01. Maize and Barley also experienced considerable growth in yield, nonetheless had negative growth rate of production due to shift in land to other crops (the details of change in area are discussed in next section). Potato has decline in crop yield, which point out that increase in production of the crop is due to relative gain in its area. Growth in production of wheat is mix of rise in area as well yield with a little change in the importance towards the latter.

1.2 Trend and Pattern in Area under Various Crops

The analysis in the previous sections has provided a brief sketch of the situation related to land distribution, growth of production and yield in Punjab. Table 3 shows that rice and potato are the two crops that have gained considerably in area under them since 1971-72. The average increase in area under rice between 1970-71 and 2007-08 is 5.27 percent, whereas it is 4.62 percent for potato. The main difference in the growth of area under these two crops is that the area expansion for rice happened before 1990-91, whereas potato started growing at high rate after 1990-91.

Table 3. Average Annual Compound Growth Rate of Area under various Crops in Punjab

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>Bajra</th>
<th>Maize</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Barley</th>
<th>Sugarcane</th>
<th>Potato</th>
<th>Cotton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970-71 to 1980-81</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>-10.40</td>
<td>-3.67</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>-5.72</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>5.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81 to 1990-91</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>-16.05</td>
<td>-6.84</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>-5.48</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>-5.27</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91 to 2000-01</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-6.70</td>
<td>-1.30</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>-3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02 to 2007-08</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-5.63</td>
<td>-1.07</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-9.43</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
<td>6.03</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The share of different crops in grossed cropped area showed significant change over the time (Table 4). Rice was the largest gainer in this change, whereas maize, bajra and other minor crops (which comes in the category...
of ‘others’) had experienced considerable decline in their share. Wheat and Potato are other two crops that had some increase in their share in gross cropped area. However, it is important to point out that there was an increase in gross cropped area due to green revolution especially in the 1970s. Therefore, an increase in share surely represents increase in area under cultivation, decline in share may not result into less area under the crop or the area may not decline as the share of the crop.

**Table 4. Percentage Share of Various Crop in Gross Cropped Area in Punjab**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>Bajra</th>
<th>Maize</th>
<th>Wheat</th>
<th>Sugarcane</th>
<th>Potato</th>
<th>Cotton</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>9.77</td>
<td>40.49</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>29.68</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>17.49</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>41.58</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>23.03</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>26.86</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>43.63</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>9.34</td>
<td>15.85</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>32.89</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>42.92</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>13.79</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>33.17</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>44.33</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>7.68</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Number of holding by size group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size/Year</th>
<th>1995-96</th>
<th>2000-01</th>
<th>2005-06</th>
<th>2010-11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marginal</td>
<td>203876 (18.65)</td>
<td>122760 (12.31)</td>
<td>134762 (13.42)</td>
<td>164431 (15.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>183453 (16.78)</td>
<td>173071 (17.35)</td>
<td>183062 (18.22)</td>
<td>195439 (18.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>626132 (57.28)</td>
<td>629185 (63.08)</td>
<td>615682 (61.29)</td>
<td>622966 (59.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>79612 (7.28)</td>
<td>72356 (7.25)</td>
<td>70960 (7.06)</td>
<td>69718 (6.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1093073 (100)</td>
<td>997372 (100)</td>
<td>1004466 (100)</td>
<td>1052554 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Agriculture Census

As we showed in above tables how marginal farmers are earning less than other size classes and how less they got profited from the agriculture as compared to other size classes. Number of marginal farmers is decreasing over the time period; marginal farmers are leaving agriculture and trying to earn their living from non-agricultural works. Given table support our point as we can see that number of marginal farmers decreased from 203876 to 164431 between years 1995-96 to 2010-11. Percentage of marginal farmers in all the categories also declined to 15.65 per cent during the same period, which was 18.65 per cent in 1995-96. Table shows a massive decline in the number of marginal farmers between the years 1995-96 to 2000-01. Number of marginal farmers declined from 203876 to 122760, these were the years when Punjab agriculture faced crises in production. These were the years when cotton growing farmers faced crises because of low production of cotton due to degraded quality of seeds, under rated pesticides and also bad weather conditions. Marginal and small farmers got trapped in the web of indebtedness. In the given period per cent of medium farmers increased slightly from 57.28 to 59.19 per cent.

**Table 6. Area of holding by size group (in hectares)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marginal</td>
<td>122366</td>
<td>77523</td>
<td>83344</td>
<td>101006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
<td>239828</td>
<td>241991</td>
<td>258429</td>
<td>269082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>2586632</td>
<td>2607154</td>
<td>2554745</td>
<td>2567971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
<td>1198208</td>
<td>1095590</td>
<td>1066774</td>
<td>1028575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4147034</td>
<td>4022258</td>
<td>3963293</td>
<td>3966634</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Agriculture Census

Table 6 shows area of holdings by different size groups/classes during the years 1995-96 to 2010-2011. Same trend can be discovered in total area of holding by the size group. Area under marginal size group declined from 1.22 lakh hectares to 1.01 lakh hectares for marginal size group. Total area of holdings has also been decreased during the said period. In 1995-96 total area of holdings by different sizes was 4.14 lakh hectares which decreased to 3.96 lakh hectares in 2010-11. This proves that farmers are selling their land and moving outside the agriculture to support their livelihood.

**Conclusion:** Rice, potato, wheat and cotton are four crops with positive growth rate between 1970-71 and 2007-08 in Punjab, which some changes in growth rate of the crops. The growth in the production is due to increase in yield for rice and wheat, but increase in area under crop (both due to shift of area from other crops as well as increase in cropping intensity) played major role for other two crops. Maize and barley are two crops which did not experience any growth in production (in fact, maize had negative growth rate) despite the increase in yield per hectare. This shows decline in area under the two crops. Bajra, maize and barley are three crops which are most affected by negative growth rate in area, and rice is the largest gainer in area. The area under rice in Punjab increased from merely 6 percent in 1970-71 to 33 percent in 2007-08. Though, there is a trend among marginal and small farmers to cultivate labour intensive commercial crops (which is fit for cultivation on small holdings due to higher labour
requirement, and lower use of machinery) but this may not succeed if there is a high risk due to nature of market of weak institutions.

At present farm productivity is stagnate thus rate of return from agriculture is decreasing. A large number of studies related to Punjab agriculture are the view that stagnation in agricultural productivity is result of optimum use of technology, over exploitation of soil and water. Other reasons behinds this slow down in agriculture are less institutional credit facilities, lack of modern market, rural infrastructure, unsuitable input pricing policies etc. With the stagnation in farm productivity farm income and profitability has also decreasing. The main consequences of agrarian distress in Punjab are that marginal and small farmers are leaving the agriculture, because these classes cannot bear the pressure and stand with the present situation. But without any skills it is difficult for them to find a suitable work in industrial sector.

References:
Abstract: Quality Irrigation is the lifeline of the agriculture for all types of economies. Its importance is much higher for the economies like India, which are highly agriculture dependent. This paper tries to explain the irrigation status and the problems of the irrigation facilities in India. Paper also gives some suggestions for the improvement in irrigation facilities.

Keywords: Monsoon, Deprivation, Participatory Irrigation Management, Micro-Irrigation.

Introduction: Irrigation is the artificial application of water for the cultivation of crops, trees, grasses and so on. The word 'irrigation' conjures up images of the first Prime Minister of India, Jawaharlal Nehru, and the BhakraNangal Dam (Temples of Modern India) and images of MedhaPatkar, Aamir Khan, and the tribal oustees of the Narmada dam. These are diverse perspectives on the story of large irrigation infrastructure in India. In fact, in popular public perception, irrigation connotes 'large irrigation infrastructure' rather than provision of irrigation services.

For a typical Indian farmer, looking up to the skies to see whether the rain gods will favour him this time, irrigation means a wide range of interventions at the farm level, ranging from a couple of support watering(s) (or 'life saving' watering) during the kharif (monsoon) season from a small check dam/pond/tank/dry well to assured year-round water supply from canals or tube wells to farmers cultivating three crops a year. The method of application has also evolved, from traditional gravity flow and farm flooding to micro-irrigation where water is applied close to the root zone of the plant.

Indian farmers gain access to irrigation from two sources: surface water (that is, water from surface flows or water storage reservoirs) and groundwater (that is, water extracted by pumps from the groundwater aquifers through wells, tube wells and so on). Surface irrigation is largely provided through large and small dams and canal networks, run-off from river lift irrigation schemes and small tanks and ponds. Canal networks are largely gravity-fed while lift irrigation schemes require electrical power. Groundwater irrigation is accessed by dug wells, bore wells, tube wells and is powered by electric pumps or diesel engines.

Irrigation and Water Resources in India: Competition for Scarce Resources: The world over, the irrigation sector is the largest user of water—almost 80 per cent of the water in the world is taken up by irrigation (in India, the irrigation sector uses 85 percent of its available water resources). The average rainfall in India is 1170 mm and given the geographical area of 3.3 million km, gives India 4000 cu km of water. Almost 50 per cent of this water is lost to evaporation, percolation, sub-surface flow to oceans and only 1953 bcm is accounted for. Because of spatial and temporal variation in the availability of water, only 1086 bcm is utilisable (Phansalker and Verma, 2005). An availability of 1700 cubic meters of water per capita annual water resource (AWR) is safe (Falkenmark et al. 1974). India's AWR was 2214 cum in 1996 but is estimated to go down to 1496 cum by 2025. Also, while the AWR is high now, the real availability of water is based on the developed water resource (DWR) which is only 25 per cent of the AWR (Gulati et al. 2005). Also, the national averages do not tell the whole story as water is a local issue and there are many regions in India where water availability per capita is below the safe level. The other main users of water, (urban and rural drinking water), industry and environment, show an increase in demand. As urbanization increases in India, demand for water from the urban sector will increase. Already water conflicts are rising with irrigation water being diverted for urban drinking waters supplies in times of scarcity. Farmers in Rajasthan have not allowed dam waters to be drained to the Bharatpur Sanctuary. With an increasing population and growing needs, the gap between the demand and availability will only widen with time. Hence, irrigation as a sector will be under increasing pressure from other sectors to share scarce water. The irrigation sector will be compelled to introduce reform towards better water management and minimization of wastage to be able to meet its growing demands from progressively less water availability per capita.

Status of Irrigation: In India, the irrigated area is 34 per cent of the net area sown. The gross irrigated area is 80 million ha which gets India the prize for the largest amount of irrigated agriculture in the world. The break-up is given in Table 1. The so termed 'minor' irrigation is now the major source of groundwater provides 50 per cent of the gross area under irrigation (in fact recent data shows that in terms of net sown area, groundwater provides 60 per cent of the net irrigated area (Shah and Deb, 2004).
Table 1: Irrigated Area in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Category</th>
<th>Utilisation (in million ha)</th>
<th>Capacity (in mha)</th>
<th>Ultimate Irrigation Potential (in mha)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Major &amp; Medium</td>
<td>28.02</td>
<td>32.69</td>
<td>58.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground Water</td>
<td>42.50</td>
<td>45.73</td>
<td>64.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface</td>
<td>10.12</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td>17.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80.54</td>
<td>89.31</td>
<td>139.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gulati et al. (2005).

Note: The Ultimate Irrigation Potential (UIP) is an estimate prepared by the Ministry of Water Resources of the overall potential for irrigation in the country.

As can be seen, the potential created so far (till 1997) is only 64 per cent of the UIP. Thus, groundwater is a critical element in filling the need gap for the rural farmers, as it has provided irrigation in areas where the public irrigation systems have not reached or where the service delivery has been poor. In the last two decades, 84 per cent of the addition to net irrigated area has come from ground water.

**Major and Medium Irrigation:** In terms of investment by the government, major and medium irrigation sector accounts for 57 per cent of investment in the irrigation sector which serves only 35 per cent of the total area irrigated (Gulati et al. 2005). The infrastructure is ageing; there is an increased siltation of large dams, time and cost over-runs, and tail-ender deprivation. Almost 60 per cent of the total dams of the country are more than two decades old. Canal networks also need annual maintenance. Besides regular maintenance, many older structures need replenishment for which funds are a constraint.

**Increased Siltation of Large Dams:** The Inter-Ministry Task Force on large reservoirs maintains that one third of their storage capacity has been affected by siltation, resulting in reduced area under irrigation and lowering the life of the dam. In most cases the rate of siltation is far in excess of the rate assumed during construction (Planning Commission, 2002).

**Time and Cost Over-runs:** Another issue related to most large dams is that they are not completed within the scheduled period or budget and spillover from one 5-year plan to another. When the Tenth Plan began, there were 410 on-going projects, some of them started in the Fifth Five-Year Plan. The spillover costs from previous projects to the Tenth Plan are Rs 17,700 crore which is more than the allocated amount (MoRD, 2006). These delays have not only led to escalated costs but also to delays in returns from the investment and lower the viability of these projects.

**Tail-ender Deprivation:** Farmers who have land at the end of the canal system are called tail-enders. They include farmers in the tail reach as well as those at the end of the upper and middle reaches of the canal system. It has been known that many get neither enough nor timely water. A national research study undertaken by the Development Support Centre shows that tail-ender deprivation is far more than assumed thus far. In Gujarat, in a major water deficient project Dharoi with 45,000 ha of command area, the tail-enders’ problem was found in 37 percent of the command area. Even in the areas with warabandi system in Punjab and Haryana, 70 per cent of the tail-end farmers got 54 per cent to 70 per cent less water than they were entitled to. A good example of how this is hidden from the existing monitoring system is the large Tungabhadra system in Karnataka where farmers in the last reach got 91 per cent less water than they were entitled to even though the project performance was claimed as 90 per cent (DSC, 2003). A major impact of this was the lower agricultural productivity of tail-end farmers, movement to low-value crops or practice of leaving land fallow. The causes of tail-ender deprivation are excessive use by head-reach farmers, poor maintenance, less funds allotted to tail regions for maintenance, poor construction, and design fault.

**Groundwater Irrigation:** Ground water now contributes to 60 per cent of the area irrigated in India. India also has the highest annual ground water extraction in the world. Since 1970, it has been contributing more to agricultural wealth than surface irrigation. The contribution of ground water increased from Rs 22 billion in 1970 to 132 billion in 1993 while surface water increased from 77 billion to 115 billion (Shah and Deb, 2004). Tubewells are now the largest source of irrigation in the country and their share has increased from 1 per cent in 1960-61 to 37 per cent in 1999-2000 (MoRD, 2006). Since this sector has almost no dependence on the government, it is growing at a rapid rate and it is estimated that one million wells are added every year (Shah and Deb, 2004). Being an individually managed source, ground water irrigation is also a more efficient form of irrigation, with crop yields per cubic meter of water being 1.2 to 3 times higher than surface irrigation. However, since this sector has grown through investment by individual farmers, with little state involvement compared to canal irrigation, government support for understanding this sector and improving its performance is negligible. The major issues for the future growth of groundwater irrigation are declining resource base, demand driven growth, and a lack of policy and regulatory framework.

**Declining Resource Base:** While on the average out of the 430 bcm available, only 160 bcm is withdrawn, this average hides the localized stress on the resource of large regions currently dependent on ground water. The number of blocks which have more than 90 per cent groundwater development (GWD) is increasing. In Punjab,
Currently there is no policy framework governing the use of groundwater. In 1974, the central government had introduced the Ground water Act which was not adopted by any state. In any case, most policy makers feel that regulating thousands of wells is operationally not possible. However, the first requirement for evolving effective policies is to shift from water source development to water resource management in many areas, development has already taken place and ifnot managed, will lead to collapse of the ground water source. Options which can be considered are a combination of legal measures with indirect regulation through power supply.

Suggestions and Conclusion: The major challenge for the irrigation sector is to provide irrigation to rain fed areas, improve the quality of irrigation to existing irrigated areas, and achieve both of these objectives without incurring the large human, financial, and environmental costs of the past. The displacement costs to rural livelihoods, especially tribal livelihoods, because of large surface irrigation infrastructure have been huge and before new projects are initiated, the country needs mechanisms to redress the sufferings of those affected by the large irrigation projects. These projects have high costs, both in terms of capital investments as well as repairs and replacements, and existing budgetary outlays do not match the needs. Operational costs are largely subsidized, and the irrigation institutions are in a poor condition with few linkages between water rates, recoveries, and system performance. Therefore, major and medium surface irrigation systems have become increasingly unviable as capital, operational, and management costs rise with low contribution from users.

Irrigation departments in many states are over-staffed and despite the increased role of ‘minor’ irrigation, have a largershare of staff for major and medium irrigation projects. Irrigation itself requires an understanding of agriculture, sociology, agriculture economics, and agriculture engineering. Most irrigation departments are overwhelmingly staffed by civil engineers whose core competence is in constructing large dams and canals. Therefore, there is a need for a major shift in the existing staffing profile of water resource development departments so that their skill sets are relevant to the changing needs. Institutional reforms are a must and the revise dguidelines 19 for the AIDP make ‘reforms’ a pre-condition for funding irrigation projects. The time is ripe for most institutional reforms, such that

*  Irrigation institutions reflect changing approaches and technologies.
*  Institutions focus not only on increasing the amount of water available but improving the irrigation efficiency.
*  Irrigation institutions are so structured and incentives evolved such that there is a link between water rate, water recovery, and irrigation system performance.
*  The irrigation department, reduces its role in existing irrigation sub stantially and hands over powers to farmers' associations or any other alternative institutions.
*  Ground water irrigation and other ‘minor’ irrigation get the attention they deserve and water management rather than development becomes the focus.
*  Tribal and other non-irrigated areas are served with irrigation technologies appropriate to their context.

No single approach to irrigation-surface irrigation, ground water, or water shed-can be applied to the diverse socio-geographical regions of the country. The government and all other agencies will have to evolve the best fit of technology and in the institutional arrangements for the different regions of India. This is the key learning of all these years, and therefore, to a large extent, the debate of choosing one approach to the exclusion of the others is irrelevant. In India, there are many areas where reforms and innovations have been tried out successfully; Participatory Irrigation Management in Andhra Pradesh, the participatory check dams scheme in Gujarat, the work done by NGOs in drought-prone and tribal areas in promoting water-harvesting, low-cost irrigation, and watershed treatment as well as low-cost, easy-to-use micro-irrigation devices, all offer lessons which can be scaled up.

References:
Livestock Assets Holding Scenario among Farmers in Rural Punjab
Pawandeep Kaur*

Abstract: The present paper examines the composition of livestock assets of the different farm-size categories, namely landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers in rural Punjab. The present study is based on 631 farm households and relates to the agricultural year 2010-11. The study concludes that the farmer possessing larger land holdings have more livestock assets than others. Among the livestock asset, buffaloes and cows in milk account for a large share of livestock assets.

Keywords: Farm-Size, Livestock Assets, Farm-Size Categories.

Introduction: The livestock sector plays a dynamic role in the development process of India. It provides food, income and employment and for low income producers, the sector also serves as a store of wealth, draught power and organic fertiliser for crop production and as a means of transport. Consumption of livestock products in India though starting from a very low base, is growing rapidly (Bardhan, 2007). It is defined to include ruminants (cattle, sheep and goats), pigs, poultry (chicken, guinea fowl, ducks, turkey, ostrich, etc), and non-conventional species (grasscutter, snail, guinea pigs, rabbits, etc). Prominent among the numerous contributions the livestock sub-sector makes to the economy of the country is food security, providing the animal protein to enhance the nutritional adequacy in diets of the people. The sub-sector provides employment opportunities for a large part of the population, particularly, in the rural areas and offers considerable prospects for wealth generation, income enhancement and improvement in rural livelihoods. (Ministry of Food and Agriculture, 2004) With the increasing population growth, India is passing through an economic crisis. In the absence of industries and service opportunities, the problems of unemployment and livelihood are more serious in rural areas. A majority of the rural families are dependent on the natural resources such as land, livestock, water and vegetation. The income generation and agricultural production by individual families are dependent on the size of the holding, quality of the resources and the type of technologies applied for sustainable management of these natural resources. Being a mobile asset and equally distributed among various sections of the communities, livestock provides a significant opportunity for small farmers and even the landless to earn their livelihood. Among different species of livestock, cattle play a significant role because of its number and potential (Hedge, 1997). The Indian livestock sector is on a high growth trajectory. It is of special importance as it has strong backward and forward linkages, which promote many industries like livestock-based food processing and leather industries. Thus, improving the emphasis on the development of livestock sector will not only increase its share in the agricultural and national GDP but will also assist the sector in becoming one of the major foreign exchange earners in the Indian economy in the near future (Kumar, et. al, 2007).

Objective of the Present Study: The objective of the present paper to analysis the composition of livestock assets of the different farm-size categories, namely landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers in rural Punjab.

Research Methodology: For the analysis of extent of poverty and indebtedness among the different farm-size categories, on the basis of agro-climatic criterion the whole Punjab state has been divided into three regions: the Shivalik foothills region, the central plains region and the south-west region. We decided to select one district from each agro-climatic region. On the basis of this criterion, Hoshiarpur district from the Shivalik foothills region, Ludhiana district from the central plains region and Bathinda district from the south-west region have been selected. On the basis of random sampling method one village from each development block of the selected districts has been selected. Thus, in all, thirty villages have been selected for the survey. These include ten villages from Hoshiarpur district, twelve villages from Ludhiana district and eight villages from Bathinda district. As many as 10 per cent farm households consisting of landless, marginal, small, medium and large farmers formed the sample for the survey. Out of 30 villages, 631 households in all, 196 farm households from Hoshiarpur district, 224 from Ludhiana district and 188 from Bathinda district have been selected. Out of 631 farm households, 43 landless, 173 marginal, 183 small, 166 medium and 46 large farm households have been selected for the purpose of survey. The present study relates to the agricultural year 2010-11.

Results and Discussion: Per Household Values of Livestock Assets: Category-Wise
The livestock assets have appeared as the second most important productive asset of the rural households. These assets are not only a source of income for the farmers, but their nutritional needs are also fulfilled. The
economic condition of the farmers also determined on this basis. The data showing the livestock assets of farmers in Punjab is provided in Table 1. The mean value of livestock assets is Rs. 76934.36 for an average sampled farm household.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assets</th>
<th>Landless Farmers</th>
<th>Marginal Farmers</th>
<th>Small Farmers</th>
<th>Medium Farmers</th>
<th>Large Farmers</th>
<th>All Sampled Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cows in milk</td>
<td>14917.44</td>
<td>20204.44</td>
<td>20558.07</td>
<td>24261.39</td>
<td>36773.87</td>
<td>22354.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffaloes in milk</td>
<td>21406.08</td>
<td>27641.65</td>
<td>45265.22</td>
<td>6764.88</td>
<td>9920.33</td>
<td>4870.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calves</td>
<td>1425.58</td>
<td>567.31</td>
<td>1369.40</td>
<td>1933.28</td>
<td>1083.02</td>
<td>1376.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullock/ox</td>
<td>972.09</td>
<td>1049.76</td>
<td>2661.71</td>
<td>2992.53</td>
<td>3703.91</td>
<td>2278.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dogs</td>
<td>11.53</td>
<td>147.97</td>
<td>193.99</td>
<td>477.41</td>
<td>804.35</td>
<td>296.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others*</td>
<td>1075.58</td>
<td>1015.78</td>
<td>1793.66</td>
<td>2530.65</td>
<td>4155.65</td>
<td>1920.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>29818.60</strong></td>
<td><strong>50915.88</strong></td>
<td><strong>71842.05</strong></td>
<td><strong>99840.14</strong></td>
<td><strong>137121.13</strong></td>
<td><strong>76934.36</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Field Survey, 2010-11*

*Others such as sheep, goats, hens etc.

However, there are considerable variations in the values of livestock assets across the different farm-size categories. The livestock assets value is the highest (Rs. 137121.13) for the large farm-size category, whereas the medium, small, marginal and landless farm-size categories own livestock assets equivalent to Rs. 99840.14, Rs. 71842.05, Rs. 50915.88 and Rs. 39818.60 respectively. Both the buffaloes and cows in milk account for a large share of livestock assets. This share is positively associated with the farm-size. The share of buffaloes in milk is the highest (Rs. 90620.33) for the large farm-size category, whereas the corresponding figures for the medium, small, marginal and landless farm-size categories are Rs. 67644.88, Rs. 45265.22, Rs. 27614.65 and Rs. 21416.28 respectively. The same trend is available in the case of the cows in milk. The share of cow in milk is the highest (Rs. 36773.87) for the large farm-size category, followed by the medium, small, marginal and landless farm-size categories with their respective values of Rs. 24261.39, Rs. 20558.07, Rs. 20220.44 and Rs. 14917.44. Next in order of magnitude are the values relating to the assets; bullock/ox, calves, dogs, etc. The field survey has revealed the fact that in the case of livestock assets; bullock/ox in milk is the highest. This proportion comes to 63.30 per cent for an average farm household. It is the highest (67.75 per cent) for

### Pattern of Livestock Assets: Category-Wise:

Since the average values of livestock assets across the different farm-size categories are different, the pattern of livestock assets needs to be discussed in the relative terms. The relative shares of livestock assets are shown in Table 2. Among the various constituents of livestock assets, the percentage share of buffaloes in milk is the highest. This proportion comes to 63.30 per cent for an average farm household. It is the highest (67.75 per cent) for

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Assets</th>
<th>Landless Farmers</th>
<th>Marginal Farmers</th>
<th>Small Farmers</th>
<th>Medium Farmers</th>
<th>Large Farmers</th>
<th>All Sampled Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Buffaloes in milk</td>
<td>53.79</td>
<td>54.24</td>
<td>63.01</td>
<td>67.75</td>
<td>66.09</td>
<td>63.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Calves</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Bullock/ox</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Dogs</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Others*</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Others such as sheep, goats, hens etc.

the medium farm-size category and the lowest (53.79 per cent) for the landless farm-size category. The second important livestock asset is cows in milk. This proportion constitutes 29.06 per cent of the total livestock assets. The value of this asset is the highest for the marginal farm-size category, i.e., 39.71 per cent, followed by the landless, small, large and medium farm-size categories. Bullock/ox appears at the third rank. Their relative share comes to 2.96 per cent for an average farming household. Others such as sheep, goats, hens etc. contribute 2.50 per cent to the total livestock assets for an average farming household. The large and medium farm-size categories are better placed in this regard as compared to the all other farm-size categories.
Per Capita Value of Livestock Assets: Category-Wise: The per capita values of the livestock assets are given in Table 3. The table reveals that per capita value of livestock assets is Rs. 15549.53 for an average sampled farm household. There are considerable variations in the per capita values of livestock assets across the different farm-size categories. The per capita values of livestock assets is Rs. 8153.33, Rs.11439.54, Rs. 15076.94, Rs. 18929.93 and Rs.21825.51 for the landless, marginal, small, medium and large farm-size categories respectively. The per capita values like per household value of livestock assets are directly related to the farm-size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No</th>
<th>Assets</th>
<th>Landless Farmers</th>
<th>Marginal Farmers</th>
<th>Small Farmers</th>
<th>Medium Farmers</th>
<th>Large Farmers</th>
<th>All Sampled Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cows in milk</td>
<td>3054.22</td>
<td>4542.03</td>
<td>4314.37</td>
<td>4000.02</td>
<td>5875.28</td>
<td>4518.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Buffaloes in milk</td>
<td>4385.24</td>
<td>6204.33</td>
<td>9499.47</td>
<td>12825.63</td>
<td>14424.00</td>
<td>9843.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Calves</td>
<td>251.90</td>
<td>194.56</td>
<td>237.39</td>
<td>301.53</td>
<td>105.20</td>
<td>278.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bullock/ox</td>
<td>199.05</td>
<td>235.86</td>
<td>558.59</td>
<td>567.39</td>
<td>588.55</td>
<td>460.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Dogs</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>33.25</td>
<td>40.71</td>
<td>99.52</td>
<td>128.03</td>
<td>60.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Others*</td>
<td>220.24</td>
<td>228.21</td>
<td>376.42</td>
<td>479.83</td>
<td>661.45</td>
<td>388.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>8153.33</td>
<td>11439.54</td>
<td>15076.94</td>
<td>18929.93</td>
<td>21825.51</td>
<td>15549.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Others such as sheep, goats, hens etc.

Conclusion: The above analysis leads us to conclude that in the case of large farm-size category relatively higher value of livestock is the result of more number of livestock and their better quality. Among the various constituents of livestock assets, the buffaloes and cows in milk account for a large share of livestock assets. The percentage share of buffaloes in milk is the highest. The second important livestock asset is cows in milk. Next in order of magnitude are the values relating to the assets; bullock/ox, calves, dogs, etc. The per capita values like per household value of livestock assets are also directly related to the farm-size. The income level of poor farmers can be raised by developing subsidiary occupations like dairying, poultry, fisheries, repairing and small trade.

References:
Analyzing Trends of Remittances to India in the Era of Globalization

Kamlesh Goyal*

Abstract: India initiated the process of integration of domestic economy with the global economy since early 1990s due to balance of payments crisis, high fiscal deficit and high inflation rate. As every coin has two sides, similarly, there are both positive and negative aspects of this integration (Globalization). All these economic reforms leads to transformation of Indian economy and today it is the 12th largest economy in terms of exchange rate (US Dollar) and second fastest growing economy in the world. India is the largest remittances receiving country in the world. As per Reserve Bank of India, remittances in India increased to 68.91 USD Billion in 2015 and 70.389 USD Billion highest in the year 2014. It is also observed that Kerala, Punjab and Goa are the top remittance dependent economies of the world which are receiving over 40 per cent of international remittance flows. The objective of this paper is to analyze the impact of globalization on trends in remittances to Indian economy. This study is mainly focused from 1991 to 2015-16 time periods (the period of post reforms). This study is based on the secondary data taken from various reports of Government of India, NSSO, RBI, IMF, World Bank and other sources.

Keywords: Globalization, Migration, Remittances and Indian Economy.

Introduction: The phenomenon of globalization has many aspects and implications. It is referred to as a strategy of economic development where borders of the countries do not matter for movement of commodities, services, capital, finance, labour, technology, ideas and information. As globalization leads to increase the cross border transaction, movement of the people also took place on large scale. Technically this movement of people is called migration. When the people migrate from one place to another place with the intentions of settling permanently or temporarily in new area people migrate from one place to another due to various reasons, like on the basis of marriage, for higher education, to seek better employment opportunities and for the sake of security. Migration took place within the countries and as well as within the regions. Migration is very much beneficial for the origin area, because when people migrate from one place to another (backward area to forward area) then their thinking level also gets change, after some time when they visit their native place, then they bring changes in that area. These changes may be social, cultural and political. Orthodox thinking starts change into modern thinking. The main benefit of migration is that it also relieves the economic pressure. There are also some rules and policies regarding migration, when people across the borders of a country for their various motives, then they have to follow some legal procedures. These procedures, rules etc. are known as immigration policies. When people get citizenship of a country then they can also sponsor their relatives. Immigration policies permit admission on the basis of family relationships, now in many European countries; migration of spouses and children is permitted (Kumar, 2013 & Goyal & Singh 2016).

Migration in the Age of Globalization: The Indian economy was in deep crisis in July 1991 when foreign currency reserves had plummeted to almost $ 1 billion; inflation had reported to an annual rate of 17 per cent; fiscal deficit was very high and had become unsustainable; foreign investors and NRIs had lost confidence in Indian economy. Capital was flowing out of the country and the country was close to defaulting on loans. Along with these bottlenecks at home, many unforeseeable changes swept the economies of nations in Western and Eastern Europe, South East Asia, Latin America and elsewhere, around the same time. These were the economic compulsions at home and abroad that called for a compete overhauling of our economic policies and programmers. The series of reforms were undertaken with respect to industrial sector, trade as well as financial sector to make them efficient. In July 1991, a new chapter has downed for India its billion plus population by introducing Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG) aimed at making the Indian economy a fastest growing economy and globally competitive. Lots of important measures were initiated as a part of the liberalization and globalization strategy in the early nineties. This period of economic transition has a tremendous impact on the overall economic development of almost all the major sectors of the economy, and its effects over looked besides, it also marks the advent of the real integration of the Indian economy into the global economy (Somalkar, 2006).

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Analyzing Trends of Remittances to India in the Era of Globalization

The impact of all these economic reforms leads to increased migration at huge level. According to United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), in 2015, 3.3 per cent of the world's total population was living outside their country of origin. Majority of people migrated for better life, for job opportunities etc. and others are migrated due to crisis. The 64th round of National Sample Survey Organization found that 0.38 per cent of Indians have migrated out of the country. 67 per cent international migrants are living in just twenty countries and the largest numbers of international migrants (47 per cent) are living in the United States of America. People migrate from one country to another for their various motives and it is also beneficial for them, they get work on higher wages, their standard of living start improving but it also has some negative impacts. Sometimes people face partiality, discrimination in destination country; they also have to sacrifice the company of their family members who are living in origin country. Side by side they also have to do work at lower wage rate than existing wage rate. Many employees are exploited by the owners. It is analyzed that 71 per cent of all international migrants are living in high income countries and remaining 29 per cent world's migrants are living in low or middle income countries. Worldwide the median age of migrants has also been increasing; it is 39 years in 2015 as compare to 38 years in 2000. According to the findings in 2015 India had the largest Diaspora in the world. In 2015, 16 million persons from India were living outside of their country of birth (International Migration Report, 2015).

Concept of Remittances:

When people work in destination country, then after fulfilling their needs from their salary, they also send some money to their family, relatives and friends in the origin country. In economic terms this money is known as remittances. Remittances are very helpful to solve the economic problems of a country; it is an important component of the balance of payments for developing countries. In last few years remittances to India are rapidly increasing and India has become the largest recipient country of remittances in the world. Migrants remit money through various formal and informal channels; informal channels are more attractive in rural areas due to their multiple functions and this may also be due to the inconvenience of banking services like waiting times and other banking requirements. Some migrants from rural areas do not have the adequate knowledge about the banking services and many of those who have bank accounts do not use them properly, so most of the migrants of rural areas preferred to carry cash with them or send it through others. Remittances are the major source of loan payments because migrants belonging to poor families have taken the loan from various formal and informal sources, when they start earn in destination country first of all they preferred to repay the loan. The study indicated that a large part of emigrants come from poorest income groups and from unbanked areas so for many of these formal money channels are costly, slow and not accessible. The results of micro level studies suggest that international remittances have great importance in poverty reduction and human capital formation and it also improve the living conditions and human capabilities. In some cases, some migrants migrate to another country in search of employment opportunities, but in destination country the work which they get is very hard and tough, so they send remittances just to repay their debt, and after sometimes they come back to the origin country. This kind of remittances is not much helpful to reduce the poverty (Throat & Howard, 2011).

Trends in Remittances to India:

India is the largest remittances receiving country in the world. As per Reserve Bank of India, remittances in India increased to 8472.83 USD Million in the first quarter of 2016 from 8468.59 USD Million in the fourth quarter of 2015. Remittances in India averaged 8805.82 USD Million from 2010 until 2016, reaching an all-time high of 12293.40 USD Million in the fourth quarter of 2014 and a record low of 5999.10 USD Million in the third quarter of 2010. RBI 2006 suggests that 35 per cent of international remittance flows originated in North America, 35 per cent in the Middle Eastern Region, 20 per cent in Europe and 10 per cent in other countries. It is also observed that Kerala, Punjab and Goa are the top remittance dependent economies of the world which are receiving over 40 per cent of international remittance flows (Tumbe, 2011).

Table 1 indicates the trends of remittances to India in the increasing way from 1990-91 to 2014-15. In 1990-91 India received just 3.289 billion US Dollar remittances, but after the liberalizing of foreign polices particularly on migration the flow of migration has increased which also leads to increase the flow of remittances to India on higher level. From $ 3.289 billion remittances after reforms it increased to 8.766 billion in 1995-96 followed by $ 14.273 billion in 2000-01, $ 22.125 billion in 2004-05, $ 62.25 billion in 2010-11 and $ 68.91 billion in 2014-15. In terms of average annual growth rate it was growing highest in the year 1995-96 (40 per cent) followed by 2002-03 (33.45 per cent) and it was lowest growing in 2003-04 nearly 11 per cent. In terms of compound annual growth rate from 1990-91 to 2014-15 it is growing at 13.51 per cent annually. We can easily understand the trends and flow of remittances to India from the following table and chart.
Research Discourse, Year VII, Supplement - 2017

Table (1) Flow of Remittances to India from 1990-91 to 2014-15:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Remittances to India</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth Rate (percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>3.289</td>
<td>-9.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991-92</td>
<td>2.987</td>
<td>-9.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992-93</td>
<td>3.523</td>
<td>17.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993-94</td>
<td>5.557</td>
<td>57.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994-95</td>
<td>6.223</td>
<td>11.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>8.766</td>
<td>40.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996-97</td>
<td>10.331</td>
<td>17.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997-98</td>
<td>9.479</td>
<td>-8.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998-99</td>
<td>11.124</td>
<td>17.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-00</td>
<td>12.883</td>
<td>15.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>14.273</td>
<td>10.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-02</td>
<td>15.736</td>
<td>10.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002-03</td>
<td>20.999</td>
<td>33.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>-10.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>22.125</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>28.334</td>
<td>28.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>37.217</td>
<td>31.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007-08</td>
<td>49.997</td>
<td>34.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008-09</td>
<td>49.204</td>
<td>-1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009-10</td>
<td>53.48</td>
<td>8.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-11</td>
<td>62.499</td>
<td>16.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011-12</td>
<td>68.821</td>
<td>10.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012-13</td>
<td>69.97</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013-14</td>
<td>70.389</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014-15</td>
<td>68.91</td>
<td>-2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAGR</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Bank and RBI, of various years.

This table 2 shows the top 16 countries where from India received remittances. The highest remittances India received from United Arab Emirates ($12.57 billion) followed by USA ($10.96 billion) UK ($3.62 billion) Canada ($2.71 billion) and Italy 560 million US dollars. The country wise flow of remittances to India can be seen and understand easily from the following table and chart.
Table (2) Country Wise Distribution of Remittances to India in 2014-15:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Source Country</th>
<th>Amount (US Dollar Billion)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>12.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>10.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>10.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>4.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>3.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>1.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>8.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Countries</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>68.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: World Bank and RBI of various years.

Figure (2) Country Wise Distribution of Remittances to India in 2014-15:

Utilization of Remittances:

The Reserve Bank of India in its report recorded that in 2007-08, $ 43.5 billion were as 'private transfers to India, of this 50 per cent were used for family maintenance and household consumption, 43 per cent for local withdrawals or redemptions from Non Resident Indian (NRI) deposits and remaining 6 per cent were used for personal gifts and donations. Remittances which are received via wire transfers and bank drafts mainly used for family maintenance and remittances in NRI’s bank account used for investment purposes like investment in real estate, equity market etc. The findings of the National Sample Survey Organized (NSSO) and Reserve Bank of India revealed that in 2007-08 the domestic remittance market of India was estimated to be $10 billion and 60 per cent remittances was inter-state transfers. Remittances also lead to financial dependency, it increase investment and have many other positive impacts on origin country but despite its significance, systematic research on remittances are very limited because there is lack of nationally representative data. At all India level, above 90 per cent recipients use remittances for education, household goods, health care, for marriages and for social ceremonies etc. around 10 per cent use it for debt repayments (Tumbe, 2011).

Mode of Receiving Remittances:

The main instruments used by the migrant People to send remittances to India include Electronic Wires/SWIFT, Drafts, Cheques, Debit/Credit cards, Money Orders and Direct Transfers to Bank Accounts. The survey, based on the information received from major Authorized Dealers (ADs) branches spread across 12 cities reveals that electronic wires/SWIFT has been used as a dominant mode of transferring remittances from abroad by the
overseas Indians. Although it is argued that the SWIFT/wire transfer is a costlier means of transfer for small value remittance transactions and more cost effective for the higher value trade and other transactions, a higher use of this mode can be attributable to a relatively wider network of the Indian bank branches abroad to provide electronic fund transfer and less penetration of money transfer operators (MTOs). The higher use of swift vis-à-vis the other modes of transfers can also be attributed to the minimum time taken in remitting the funds as compared to other means of transfer. The traditional banking modes of remittance transfer i.e., drafts and cheques continue to be other major means of remitting money to India. All India average share of remittance transfer through drafts and cheques works out to 22 per cent (Singh, & Hari, 2011).

**Sum Up:**

To sum up, it can be say that the process of globalization in India was highly initiated in 1991 known as new economic reforms. Since these reforms the flow of migration from India to developed and developing countries increased with high rate. The high level of flow of migration of the people from India also positively impacted on trends and flow of remittances to India. This flow of remittances is increasing and becomes the economic dependency of many families in India. India is the largest remittances receiving country in the world. As per Reserve Bank of India, remittances in India increased to 8472.83 USD Million in the first quarter of 2016 from 8468.59 USD Million in the fourth quarter of 2015. Remittances in India averaged 8805.82 USD Million from 2010 until 2016, reaching an all-time high of 12293.40 USD Million in the fourth quarter of 2014 and a record low of 5999.10 USD Million in the third quarter of 2010. RBI 2006 suggests that 35 per cent of international remittance flows originated in North America, 35 per cent in the Middle Eastern Region, 20 per cent in Europe and 10 per cent in other countries. It is also observed that Kerala, Punjab and Goa are the top remittance dependent economies of the world which are receiving over 40 per cent of international remittance flows.

**References:**

Abstract : Gender equality plays the pivotal role in human development. Gender Inequality Index (GII) is a composite measure reflecting inequality of achievements between male and female in three dimensions as reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. India's journey in gender inequality index in last five years caught a snail pace where its ranking shifted from 132 to 131 from year 2011 to 2015 it has shown a positive trend. There is inter-state disparity among the States. The present study discusses the components and changing status of Gender Inequality Index in India. Components like maternal mortality ratio, adolescence birth rate, female male population with at least secondary education, female-male share of parliamentary seats and female male labour work force participation rates are being discussed. After the implementation of various policies and programmers, there is qualitative and quantitative improvement in gender equality whereas demands a paradigm shift for overall human development.

Keywords: Gender Inequality Index, Sex Ratio, Human Development.

Introduction :
In recent years gender has become a significant part of the mainstream discourse of economic growth and development (Rashmi, 2012). Inequality between men and women is the most decisive disparities in many societies, and this is particularly so in India (Sharma and Singh, 2015). Since 1990 the United Nation Development Programme an agency of UNO has published an annual Human Development Report in efforts to lug the progress of broad indicators of well being around the world. In 1995 HDR focused on gender and two new indexes were created with the intention of attracting more intension to gender inequality issues. They were the Gender-Related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The GDI suffers from a range of blemish in its design as well as in its practical application. The GEM, while it avoided some of the problems of the GDI but it is too narrowly focused on the formal economy and national political structures. GEM neglects some important facets (Bardhan and Klasen, 1999). In 2010 the UNDP HD report includes the new indices, GII (Gender Inequality Index).

Gender Inequality Index is a composite measure reflecting inequality of achievement between male and female in three dimensions- reproductive health, empowerment and labour market. Reproductive health measured by maternal mortality ratio and adolescent birth rate. Empowerment measured by proportion of parliamentary seats occupied by female and proportion of adult females and male age 25 years and older with at least some secondary education. Third dimension economic status which is expressed as labour market participation occupies the indicator of labour force participation rate of female and male population aged 15 and older (UNDP Report, 2014). It ranges from 0 to 1 where 0 indicates that women and men fare equality and to 1 indicates the women and men fare poorly as possible in all measured dimensions.

Objectives and Methodology :
The objective of the paper is to check the Gender Inequality Index with its various dimensions as health, empowerment and labour market in India and its trends. GII has considerable impact on overall human development. Keeping in the view the objectives of the study, secondary data have been used obtained from various published and unpublished sources. The required data have been collected and tabulated by various published sources like, Economic Survey, Demographic and Health surveys, Human Development Reports, Books and journals.

There are considerable evidences that economic growth and gender discrimination has increased simultaneously in India. India's gender inequality index value is 0.568, ranking it 130 out of 155 countries and lies in medium category in year 2015. Switzerland ranks 1st in GII in world. There is much countries level evidences showing how investment in women and girl can be vehicle to promote long term prospects and human development (Permanyes, 2009). The first aggregation is by the geometric mean across dimensions, these means calculated separately for women and men, are the aggregated separately using a harmonic mean across genders. Because Geometric mean cannot be computed from zero value, a minimum value of 0.1% set for all component indicators (UNDP report).

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GII- Gender Inequality Index

**Dimension**
- **Health**
  - *Indicators*
    - Maternal Mortality Rate
    - Adolescent Fertility Rate
- **Empowerment**
  - *Indicators*
    - Female and Male Share
    - Female and Male Labour of Parliamentary seats
- **Labour Market**
  - *Indicators*
    - Force participation Rate
    - Female & Male population with at least secondary education

Range between (0-1), 0-Indicates very good Gender Equality, 1-Indicates very bad Gender Equality.

**Health**
- Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)
- Adolescent Fertility Rate (AFR)

Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR): Material Mortality Rate measured number of material deaths per 10,000 live aged 15-49 years dying due to causes related to pregnancy or within 42 days of pregnancy. Maternal Mortality Ratio is 167 in year 2015. India ranks 153 out of 184 countries in respect of MMR. It witness a sharp decline in Material Mortality rate (MMR) with time, as a result of various healthcare facilities being provided free of cost of the pregnant women.

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1 Source: Sample Registration System, WHO Estimation. Department of Economics and social affairs, 2015

Data shows that maternal mortality rate was 327 in 1999-2000 which falls to 212 in 2007-09 and shows the continuous decreasing trend, reaches to 167 in 2014-15. After the implementation of National Rural Health Mission(NRHM) in 2005 has improved the health infrastructure in India. Janani-Shishu Suraksha Karyakram (JSSK) in 2011 and Janani SurakshaYojna (JSY) strengthen the maternal health, as the pregnant women were being provided the facility of free delivery, Investigation, free drug, free diagnostics, free duty during stay in hospital, free transportation from home to health institutions As per the Millennium Development Goal target which set to reach the MMR up to 109 by 2015 and 80 in 2017.

Adolescent Fertility Rate (AFR): Adolescent Fertility Rate measure the annual number of birth per 1,000 women aged 15-19 years. It represents the risk of childbearing among adolescent women 15 to 19 year of age Reducing adolescent fertility is essential for improving sexual, reproductive health, the social and economic well being of adolescents. Adolescent Fertility rate is a progress indicator for Millennium Development Goal target 5.B to achieve universal access to reproductive health (UNFPA,2010). In 2014, Niger ranks first with 203.60 value of Adolescent fertility rate in 184 countries Whereas India stands on 110 positions in AFR with 25.67 Value in 2014.

<table>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: AFR,UNDESA, 2014 , World bank data.

Table shows that Adolescent Fertility Rate was 98.8 births per thousand women at age of 15-19 in 1990 which falls to 66.9 in 2000 and continuously showing decreasing trend and reaches to 23 in 2015-16. Adolescent Fertility is still high in many countries. A rising age at marriage is most critical factor in postponing adolescent childbearing.

**Empowerment**

Empowerment of women mean of income generating activities is new orthodoxy in development discourse which signifies a paradigm shift "women in development to "women empowerment" (K. P. Lakshmi Devi). Women empowerment is most significant in reducing both child mortality and gender bias. An educated and economically empowered woman is powerful in decision making. This component has two dimensions,

1) Female and males population with at least Secondary Education.

2) Female and male share of Parliament seats.

India's record is particularly distressing when it comes to representation of women in Parliament and their labour force participation. The global average for Women in Parliament stands at 22.4% India is at the 103rd place out of 140 countries with a mere 12% representation. Within Asia, India is at the 13th position out of 18 countries. Countries like South Sudan, Saudi Arabia have better Women representation in Parliament than India but women average share of parliament membership has doubled, during 1995 to 2015. From 11.3% in 1995 and raise to 21.1%
Gender Inequality in India: An Unsolved Labyrinth

in 2015. Still 11.4% representation of women in the Lok Sabha is lower than even the Asian average. As from data women occupy just 66 seats in 543 members in Lok Sabha which is almost 12%.

Fig. 3A Table indicates Female & Male share in Parliamentary Seats in India:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of seats held by Men</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of seats held by Women</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of seats</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>543</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Fig. 3B Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>12.2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Female and males population with at least secondary education: Literacy and level of education are basic indicators of the development. Human Development Index and Gender Inequality Index has the same indicators of education, but it related to secondary education only, and that is also for female. Secondary level education covers children aged 12 to 18.

Fig. 4 Population with at least some secondary education, female (% ages 25 and older)

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India (in %)</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Female Enrolment ratio in secondary education shows that there is an upward trend. Only 13.4% female population was enrolled in secondary education in 1990 which rises to 27% in 2010. Almost two decades doubled the enrolment ratio. This leads to 35.3% in 2015.

Labour force participation rate: Fertility and labour force participation are affected by broadly the same parameters. Labour force participation is the proportion of the population 15-59 age group that all who supply labour for production of good and service during specific periods.

Formula

\[
\text{Labour Force} = \frac{\text{Employment} + \text{Unemployment}}{\text{Working age non-institutional population}}
\]

Working age non institutional population is calculated by deduction of below 16 years age, elderly, housewives and those who don't look for job. India has miserable picture of 27% for women versus 79.9% for men in labour force participation. Labour force participation rate, female was 36.8% in 2005, which has been rapidly increasing since the 1990. Out of India's 397 million workers in 2011, 124 million were women. Over the 50% of Indian labour is employed in agriculture and majority of women workforce is involve in agriculture sector those who are illiterate. According to World Bank WDI report In India ranks 8th among South East Asian Countries and 30.3% of women are in the workforce. India ranks 134th in the world, in economic participation of women. The participation of women in the conventional workforce is continuously rising. They are largely employed or working in banking, Insurance, hospitality, health care, and other server sector industries. However, they have very less percentage in manufacturing and engineering industries. In India, comparison to women, the top managerial and administrative posts are generally held by men. We can say that the Glass ceiling effect is besides a reason for inequality against women. The invisible hindrance that hinders them to rise to higher position in spite of having merits on the basis of education, ability is called Glass Ceiling Effect. According to a 2012 report on global employment trends by the International Labour Organisation, many Indian women are able to find only marginal work in the informal economy, with low wages and little or no job security.

Fig. 5 Labour Force participation, Female (% of age 15 and older)

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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In 2011-2012, women have 24.8% of all rural workers, which falls from 31.8% in 1970's. 13.4% of Indian working women have a regular salaried job compared to 21.2% of working men (aged 15-59).

We can see the effects of education, life expectancy and labour force participation of female in country's development and this situation reveals better life conditions of women. It is well said if female is educated and well established it will leads the generation and play positive role in economic development. There are few limitations of Gender Inequality Index like, limitation of concern age misreporting, birth omission, misreporting the data of birth, Excludes participation at the local government level and asset ownership and gender-based violence.
Conclusion: Gender equality is not a women's issue, it is a human issue. Gender Inequality Index is a very comprehensive tool, which touch upon all spheres of gender centric development. Human Development Index explores the overall picture of any economy's human element. GII should not be considered as an independent tool to summaries the Human development. Even though this Index has some limitations it can be used judiciously with amalgamation of other development indexes. In later decades from 2000 till date there is significant improvement in development of women in India. GII status shows that in India, for women, in certain parts of the country have started getting fairly better equal rights in comparisons with all earlier decades. In health and education the status of women has improved but in labour force participation of women has increased.

References:
Abstract: The concept of Women Empowerment was first brought at the international women’s conference in 1985 at Nairobi. The conference concluded that empowerment is a redistribution of power and control of resources in favour of women. Empowerment has several dimensions: it needs to be studied along the following dimensions: economic, social-cultural, familial/interpersonal, legal, political and psychological. However, these dimension are very broad in scope. Therefore, our study is confined to three dimensions only i.e. social, economic and political. Social empowerment implies promotion of social capacities such as education, health, and cultural aspects. Economic empowerment means entitlement to employment, income, property, productive resources and equal distribution of benefits of development. Political empowerment means equal role in decision making process structure from grass root level and national level. The objective of this study is to analyses the status of women in India as well as Punjab which is based upon secondary data which had been derived from many sources such as various journals, research reports, articles, census of India and various websites.

Keywords: Women Empowerment, Indian Society, Women Empowerment Laws.

Introduction: Empowerment is seen as a process by which the ones without power gain greater over their lives. This means control over materials assets, intellectual resources and ideology. Women's empowerment is a process whereby women become able to organize themselves to increase their own self-reliance, to assert their independent rights to make choice and to control resources which will assist in challenging, and eliminating their own subordination. The goal of women's empowerment is to address issues relating to women's subordination, inequality and inequity.

Every women and girl is entitled to be realization of all human rights. Civil, political, economic, social and cultural on equal terms with men, free from discrimination women and girls also enjoy certain human rights specifically linked to their status as women. The world has recognized that the human rights of women are "an integral and indivisible part of universal human right" women are guaranteed equal treatment and freedom from discrimination in the most basic human rights treaty, the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women.

Global Scenario: Introduced on International Women's Day 2010, the Women's Empowerment Principles are adapted from the Calvert Women's Principles. The Calvert Women's Principles were originally developed in partnership with UNIFEM (now UN Women) and launched in 2004 as the first global corporate code of conduct focused exclusively on empowering, advancing and investing in women worldwide. Take women's leadership and participation. The percentage of women in national legislatures has increased slowly over the past decade, but still averages just over 19 per cent which means that there are still more than five men for every one woman legislator. To address this gap UN Women works to build capacity of women to run for and win elections, including training to help them develop political platforms and mobilize constituencies.

The Gender Equality Fund, which UN Women administers, awards substantial financial grants to governments and civil society organizations working to achieve women's political and economic empowerment. Already we see success stories. In countries as diverse as Albania and Rwanda, Nepal and South Africa, gender equality advocates have partnered with governments and parliaments to put in place positive measures, such as electoral quotas, which have had proven results. Quotas doubled the number of women parliamentarians in Albania, to over 16 per cent. Nepal attained South Asia's highest ever percentage of women legislators nearly 33 per cent, up from 2 per cent. And in Rwanda, the adoption of a 30 percent quota resulted in increasing women's representation to over 50 per cent of legislative seats.

The global average of women in parliaments as of November 2013 stood at 21.3%, a slight increase over the numbers in the immediately preceding two years (20.3% and 19.5%). The IPU is an international organization of parliaments and works for the establishment of representative democracies. Countries are ranked by the IPU based on percentage of women in the lower house of parliament. The top three countries in the 2013 analysis were Rwanda, Andorra and Cuba. India fared poorly even when compared with her immediate neighbors. Here, Nepal, ranked at 24, led the pack, followed by China (55) and Pakistan (66).With elections around the corner in India,
several women groups have come together under the umbrella of 'Time for 33% Coalition' and are seeking passage of the women's reservation bill during the winter session which will start shortly.

**Indian Scenario:** From ancient to modern period, women's condition—socially, politically and economically—has not remained same and it kept changing with times. In ancient India, women were having equal status with men; in early Vedic period they were very educated and there are references of women sages such as Maitrayi in our ancient texts. But with the coming of famous treatise of Manu i.e. Manusmriti, the status of women was relegated to a subordinate position to men.

All kinds of discriminatory practices started to take from such as child marriage, devadashipratha, nagarvadhu system, sati pratha etc. Women's socio-political rights were curtailed and they were made fully dependent upon the male members of family. Their right to education, right to work and right to decide for themselves were taken away. During medieval period the condition of women got worsened with the advent of Muslim rulers in India; as also during the British period. But the British rule also brought western ideas into the country.

A few enlightened Indians such as Raja Ram Mohun Roy influenced by the modern concept of freedom, liberty, equality and justice started to question the prevailing discriminatory practices against women. Through his unrelenting efforts, the British were forced to abolish the ill-practice of Sati. Similarly several other social reformers such as Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Swami Vivekananda, Acharya Vinoba Bhave etc. worked for the upliftment of women in India. For instance, the Widow Remarriage Act of 1856 was the result of Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar's movement for improving the conditions of widows.

Indian National Congress supported the first women's delegation which met the Secretary of State to demand women's political rights in 1917. The Child Marriage Restraint Act in 1929 was passed due to the efforts of Mahommed Ali Jinna, Mahatma Gandhi called upon the young men to marry the child widows and urged people to boycott child marriages.

During freedom movement, almost all the leaders of the struggle were of the view that women should be given equal status in the free India and all types of discriminatory practices must stop. And for that to happen, it was thought fit to include such provisions in the Constitution of India which would help eliminate age-old exploitive customs and traditions and also such provisions which would help in empowering women socially, economically and politically.


### Table (1) Sex ratio of India and Punjab (2011-2015):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex ratio of India</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural sex ratio of India</td>
<td>947</td>
<td>949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban sex ratio of India</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex ratio of Punjab</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural sex ratio of Punjab</td>
<td>907</td>
<td>909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban sex ratio of Punjab</td>
<td>875</td>
<td>871</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Census of India 2011

Sex ratio is used to describe the number of female per 1000 of males. Table 1 shows that the office of the Registrars General and Census Commission India 2011 it was revealed that population ratio of India 2011 was 933 female per 1000 males. And 2015 is 943 female per 1000 males. Rural sex ratio of India in 2011 is 947 per 1000 males and 2015 is 949 female per 1000 males. Urban sex ratio of India 2011 is 920 female per 1000 male and in 2015 is 929 female per 1000 male. Sex ratio of Punjab 2011 is 895 and 2015 is 893. Rural sex ratio of Punjab 2011 is 907 female per 1000 males and in 2015 is 909 female per 1000 males. Urban sex ratio of Punjab 2011 is 875 and 2015 is 871 female per 1000 males. Table show that, Punjab sex ratio 2015 is 871 is less as compare to the India sex ratio and urban sex ratio of India is less as compare to the rural sex ratio. And Punjab sex ratio 2015 is also less as compare to 2011 sex ratio.

### Table (2) Life expectancy rate in India (2011-2015):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>68.20</td>
<td>65.67</td>
<td>66.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Census of India 2011 and World Statistics Report 2016.
Table (3) Life expectancy rate in Punjab (2011-2015):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: census of India 2011 and census operation, Punjab.

Life expectancy is a statistical measure of the average number of years that a person can expect to live in "full health" excluding the years lived in less than full health due to disease and/or injury. In 2011, Indians were founded to live on an average 66.90 years. India's position improved with respect to the 191 countries dropping from 134th in 2013 to 133th in 2014. In 2015, life expectancy at birth was 68.3 years in India which breaks down to 66.9 years for men and 69.9 for women. World Statistics Report 2016 found Life expectancy of both male and female in Punjab is higher than National level. In 2011, life expectancy at birth was 69.4 years in Punjab which breakdown to 68.9 year for men and 66.7 for women. In 2015, life expectancy at birth for males was estimated 69.7 years and for females 72.8 years in Punjab as compared to 67.3 years and 69.6 years at National level.

Table (4) Infant Mortality Rate of India and Punjab (2011-2015):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>47.57</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census of India 2011

The infant mortality rate is the number of deaths under one year of age occurring among the live births in a given geographical area during a given year, per 1,000 live births occurring among the population of the given geographical area during the same year. This entry gives the number of deaths of infants under one year old in a given year per 1000 live birth in the same year, included is the total death rate and deaths by sex male and female. Infant mortality rate of India 2011 is 47.57 deaths per 1000 live birth and in 2015 is 40.5 deaths per 1000 live birth. And women infant mortality rate in 2011 is 46 which declined to 41.8 in 2015. Infant mortality rate of Punjab 2011 is 30 deaths per 1000 live birth and women infant mortality rate is 33 deaths per 1000 live birth. Total Infant Mortality Rate of Punjab per thousand live births in 2011 is 30.0 which declined to 22.0 in 2015. In case of female infants, it was 29 in 2015 as compared to 33 in 2011.

Table (5) Literacy rate in India: 1981-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census year</th>
<th>Persons</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male-female gap in literacy rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>43.57</td>
<td>56.38</td>
<td>29.76</td>
<td>26.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>52.21</td>
<td>64.13</td>
<td>39.29</td>
<td>24.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>64.83</td>
<td>75.26</td>
<td>53.67</td>
<td>21.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>74.04</td>
<td>82.14</td>
<td>65.46</td>
<td>16.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Literacy rate means total percentage of the population of an area at a particular time aged who can read and write with understanding. As per 2011 census, the literacy rate in India is 74.04% which is higher than the literacy rate of 64.83% in 2001. In 2011, only 65.46% of females in India were literate compared to 82.14% of men. The male and female literacy rates were 75.26% and 53.67% respectively in 2001. Gap in literacy rate of male & female in India has also decreased over the years. During 2001 and 2011, the literacy gap came down from 21.59% to 16.68% respectively.

Table (6) Literacy rate in Punjab: 1981-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census year</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male-female gap in literacy rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>43.37</td>
<td>51.23</td>
<td>34.35</td>
<td>16.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>58.51</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>69.65</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>63.55</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>76.68</td>
<td>81.48</td>
<td>71.16</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the table 6, as per 2011 Population census, the literacy rate in Punjab is 76.68% which is higher than the literacy rate of 69.65% in 2001. In 2011, only 71.16% of females in Punjab were literate compared to 81.48% of men. The male and female literacy rates were 75.6% and 63.55% respectively in 2001. Gap in literacy rate of male & female
in Punjab has also decreased over the years. During 2001 and 2011, the literacy gap came down from 11.9% to 9.7% respectively. When compare India and Punjab literacy rate, Punjab literacy rate is higher as compare to India.

**Conclusion:** Women empowerment is based on the education system. Education is linked to demographic change by empowering women through their learning experience, and that empowerment leads to changed behaviors related to child-bearing and child-raising. These behavior changes eventually result in lower rates of fertility and child mortality. An educated woman is more confident of her ability to make a decision or voice an opinion, and more likely to insist on participating in family discussions and enter the workforce. When a woman has economic independence, she gains control over economic resources, gains a voice over household decisions, and becomes more self-reliant. Increasing literacy and employment has a positive impact on women empowerment. If women are educated then she has capable and ability to work in different sectors not only dependent on the agriculture sector because most of the women work in agriculture. Moreover, high female literacy rates are associated with low rates of population growth, infant mortality, maternal mortality and high rate of life expectancy. Opportunities for employment and political empowerment are equally important for overall development of women. Women empowerment should be recognized as a central issue in the determining status of women.

**References:**

Impact of Goods and Services Tax on Indian Economy

Ajit Pathak*

Abstract: The day of July 1, 2017 was a historical day, when there was the end of complex network of all indirect taxes which has been merge into Goods and Service Tax (GST) with different tax rates which helped to Central government as well as all State governments to receive tax revenue in a formal way where the almost 93 per cent economic activities are informal in nature. It is important for every government to increase the tax base for generating more revenue by which government can increase their activities. But India's case is almost opposite from the many developed as well as developing countries whose maximum proportion of revenue come from direct taxes and less from indirect taxes. The present paper elaborates the discussion on GST whose little literature has been come in public domain. This paper introduces what is GST and examines the impact of GST on Indian Economy which is based on secondary sources taken various online sources, websites, articles and comments of Individuals and policy makers.

Keywords: Indirect Taxes, GST, CGST, SGST, IGST and Indian Economy

Introduction: The Goods and Services Tax(GST) has changed the whole scenario of current indirect tax system. The introduction of Goods and Services Tax (GST) is considered as biggest tax reform in the field of indirect tax in Independent India. GST was first introduced by France in the year 1954 and now it is followed by 161 countries. The Most of the countries followed unified GST while some countries like Brazil, Canada follow a dual GST system where tax is imposed by central and state both.

The Goods and Services Tax (GST) rolled out in India at midnight hour on June 30, 2017. GST brings "one nation one tax" to unite indirect taxes under one umbrella and facilitate Indian businesses to be globally competitive. By consolidating a large number of Central and State taxes into a single tax, which replaces 17 Central and State taxes including Services Tax, Value added tax, octroi, duties and other charges, except Customs levy, across the country except in Jammu & Kashmir . The Indian GST case is structured for efficient tax collection, reduction in corruption, easy interstate moment of goods. According to experts view GST will create a common market in the $ 2-trillion economy with 1.3 billion people.

Reasons for charging two elements of GST instead of one GST in India: In the federal country where both the centre and state have been assigned the power to levy and collect taxes through appropriate legislation, both the levels of Govt. have distinct responsibility to perform according to division of power prescribed in the constitution for which they need to raise resources. A dual GST will therefore, be in keeping with constitutional requirement of Fiscal Federalism. There are some items exempted from GST at present. The major item exempted from GST are Alcoholic liquor for human consumption, Aviation turbine fuel, diesel, petrol, etc. In other words GST council has to decide when these items should be covered under GST. If those items should be excluded from GST, the purpose of GST defeated. Because, State Government gets 40% revenue from these items. So in India dual GST (Central GST + State GST) make in amendments where CGST comes under Central Government and SGST comes under State Government.

FEATURES OF GST:
- The GST would be applicable on the supply of goods or services.
- It would be a destination based consumption tax.
- It would be a dual GST with the Centre and States simultaneously levying it on a common tax base.
- The GST to be levied by the Centre would be called Central GST (CGST) and that to be levied by States would be called State GST (SGST).
- An Integrated GST (IGST) would be levied and collected by the Centre on inter-State supply of goods and services.
- The GST would apply to all goods other than alcoholic liquor for human consumption and five petroleum products.
- The GST would apply to all services barring a few specified.
- The GST would subsume numerous Central and State taxes.
- The CGST and SGST would be levied at rates to be jointly decided by the Centre and States.
- The rates would be notified on the recommendations of the GST Council.

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The exemption list would be common for the Centre and the States.
- Tax payers with an aggregate turnover in a financial year up to [Rs.20 lakhs] would be exempt from tax.
- For North East States and Sikkim, the threshold exemption shall be [Rs. 10 lakhs].
- Tax payers making inter-State supplies or paying tax on reverse charge basis shall not be eligible for threshold exemption.
- Small taxpayers with an aggregate turnover in a financial year up to [Rs. 75 lakhs] shall be eligible for composition levy.
- Under the scheme, a taxpayer shall pay tax as a percentage of his turnover during the year without the benefit of input tax credit (ITC).
- Tax payers making inter-State supplies or paying tax on reverse charge basis shall not be eligible for composition scheme.

**BENEFITS OF GST:** The benefits of this transformational tax reform are manifold. The benefits include:
* A single tax would replace multiple taxes.
* Set-off of prior-stage taxes would mitigate the ill effects of cascading.
* Tax burden on goods and services would decrease, benefiting common man.
* Implementation of GST would make our products competitive in domestic and international markets.
* It would boost economic activity and create more jobs.
* The GDP would grow though the estimates in this regard vary.

**Inter-State Transactions and the IGST Mechanism:** The Centre would levy and collect the Integrated Goods and Services Tax (IGST) on all inter-State supply of goods and services. The IGST mechanism has been designed to ensure seamless flow of input tax credit from one State to another. The inter-State seller would pay IGST on the sale of his goods to the Central Government after adjusting credit of IGST, CGST and SGST on his purchases (in that order). The exporting State will transfer to the Centre the credit of SGST used in payment of IGST. The importing dealer will claim credit of IGST while discharging his output tax liability (both CGST and SGST) in his own State. The Centre will transfer to the importing State the credit of IGST used in payment of SGST.

**Impact of GST on Indian Economy:** Like every coin has two sides; even GST will probably have its own Positives and Negative impacts:
**Positive Aspects of GST:**
1. The main reason to implement GST is to abolish the cascading effect on tax. A product on which excise duty is paid can also be liable to VAT. Suppose product A is manufactured in a factory. As soon as it releases from factory, excise duty has to be paid to the central government. When the product A is sold in the same state then VAT has to be paid to the State Government. Also no credit on excise duty paid can be taken against output VAT. This is termed as cascading effect since double taxes is levied on same product.
2. GST will lead to a more transparent and neutral manner to raise revenue.
3. Implementation of GST will help to resolve various issues concerning taxation and logistics with regard to e-commerce business, which has been recording rapid growth in the country, says a study.
4. Simplified and cost saving system as procedural cost reduces due to uniform accounting for all types of taxes. Only three type of account; CGST, SGST & IGST have to be maintained.
5. GST is structured to simplify the current indirect system. It is a long term strategy leading to a higher output, more employment opportunities and economy boom.

6. It is beneficial for both economy and corporations. The reduced tax burden on companies will reduce production cost making exporters more competitive.

7. GST will reduce transaction costs for taxpayers through simplified tax compliance.

8. It will result in increased tax collections due to wider tax base and better conformity.

9. For the Centre and the States: According to experts, by implementing GST, India will gain $ 15 Billion a year. This is because it will promote more exports, create more employment opportunities and boost growth.

10. For individuals and companies: In the GST system, taxes for both Centre and State will be collected at one point of sale. Both will be charge on manufacturing cost. Individuals will be benefited by this as prices are likely to come down. Lower price mean more consumption, more consumption means more production.

11. The implementation of GST will make industry more competitive through dismantling of the complex indirect tax structure and boost the tax revenue of states and thereby helping in the growth of the companies.

**Negative Aspects of GST:** There are following negative aspects of Goods and Services Tax (GST):

1. Majority of dealers are not covered with the central excise but are only paying VAT in the state. Now all the VAT dealers will be required to pay Central Goods and Services Tax (CGST).

2. GST is referred as single taxation system in India but in reality it is a dual tax in which both state and centre collects separate tax on single transaction of sale & service. However GST has some negative aspect but at the end it will boost economy.

3. GST would impact negatively on the real estate market. It would add up to 8 percent to the cost of new homes and reduce demand by about 12 percent.

4. Service tax litigations have risen substantially in recent years and that may be because of the absence of a pan-India Goods and Services Tax (GST) regime that can potentially remove several ambiguities around indirect taxation, experts maintain.

**Conclusion:** The proposed GST regime is a half-hearted attempt to rationalize indirect tax structure. More than 150 countries have implemented GST. The government of India should study the GST regime set up by various countries and also their fallouts before implementing it. At the same time, the government should make an attempt to insulate the vast poor population of India against the likely inflation due to implementation of GST. No doubt, GST will simplify existing indirect tax system and will help to remove inefficiencies created by the existing current heterogeneous taxation system only if there is a clear consensus over issues of threshold limit, revenue rate, and inclusion of petroleum products, electricity, liquor and real estate. Until the consensus is reached, the government should resist from implementing such regime. There are various challenges in way of GST implementation as discussed above in paper. They need more analytical research to resolve the battling interest of various stakeholders and accomplish the commitment for a cardinal reform of tax structure in India.

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Impact of Globalization on Human Rights: An Overview

Jaspreet Kaur*

Abstract: Man is a social animal and cannot survive alone. Being a social animal, he lives in a society and he was to take care of certain norms of that society. In other words while living in society he will have to take care of the well being and rights of other members of society. This gives rights to the concept of human rights. Human rights are directly associated with the concept of society and human characteristics. The relation of the family like moth, father, son and daughter are the outcomes of living together. Theses relation later on developed new forms under civic and political institutes at social and global level. On the other hand, globalization mainly refers to multi-society operations. It refers to the extended area of activity and interaction among the nations. It is an attitude towards interaction among the nations. This interaction incorporates the mutual interest of the nations towards development. Globalization means shrinkage of space as well as time. This brings nation, culture and economies together and ensures mutual respect for on another. Here comes the interrelationship of globalization and human rights. As nation coming closer to each other the issues related to human rights, exploitation coming in existence and need of the hour is that human rights must kept in mind during fast advancement due to globalization.

Keywords: Society, Human Rights, Globalization & Culture.

Introduction: The world's inequalities are constantly growing: millions of people continue to suffer from forced eviction, inadequate access to education and basic health treatment and appalling working conditions. Economic actors, especially multinational corporations have acquired increased power in the past decades. Liberalization of trade and investment flows, protection granted to foreign investors, but the high degree of dependency between the world's economics but also foreign debt and policies of international financial institutions have restrained the ability of states to uphold their human rights obligations. Human rights defenders and those participating in protests denouncing corporate abuse are being increasingly targeted. Communities struggle to obtain justice for violations of economic, social and cultural rights, even more so when involving multinational companies that operate across national borders.

Figure 1: Globalization and Human Rights

Manifestation of Globalization:
- Change in population Composition: in the wake of globalization, there is immigration and emigration of individuals that has led to the change in the population composition all over the world. This leads to the cultural exchange and flow of ideas which enriches the world culture and propagates the feeling of individual brotherhood.

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Impact of Globalization on Human Rights: An Overview

- World-wide Location: the organization with global base can locate their clients anywhere in the world. They can do so on the basis of raw material availability, consumer market and low cost labor. Education is the latest craze in the exercise.
- Redefined the role of state and industry: the important outcomes of globalization are the collapse of international barriers. This naturally leads to a new global cooperative arrangement and redefinitions of the role of state and industry.
- Dominant competition drivers: Globalization implies that costs, quality, processing time and terms of business integration become dominant competition drivers. Client can make a genuine choice of products and services. On the basis of maximum value of time and money.

Development of Globalization -Historical Perspective: Globalization refers to the increasingly global relationships of culture, people and economic activity. It is generally used to refer to economic globalization: the global distribution of the production of goods and services, through reduction of barriers to international trade such as tariffs, export fees, and import quotas. In this age, wide spread development took place in the field of infrastructure and connectivity. This led to more interaction between the nations and sharing ideas, culture and tradition took place. The origins of the history of globalization can be traced to the ancient civilization. The example of earliest forms of globalization is the trade links between the Sumerian civilization and Indus Valley Civilization. In fact, after this age, there are numerous instances where trade links were established between various countries like India, Egypt, Greece, and Roman Empire and so on. There were regular business links between the Parthian Empire, Roman Empire and Han Dynasty.

Globalization in the medieval age: The Islamic period in the medieval era is an important epoch in the history of globalization. This was when the Jewish and the Muslim traders started going to various parts of the world to sell various items. As more people started traveling to various countries across the world, it led to more communication between people and intermingling of languages.

Globalization between the pre modern periods to modern period: The industrial revolution in the 19th century was one of the major periods in the history of globalization. Due to the industrial revolution, there was a significant increase in the quality and quality of the products. This led to higher exports and better trade and business relations. Due to better products and colonization, lots of counties across the world became the consumers of the European market. This phase of pre globalization perhaps came to an end and after the First World War.

Globalization in the modern era: in the modern sense of the term, came into existence after the Second World War. One of the main factors for this was the plan by the world leaders to break down the borders for fostering trade relations between nations. It was also in this period that major countries like India, Sri Lanka, Indonesia and some countries in South America gained independence. As a result, these countries started having their own economic systems and established trade relations with the rest of the world. The establishment of the United Nations Organization (UNO) was also a major step in this regard. Another milestone in the history of globalization is the creation of the World Trade Organization which led to the growth of a uniform platform to settle trade and commercial disputes.

Impact of Globalization and Human Rights: Globalization has its winners and losers with the expansion of trade, market, foreign investment, developing countries have seen the gaps among themselves widen. The imperative to liberalization has demanded shrinking of state involvement in national life, producing a wave of privatization, slashing health, education and food subsidies etc. affecting the poor people in society. In many cases liberalization has been accompanied by greater inequality and people are left trapped in utter poverty. Mean while in many industries countries unemployment has soared to levels not seen for many years and income disparity to levels not recording since last country. The development report of 1997, revealed that poor country and poor recording since last country. The development report of 1997, revealed that poor country and poor people too often find there interest neglected as result of Globalization. Although globalization of the economy has been characteristics as a locomotive for productivity opportunity, technological process and uniting the world, it ultimately causes increased impoverishment, social disparities and violations of Human Rights. That is what, we see today.

Similarly the negative impact of globalization as a specially on vulnerable sections of the community results in the violation of various rights guaranteed by various covenants in particular of the:

* Freedom from cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.
* Freedom from servitude, the right to equality and non discrimination.
* The right to maintain a high standard of physical and mental health.

Suggestions for the Success of Globalization Keeping Human Rights in Mind
1. A well planned and thought out marketing strategy should be developed.
2. Easy registration system and prompt to enquiries.
3. Franchising should be made after careful screening regarding facilities support services etc.
4. Material need to be dispatches promptly as per determined schedule.
5. Delivery service must be effective. Study material should be supplied to the students properly and in time.
6. There should be flexibility in production procedure to ensure meeting of specialized needs.
7. A global watch should be established to monitor report the unethical transactions that take place between the government of developing nations and global cooperation. The government of developing nation should not continue to get rich by selling there factor of production (land and labor) to global corporations.
8. Efforts by state to create investment rules must be subjected to security and analyzed through human right discourse.
9. Requirement to become free trading nation should be revised.

**Conclusion**: In the age of globalization, the struggle for human right has become more complex and challenging. Realizing human right a specially economic and social right is becoming increasingly difficult. One of the most profound challenges that be face as a community of nations is into understand Better the emerging socio-economic force and forms of globalization, to shape them to serve our needs and to respond effectively to their detritus consequences. Human right can balance force of globalization within a just international legal framework. Maintaining balance between globalization and protection of human right should be priority. Human rights are what make us human. They are the principles by which we create a sacred home for dignity. Human rights are what reason requires and conscience commands.

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Changing Role of Human Rights in the Era of Globalization: A Theoretical Analysis

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Abstract: Globalization has, undoubtedly, influenced not only the content, nature and realization of human rights but also the mechanism for their enforcement. This being the case, one should ask a more fundamental question first: what is the nature of globalization, both as a concept and as a process? Is it pro- or anti-human rights or is it a neutral phenomenon? In my view, globalization as a concept is neither pro- nor anti-human rights; conceptually, globalization could offer opportunities both for the promotion and abridgment of human rights, at the national level as well as internationally. What is, however, critical is the way in which this conception is operationalized, i.e., the process of globalization.

Keywords: Globalization, Human Rights & Mechanism.

Introduction: Globalization, both as a description and a prescription has provoked several contradictory responses. Although the two opening statements amply indicate this contradiction, some illustrations will help in removing any remaining doubts. Globalization demands deregulation and regulation at the same time. Whether globalization is about removing borders or strengthening the existing ones is not clear; it has removed borders regarding trade but not regarding several other important issues such as access to life-saving drugs, labor movement, employment, and immigration. However, hardly contested is that globalization has serious implications, both positive and negative, for the realization of human rights everywhere, but more so in developing countries. Taking India as an example of a developing country, this article seeks to critically examine how globalization has influenced the project of human rights realization. Even if limited to Indian experience, the task undertaken here is quite ambitious. In this article, therefore, I only aim to begin drawing the sketch on a wide canvas.

Impact of Globalization on Human Rights: Human rights have been on the international schema of things since the end of the World War II, certainly since 1948, but their violation as consequence of globalization has not been adequately scrutinized. The "international bill of human rights" holds states accountable for realization of human rights. But in the contemporary era it is the private global players that are frequently the most egregious violators of rights, and as far as there accountability is concerned they are accountable to none. Strikes and demonstrations protesting worsening labour conditions have become widespread, including in communally based societies where individual political action has been rare. Political authorities often react to this strife by increasing restrictions on civil and political rights, and at times, grossly violating basic rights, such as the right to life, in an effort to control the labour force. Human rights NGOs have extensively documented the increase in labour activism, particularly in such low-wage areas as Malaysia, Indonesia, and even China, and the concomitant increase in state repression.

Human rights violations (whether of individual civil/ political, economic/ social, or minority rights) as a consequence of destructive social change resulting from globalization might result, at least in some instances, in radical shifts in a society's cultural values and norms that, in turn, may lead to a reconfiguration of the substance of traditional or historic notions of human rights. The outcome of this search for a revitalized identity and meaning is unpredictable. There may be a loosening of communal ties and an expansion of individual demands based on class. The evidence points in both directions. Clearly globalization has had a deleterious effect on the entire complex of human rights, resulting in significant transformation in the behaviour and values of masses of humanity across the globe.

The negative shock of globalization has, it should be noted, affected not only non-Western societies, but those of advanced, industrialized Western Europe, the United States, and Japan. The consequences of globalization for the poor and middle class in the United States are enormous. "The wealthiest and most productive country in the world has changed into the largest low-wage economy. In 1995 four-fifths of all male employees and workers in the United States earned 11 per cent less an hour in real terms than they did in 1973".

Some of the benefits of globalization contribute to enhancement of human rights. Increased trade often aids developing countries and thus contributes to the mitigation of poverty; increase communication permits countries to learn from each other. In the sphere of human rights, communication via email has permitted human rights advocates in their locality and to communicate with other human rights advocates throughout the world.

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However there are other less beneficent effects on human rights arising from globalization. The emphasis on competitiveness and economic development has had especially negative effects on such vulnerable groups as migrant workers, indigenous peoples and migrant women. Globalization has been cited as a contributing factor in violations of the right to life, the right to protection of health, the right to safe and healthy working conditions and freedom of association in many countries.

**Workers’ Rights and Globalization:** The competitive pressures of the new international economy have had negative effects on the rights of workers. Low labour costs and low labour standards are important elements in the choice of location of branches or subsidiaries of transnational corporations or choice of suppliers for industrial development. Textiles and other goods produced more cheaply in developing countries are taking over markets in the developed world. Governments thus have little or no incentive to improve working conditions - on the contrary, their competitive advantage depends on these conditions. Developing countries oppose the linking of labour standards to trade issues, pointing out that such linkages would take away their competitive advantage through cheap labour and low labour standards. This argument is quiet understandable since it is essential to increase the trade of developing countries, however in such case, the cost falls on the most vulnerable elements in the developing countries, however in such case, the cost falls on the most vulnerable elements in the developing countries: unskilled or semi skilled labourers whose rights to organize labour unions, to engage in collective bargaining or to protest against unsafe working conditions are denied.

**Rights of Indigenous People:** The international community has become concerned over violations of the rights of indigenous peoples in recent years, after many years of neglect. The United Nations Working Group on Indigenous Peoples has drafted a declaration on the rights of indigenous peoples, which is being examined by a working group of the UN Commission on Human Rights and will eventually come before the General Assembly for adoption. The decade from 1994-2003 has been declared the UN Decade for Indigenous Peoples.

The violation of the rights of the indigenous has been taking place for centuries, the recent emphasis on economic development and international competitiveness has resulted in new onslaughts on their rights. The link between the rights of indigenous peoples and globalization was demonstrated by coming into effect of North American Free Trade Agreement of 1994, for the uprising by Indians in Chiapas, Mexico, drawing attention to the violation of their economic and social rights.

**Women Workers:** Although unskilled workers in general are victims of globalization, the situation of women workers deserves meticulous attention. On the one hand, globalization has increased opportunities for women. Women have entered the workforce through jobs in export processing zones or through becoming migrant domestic workers, jobs that are mostly produced by globalization. Their work has significantly contributed to family income and to sense of independence and freedom for women workers. But, these jobs have also led to social disruption of the family and expose women to exploitation, at times even to violence and sexual abuse. As a faction of society which lacks power and status in society, their human rights are frequently violated.

**Implementation of Human Rights in the Era of Globalization: Lessons from India:** As far as implementation of human rights in India is concerned, the Indian Judiciary has been doing a commendable job from last three to four decades. In fact, it was the Supreme Court of India, well before the adoption of liberal economic policies of 1991, foreseen the impact of liberalization/ privatization/ globalization on fundamental rights guaranteed under the Constitution of India. The Judiciary was aware of, that, liberal economic policies could seriously affect the fundamental rights of the weaker sections of the society and they cannot survive under such economic policies. The Supreme Court of India, time and again, kept on redressing specific human rights violation, issues discussed were constitutionality of the policy of privatization, disinvestment, pollution of rivers, deaths due to starvation, right to strike and bandh, employment of children in hazardous industries, right to healthy and many more such issues which concerned or were directly or indirectly concerned to basic rights of an human right. And in majority of these cases, the Supreme has been able to secure justice victims of violations of human rights due to globalization. Besides, the Apex Court of India has tried to create a balance between the need for development and the protection of human rights.

Now coming to the role played by Legislature wing of the State, the Government of India framed major economic policies in 1991 to attract global corporate world to India. Since 1991, there have been discussions on not only constitutionality of such policies but also its consequences. It is to be believed that the policy of liberalization was a much needed one, but, it seems that the government could not ensure that realization of human rights, especially of the poor people, is to remain a cardinal factor at the time of law making or decision taking process.

On the other hand, government took some initiatives as well to protect human rights from being violated by framing some policies like, corporate social responsibility to protect environment, social security scheme for unorganized sector, minimum environment norms for large scale urban projects and various other schemes as well.

In all, it is submitted that all the wings of the State have done enough for their responsibility for protection and safeguarding of human rights against the global economic pace. But still, there is lot of gap that is to be filled up in absolute realization of human rights. The State, at times, has shown its greed for economic prosperity by
contending that it will automatically lead to realization of human rights at all levels, but in this course they have been caught in the trap of global corporate giants. Therefore, India has to rethink about is economic policies in order to safeguard human rights from the negative impacts of globalization.

**Conclusion**: Globalization has its winners and losers. It creates both help and hindrance in realization of human rights. With the expansion of trade, market, foreign investment, developing countries have seen the gaps among themselves widen. The imperative to liberalize has demanded a shrinking of State involvement in national life, producing a wave of privatization, cutting jobs, slashing health, education and food subsidies, etc. affecting the poor people in society. In many cases, liberalization has been accompanied by greater inequality and people are left trapped in utter poverty. Meanwhile, in many industrialized countries unemployment has soared to levels not seen for many years and income disparity to levels not recorded since last century. The collapse of the economies of the Asian giants in an example of this. The Report of 1997 revealed that poor countries and poor people too often find their interests neglected as a result of globalization. Although globalization of the economy has been characterized as a locomotive for productivity, opportunity technological progress, and uniting the world, it ultimately causes increased impoverishment, social disparities and violations of human rights.

Globalization as a concept is neither pro human rights nor anti human rights, it could offer opportunities for promotion of human rights as well as abridgement of human rights, at national and international scene. Now we are to decide that whether globalization should be boon for human rights or bane!

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2. Human Rights Watch World Report, (1999). www.hrw.org/hrw/worldreport99/ asia/malaysia.htm, reports that as a result of the economic decline in Malaysia, the state deported more than 30,000 migrant workers, many of whom experienced police brutality when they were detained. In the same report Human Rights Watch notes that the Chinese government, concerned about increased worker unrest, took measures including detentions and imprisonment, to stop activities in support of labour rights.


7. "Not merely are complex and contradictory events, processes and happenings lumped under this (globalization) rubric, signifying uneven and indeterminate developments, but also theories about globalization bring to us a 'whole continent of contested conceptions.' "Upendra Baxi, The Future of Human Rights 133 (2002). Braithwaite and Drahos see ‘globalization as a contest of principles - a John Braithwaite & Peter Drahos, Global Business Regulation 7, 511-512 (2000).


Impact of Globalization on Human Rights in India

Vikaram Singh*

Abstract: India accepted new economic policy due to economic crises in 1990-91. Globalization privatization and liberalization are main dimensions of new economic policy. Since India has changed structural strategy, it took U-turn on the objectives of five year planning. Formation of Socialist state was one of main objectives of Indian planning. There is considerable scope for the development of poor and common man in Socialist state since government intervention is part and parcel of Socialist state to regulate economic activities. Economic status plays pivotal role in human rights. The processes of globalization have increasing economic inequalities and new social problems in India. Public sector has had a decreasing trend due to the reducing government role in the economy. Market-oriented economy favors the capitalists and reach. The intensity of poverty, inequality, unemployment, malnutrition, regional imbalances, terrorism, etc. have been increasing in privatization and globalization era. Environmental degradation is a worrying problem due to exploitation of natural resources in the market oriented economy. Scarcity of safety and clean water, hunger, poverty, inequality, unemployment, malnutrition, corruption etc affect the human's quality of life and it leads some basic problem regarding human rights. With this background the paper attempts at protecting human rights, combating, cyber revolution and human rights with reference to globalization in India.

Keywords: Globalization, Privatization, Liberalization, Economic, Unemployment & Malnutrition.

Introduction: India has accepted new economic policy due to economic crises in 1990-91. We can observe globalization has serious implications both positive and negative in India as well as at global level. Developing countries suffering from disadvantages of globalization and other hand poor society affected by decisions taken under LPG in developing and under developing countries at significant level. In India socio-economic consequences of globalization are anti-poor and ant-marginalized, it is very difficult to protect the rights of the poor and common man. Hence it is an urgent need to strengthen the human face of globalization. The problems of globalization should be address because there is no future of poor and marginalized and there human rights. Indian policy maker should aware about the interest of poor and common man and their quality of life as well as human rights. It is need of time to think about interest of all Indian citizens with context to education, employment, health, degradation of poverty, environmental balance, and sustainable development. Without addressing the issues there is no meaning to development and democracy in India.

Impact of Globalization on Human Rights: Globalization has its winner and losers. With the expansion of trade, market, foreign investment, developing countries have seen the gaps among themselves widen. The imperative to liberalize has demanded a shrinking of state involvement in national life, producing a wave of privatization, cutting jobs, slashing health, education and food subsidies, etc. affecting the poor people in society. In many cases, liberalization has been accompanied by greater inequality and people are left trapped in utter poverty. Meanwhile, in many industrialized countries unemployment has soared to levels not seen for many years and income disparity to levels not recorded since last century. The collapses of the economies of the Asian Tigers are examples of this. The Human Development Report of 1997 revealed that poor countries and poor people too often find their interests neglected as a result of globalization. Although globalization of the economy has been characterized as a locomotive for productivity, opportunity, technological progress, and uniting the world, it ultimately causes increased impoverishment, social disparities and violations of human rights. That is what we see today.

Globalization and Human Rights: Exploring Linkages: Globalization, defined in terms of free flows of goods, services, capital and financial resources across borders, is the single most important factor responsible for spreading the open societies across the world. Though this globalization is primarily economic in nature it's technological, cultural, security and political dimensions have multifarious impact on human life. Human Rights, which are universal, inalienable and indivisible in nature, are obviously affected by this transition. Democracy is still considered the best model of ensuring rights, to individuals as well as groups, facing many dilemmas due to this process of globalization. The mode of development anticipated in the process of globalization is deeply rooted in the capitalist model of development. Though the concept of 'development' per say is not antithetical to human rights. But the model of development in globalization is inherently favorable to certain classes and nations. Mere creation of wealth does not ensure right to development for every human being. Globalised model of development is weakening

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democratic movements and ability of democratic societies to protect human rights. On this backdrop, the linkages of globalization with its main concerns namely, environment, terrorism and cyber revolution needs to be explored. **Preventing Terrorism or Protecting Human Rights:** In a modern democratic state the idea of human rights, defining the fundamental moral limits of individual and collective behaviour is interwoven with legal framework. The recent upsurge of terrorist activities by non-state, transnational actors for achieving political ends has initiated a new debate about the primacy of human rights and the role of security forces. Here the question of striking a balance between new methods to fight against terrorism and protecting human rights has become delicate. The issues are:

1. Whether the legal system should be strengthened with special laws against terrorist activities?
2. If special laws are made then what are the safeguards to ensure that these laws are not misused?
3. How to make the security forces accountable in their antiterrorists operations?

Regarding the parliament incident a section of society believes that what the police did is right. According to this perspective national security is of prime importance, and we cannot pamper terrorists in the name of Human Rights, which they do not follow. Hence, to prevent terrorism the legal measures should be strengthened and security forces provided with necessary safeguard. The intervention by the National Human Rights Commission in anti-terrorist operations is criticized on the grounds that the human rights of citizens are more important than those of the terrorists. This kind of intervention is seen as demoralizing for the policy forces. On the other hand it is also seen as morale boosting for the terrorists. The media and human rights organizations are seen as agents of the terrorists.

It is beyond doubt that terrorism is an act negating civilized life, and the implementation of measures to prevent and deter terrorism are essential and urgent. The media and human rights organizations should act responsibly, instead of going out for publicity. But the root causes of terrorism should not be missed. Terrorism is not only a law and order and security related problem. Most terrorists are born out of poor governance and atrocities by the security forces. If only terrorism is addressed with stringent security measures, this will aggravate the problem instead of controlling it.

**Conclusion:** Globalization as process of development is not for everyone. It has created new divides within and across the nations. These divides are at environmental, developmental, digital and at the level of violence also. Democratic societies have to face these challenges and enlarge the democratic discourse so that globalization gets more humanitarian face and it does not become only a force of access wealth but also distributive wealth. For the purpose the democratic state has to fundamentally transformed itself make new levels of partnerships with new one-state actors. Honorable Supreme Courts Justice Dipak Mishra has pointed out the need for fine balance in the approach to understand human rights and their protection in the country.

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Corporate Governance and India: Some Issues
Harsimran Singh*

Abstract: Corporate governance is the set of processes or policies to ensure proper management of companies for effective accountability to all stakeholders, aim to optimize economic output and protect the interest of shareholders. It includes in its orbit all implicit and explicit relationships between the corporation and its employees, customers, creditors, suppliers and all other stakeholders. Indian Government has taken policy step to provide direction, control and guidelines to all companies to work in ethical ways, create trust among shareholders and customers, to provide stability to our economy and to check financial scams and frauds. This paper is an attempt to throw light on some issues such as regulations formed by different committees, need of effective corporate governance etc. and to suggest some ways out for the challenges posed to corporate governance.

Keywords: Corporate Governance, Fairness, Disclosure, Transparency, Integrity, Accountability, Liberalization & Stakeholders.

Introduction: The concept of corporate governance emerged in India recent after the socio-economic reforms of 1991 due to adoption of Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (i.e. LPG Model). It gaining momentum because of various variables as well as changing business environment. At present, it is required for the companies/corporations to be more accountable towards customers/shareholders. Corporate governance is nothing more than how a corporation is administered or controlled; as it tries to analyze the company stakeholders as governmental participants, the principle participants being shareholders, company management and the board of directors under its purview. Adjunct participants may include employees and suppliers, partners, customers, governmental and professional organization regulations, and the community in which the corruption has a presence.

Because of existence of numerous interested parties, it's not possible to allow them to control the company directly. Instead the company operates under a system of regulations that allows stakeholders to have a voice in the corporation commensurate with their stake, yet allow the corporation to continue operating in an efficient manner. Corporate governance also takes into account audit procedure in order to monitor outcomes. By using corporate governance procedure wisely and sharing results, a corporation can motivate all stakeholders to work towards the corporation goals by demonstrating the benefits of stakeholders, of the corporation success. In the case of large public companies, corporate governance commands greater importance due to the wider scope of separation of ownership from management as compared to that in small private companies.

Corporate governance is important concept in modern corporations because of separation between ownership and management in the organizations (Berle and Means, 1932). It is based on the four pillars of Fairness, Disclosure and Transparency, Integrity and Responsibility and Accountability. In current scenario, there is no single definition of corporate governance but it might be reviewed from different angles. Zingales (1998) defines corporate governance as "allocation of ownership, capital market, managerial incentives schemes, takeovers, board of directors, pressure from institutional investors, product market competition, labor market competition, organizational structure etc., can all be thought of as institutions that affect the process through which quasi-rents are distributed". Oman (2001) defines corporate governance as a term refers to private and public institutions that include laws, regulations and business practices which governs the relationship between corporate managers and stakeholders. The organization for economic corporation and development provides other perspectives by stating that "corporate governance is the system by which business corporations are directed and controlled. The corporate governance structure specifies the distribution of rights and responsibilities among different participants in the corporation such as the board, managers, shareholders and other stakeholders, and tells about the rules and procedure for making decision on corporate affairs. It also provides the structures through which the company objectives are set, and the means of achieving all such objectives and monitoring performance" (OECD 2004). Cadbury Committee (1992) defines corporate governance as, "a system by which companies are directed and controlled. It encompasses the entire mechanics of the functioning of a company and attempts to put in place a system of checks and balances between the shareholders, directors, employees, auditor and the management." Corporate governance, thus, refers to the rules, processes, or laws by which businesses are operated, regulated, and controlled in plain terms. However, enforced corporate governance provides a structure that, at least in theory, works for the benefit of everyone concerned by ensuring that the enterprise adheres to accepted ethical standards and best practices as well as to formal laws. To that end, organizations have been formed at the regional, national, and global levels.

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Recently, corporate governance has received increased attention because of high-profile scandals involving abuse of corporate power and, in some cases, alleged criminal activity by corporate officers. An integral part of an effective corporate governance regime includes provisions for civil or criminal prosecution of individuals who conduct unethical or illegal acts in the name of the enterprise. Thus, it provides a roadmap for a corporation, by guiding the company officials in formulating decisions based on the rule of law, benefits to stakeholders, and practical processes. It helps in setting realistic goals for a corporate world, and formulating methodologies for attaining such goals.

**OBJECTIVES OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE:** According to Jha and Mehra (2015), the understanding and application of corporate governance is very important for any organization to be successful and competitive in the long-run. The prime objective of good corporate governance is to be a part of improved corporate performance and accountability in order to yield long-term shareholder value. It helps an organization in achieving several objectives as follows:

1. to enhance the transparency for as well as level of confidence for the all existing and potential investors in all company activities targeting at higher growth rates
2. to create a secure and prosperous operating environment and improving operational performance,
3. to formulate appropriate strategies that result in the achievement of stakeholder objectives,
4. to eliminate/mitigate conflicts of interest especially between corporate managers and shareholders.
5. to ensure the efficient and productive usage of company assets in the best interests of its investors and other stakeholders.
6. to attract, motivate and retain talent.

**CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN INDIA AND IMPLICATION OF SEBI NORMS:** During recent times, the term "corporate governance" has gained significant attention and focus across the globe. Most evidently, the reason for this renewed focus has been a result of major corporate collapses and lack of governance standards cited in those instances. In India also, various initiatives have been taken in the past by the Ministry of Corporate Affairs and SEBI to ascertain that those entrusted with the responsibility of governing shareholder wealth are adequately regulated and made accountable. Over the period of time, many reforms emerged in the framework of corporate governance; starting from constitution of the Kumar Mangalam Committee (1999); introduction of Clause 49 in the listing agreement (2000); revision in Clause 49 on recommendations of the Narayana Murthy Committee (2006); issue of voluntary guidelines on corporate governance (2009); issue of guiding principles on corporate governance (2012) based on recommendation of the Adi Godrej Committee; enactment of the revised Companies Act (2013) and, finally, the new norms by Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI) in 2014.

![Fig. 1- Milestones in Corporate Governance Arena](image)

Although, the Companies Act, 2013 specifies the minimum requirements of governance applicable to all companies, a recent press release by SEBI indicates a move towards aligning the requirement for listed companies with that of the Companies Act and simultaneously raises the bar on governance standards for listed companies. The SEBI had made it mandatory that all listed companies should create a mechanism for employees to report to the management concerns about any unethical behaviour, fraud or violation of the code of conduct. The regulator also asked companies to put in place a suitable mechanism for safeguards against victimisation of whistle-blowers and that they should have direct access to the company's Audit Committee. Effective implementation is a way out to prevent corporate frauds (Rujitha, 2012). The regulators have clearly indicated a move towards increased transparency on conducting Board Matters and articulated several changes in the roles and responsibilities of the board, board committees and independent directors. This move also indicates the intent of the regulators to align with the global standards on corporate governance adopted in mature economies (such as the UK Companies Act, US MBCA, US-DGCL, UK FRC Code, Stewardship Code and SOX). The revised listing agreement is likely to be publicly available in due course. The board of directors is a vital link between shareholders and management, and hence has a very critical role and responsibility in the overall governance framework. The recent press release by SEBI
confirms this aspect, wherein the responsibilities of the board, its committees and independent directors have been the primary focus.

**Current Scenario:** The "corporate governance concept" dwells in India from the time of the Arthashastra, the only difference being that instead of the CEO, there were kings and subjects (Joshi, 2004). Now a day, company is the largest form of business organization. Its dimension may be global. There exists a number of stakeholders in a corporation. The company's philosophy on corporate governance should be targeted to attain the highest level of transparency, accountability and integrity.

Corporate governance is the part of an economy's system which has today become a most important part of companies' regulation. It is affected by the capital market, institutional investors, proxy wars, company laws and many other macroeconomic and political factors. Historical evaluation of corporate governance naturally has a bearing on current developments. Much of the concerned literature revolves around the agency problems while in developing countries expropriation of small shareholders is the governance problem. Most notably, India must reform how its board of directors function, improve its enforcement mechanisms, redefine its corporate laws, and embrace corporate governance as a philosophy.

**Some Important Issues in Corporate Governance:** The following are some issues that are vital for the good corporate governance. These issues may have at the different primacies for different organizations but collectively they earmark the same targets for the corporate world.

1. Value Based Corporate Culture - in order to ensure the longevity of operationalization with efficiency and effectiveness, the corporate culture must base upon certain unbreakable set of ethics, principles and values.
2. Acquiescence with Norms- in order to achieve subtle progression, the norms defined by SEBI, FEMA (Foreign Exchange Management Act) 1999, Competition Act 2002/Companies Act 2013, Banking and Cyber Laws etc.
3. Pillars of Corporate Governance- Fairness, Disclosure and Transparency, Integrity and Responsibility and Accountability are the four pillars of corporate governance to excel with the prevalent financial positions, performance and competition in corporate world.
4. Human Resource Management- there should be equality in access to the best career opportunities to every employee. Every individual effort to excel and to prove its worth should be recognized in order to facilitate motivation.
5. Innovation- the futuristic point of view plays a great role in the corporate world. There should be adoption of risky and innovative ideas with futuristic goals. The companies should always keep improving, enhancing and upgrading themselves by bringing more reliable integrated product and service quality.
6. Inclusiveness- Corporate governance should also have holistic approach based on the value-based governance. Corporate world should be committed towards corporate social upliftment and social responsibility and environment protection. Companies should respect the rights of shareholders and facilitate the effective exercise of those rights.
7. Judicial Reforms- The judiciary has also helped in great way by solving the corporate disputes in a speedy. The judicial mandates and reforms should be welcomed in all aspects.
8. Last but not least the lessons from corporate failure should have taken due care as Every story has a moral to learn from and every failure has success to learn from. Similarly, corporate bodies should have certain policies, which scrutinize the reasons of failure either internal or external and provide a detailed lesson for further improvement.

**BLOCKADES IN EFFECTIVE CORPORATE GOVERNANCE:** Following are some practices prevalent in the market and in our society which are posing challenges in corporate governance in our country.
1. Unsophisticated equity market, vulnerable to manipulations, traditional analyst activity.
2. Inconsistency in the internal rules and regulations
3. Domination and monopoly of many firms.
4. High level of corruption, become visible only after a revelation of big financial scam.
5. Last but not least, Lack of respect for shareholders and low financial disclosure.

**CONCLUSION:** The ultimate objective of corporate governance is to achieve the highest standard of corporate world procedures and practices as well as to have transparency in its functioning with prime objective of maximization of the value of various stakeholders. The importance of corporate governance lies in its contribution both to business prosperity and to accountability. Due to social, economic and political obstacles in the way of effective corporate governance, there is a need to adopt some measures. Effective monitoring system can ensure the improved transparency in business management. Adoption of transparent process of appointment at board and managerial levels. Proper check and balance system over managerial rights. Proper and transparent audit system to check financial frauds. Ethical behavior of organization or if any member at board or management level should be
Corporate governance is a means not an end, once the good corporate governance will be achieved, the Indian corporate body will shine to outshine the worldwide.

References:
Corporate Social Responsibility of Selected Firms in India: Issues And Interventions

Naresh Kumar*

Abstract: Main objective of this paper is to examine the changes in corporate social responsibility (CSR) expenditure of the firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14 and to analyse CSR expenditure on education and health activities in 2013-14. For the study, secondary data has been used. Data is collected from annual reports of the selected firms for the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14. CSR expenditure of all firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14 has increased except for two firms, Hero Moto Corp Ltd and Madras Cement Ltd. Percentage of CSR expenditure of firms to the profit after tax increased in 2013-14 as compared to 2012-13. Only Hero Moto Corp Ltd's percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax remained unchanged. We find that most of the firms spend their CSR expenditure on rural welfare, especially around their areas of operations. Main reason behind this type of expenditure can be that firms want to build goodwill amongst the peoples in the neighborhood. Madras Cement Ltd has spent highest share of CSR expenditure on education. Reliance Industries Limited has spent highest share of CSR expenditure on health among all the firms. Around 47 per cent of total CSR expenditure has been spent on other activities by Hero Moto Corp Ltd. Further detail of these activities was not available. Companies will change their CSR strategies according to the new act. It will be interesting to see what type of changes companies will make in their CSR strategies.

Key words: Corporate Social Responsibility, Education, Health & India Economy.

Objectives and Data Methodology: Main objectives of the paper are to examine the changes in corporate social responsibility (CSR) expenditure of the firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14 and to analyse CSR expenditure on education and health activities in 2013-14. For the present paper, fourteen firms have been selected randomly, namely Oil and Natural Gas Corporation Limited (ONGC), Bank of Baroda, BhartiAirtel Limited, Colgate-Palmolive India Limited, Grasim India Limited, Madras Cement Limited, Hero Moto Corp Limited, National Hydroelectric Power Corporation Limited (NHPC), Reliance Industries Limited (RIL), Cairn India, SAIL, Dabur India Limited, Shree Cement Limited and BHEL. For the study, secondary data has been used. Data is collected from annual reports of the selected firms for the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14.

Introduction: An understanding of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is necessary before we discuss CSR. There are myriad definitions of CSR. According to The United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO),"corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a management concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and interactions with their stakeholders. CSR is a way in which companies achieve a balance of economic, environmental and social imperatives, while at the same time, addressing the expectations of shareholders and stakeholders." (As cited in Handbook on Corporate Social Responsibility in India 2013).

The New Companies Act 2013 got approval from the President of India in August 2013. Section 135 of this act makes corporate social responsibility mandatory for companies which meet certain criteria of annual turnover, net worth or net profit. This act mandate expenditure on CSR to those companies which have net worth of 500 crore or more, or an annual turnover of 1000 crore or more, or a net profit of 5 crore or more during any financial year. This act mandates that companies spend 2 per cent of their average profits of the three preceding financial years, on corporate social responsibility.

The act has also defines the large range of activities which comes under corporate social responsibility. Education, environmental sustainability, improving maternal health, eradication of extreme hunger and poverty, promoting gender equality and women's empowerment, decreasing child mortality rate, fighting HIV/AIDS, contributing to the Prime Minister's National Relief Fund or any other fund set by the Central Government or the State Government for socio-economic development and relief and funds for the welfare of the Scheduled Caste, the Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes, minorities and women and increasing vocational skills among others.

Companies are asked to formulate a CSR committee which will formulate and recommend a CSR policy to the board. This committee will recommend activities to be undertaken as CSR and the amount of expenditure to be incurred. There shall be three or more directors with at least one independent director in this committee. This committee will also monitor the CSR policy time to time.

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For the present paper, CSR expenditure of fourteen firms has been taken to examine the changes in CSR expenditure of the firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14. Until 2013, firms were disclosing the information about the various CSR activities undertaken by them but not the exact amount spent by them on these activities. As it is mandatory for firms to disclose the amount they spent on CSR activities, we can compare the different firms on the basis of their CSR expenditure and see whether expenditure on CSR has been increased or not.

**BHEL:** BHEL’s expenditure towards Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for various activities amounted Rs 63 crore in the financial year of 2012-13 and it increased to Rs 108.60 during 2013-14. CSR expenditure of BHEL increased by 72.38 per cent in 2013-14 as compared to 2012-13. Education, health and community development are main areas where BHEL spent its CSR expenditure.

Bank of Baroda: Bank of Baroda spent Rs 6.99 crore on CSR activities during 2012-13 this increased to Rs 15.30 crore in financial year 2013-14. Positive change in CSR expenditure of Bank of Baroda has been noted 118.88 per cent in 2013-14 as compared to the financial year of 2012-13. Education, health, women welfare and social welfare are the activities in which CSR expenditure has been incurred.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms/ financial year</th>
<th>2012-13</th>
<th>2013-14</th>
<th>Change in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BHEL</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>108.60</td>
<td>72.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank of Baroda</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>15.30</td>
<td>118.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bharti Airtel Ltd</td>
<td>29.56</td>
<td>40.26</td>
<td>37.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairn India</td>
<td>20.85</td>
<td>47.60</td>
<td>128.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colgate-Palmolive India Ltd</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>8.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dabur India Ltd</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>20.63</td>
<td>25.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grasim India Ltd</td>
<td>25.30</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>-49.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero Moto Corp Ltd.</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras Cement Ltd</td>
<td>32.75</td>
<td>16.84</td>
<td>-48.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHPC</td>
<td>15.75</td>
<td>51.88</td>
<td>196.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONGC</td>
<td>261.57</td>
<td>341.25</td>
<td>30.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIL</td>
<td>351.00</td>
<td>711.72</td>
<td>102.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAIL</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>44.74</td>
<td>37.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shree Cement Ltd</td>
<td>9.28</td>
<td>11.57</td>
<td>24.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Calculated by the author from the annual reports of the firms for the financial year 2012-13 and 2013-14

We can say that CSR expenditure of all firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14 has increased except for three firms, Hero Moto Corp Ltd, Grasim India Ltd and Madras Cement Ltd. Highest decrease in CSR spending (49.68 per cent) has been noticed in Grasim India Ltd's expenditure. A decline of 0.72 per cent has been observed in CSR expenditure of Hero Moto Corp Ltd during the financial year of 2013-14 as compared to 2012-13. CSR expenditure of Hero Moto Corp Ltd decreased from Rs 1.39 crore in 2012-13 to Rs 1.38 crore in 2013-14. Similarly, a significant decline of CSR expenditure of Madras Cement Ltd has been seen (48.58 per cent) in 2013-14 as compared to 2012-13. Firm's total expenditure towards Corporate Social Responsibility amounted to Rs 32.75 crores in 2012-13. This expenditure decreased to Rs 16.84 crores during the financial year of 2013-14. CSR expenditure of Cairn India increased by 128.30 per cent which is highest among given firms, followed by Bank of Baroda whose increase has been 118.88 per cent during the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14. Total CSR expenditure of Cairn India increased from Rs 20.85 crores in 2012-13 to Rs 47.60 crores in the financial year of 2013-14.
Presentation of Percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax (PAT) is given in table 2. BHEL's CSR expenditure as percentage to profit after tax increased from 0.95 to 3.14 during the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14. Expenditure on CSR activities of Bank of Baroda was 0.16 per cent in 2012-13 and 0.34 per cent in 2013-14. Cairn India's CSR expenditure as percentage to profit after tax also increased from 0.17 to 0.38 during the given period. Colgate-Palmolive India Ltd's expenditure on CSR activities as per cent of profit after tax remained same at 2 per cent. Dabur India Ltd's expenditure on CSR activities was secondhighest among the above firms in 2012-13 which was 2.78 per cent of profit after tax. Expenditure of Dabur India Ltd increased to 3.07 per cent of profit after tax during 2013-14. Percentage of CSR expenditure remained unchanged at 0.06 per cent during the same period of Hero Moto Corp Ltd which was lowest per cent of profit after tax on CSR activities among the above firms.

Table 2- Percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax (PAT)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms/financial year</th>
<th>2012-13</th>
<th>2013-14</th>
<th>Change in expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BHEL</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank of Baroda</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bharti Airtel Ltd</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairn India</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colgate-Palmolive India Ltd</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dabur India Ltd</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grasim India Ltd</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>-1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero Moto Corp Ltd</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras Cement Ltd</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>12.23</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHPC</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONGC</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIL</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAIL</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shree cement Ltd</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: calculated by the author from the annual reports of the firms for the financial year 2012-13 and 2013-14. Madras Cement Ltd's expenditure on CSR activities remained highest among the above firms which was 8.11 per cent of profit after tax in 2012-13 and 12.23 per cent in 2013-14. NHPC Limited spent 0.67 per cent of profit after tax on CSR activities in 2012-13. Expenditure of the same firm increased to 3.26 per cent of profit after tax during 2013-14. ONGC spent 1.25 per cent of its profit after tax on CSR activities in 2012-13 which increased to 1.55 per cent in 2013-14. Reliance Industries Limited expenditure on CSR activities as per cent of profit after tax was 1.67 and it almost doubled in financial year of 2013-14 to 3.24 per cent of the profit after tax. SAIL's CSR expenditure as percentage to profit after tax too increased from 1.50 to 1.71 during the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14. Grasim India Ltd and Shree cement Ltd are the two firms whose percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax decreased in the given period. Grasim India Ltd's CSR expenditure as percentage to profit after tax decreased from 2.13 to 1.07 during the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14. Shree cement Ltd spent 1.52 per cent of its profit after tax on CSR activities in 2012-13 which decreased to 1.23 per cent in 2013-14.

Chart 2- Percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax (PAT)

Percentage of CSR expenditure of firms to the profit after tax increased of the all firms in 2013-14 as compared to 2012-13 except Grasim India Ltd and Shree cement. Colgate-Palmolive India Ltd and Hero Moto Corp Ltd's percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax remained unchanged. Hero Moto Corp Ltd has spent 0.06 per cent of profit after tax on CSR activities in 2012-13 which remained unchanged at 0.06 per cent of profit after tax in 2013-14. Similarly Colgate-Palmolive India Ltd has spent 2 per cent of profit after tax as CSR in 2012-13 and 2013-
Although total CSR expenditure of Madras Cement Ltd decreased from Rs 32.75 crore in 2012-13 to Rs 16.84 crore in 2013-14 but percentage expenditure of profit after tax on CSR activities remained highest among the above firms. It increased 4.12 per cent, from 8.11 per cent of profit after tax in 2012-13 to 12.23 per cent in 2013-14. Second highest increase in percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax has been noted in NHPC. Whose percentage of CSR expenditure to the profit after tax increased, with an increase of 2.59 per cent, from 0.67 per cent to 3.26 per cent during the financial years of 2012-13 and 2013-14.

**Pattern of CSR expenditure of the firms in 2013-14**

In this section, the pattern of CSR expenditure of the firms has been analysed in 2013-14. Until 2013, firms were disclosing the information about the various CSR activities undertaken by them but not the exact amount spent by them on these activities. For the present paper, we had selected ten firms randomly but only seven firms have given information about activity-wise CSR expenditure. These firms are Oil and Natural Gas Corporation Limited (ONGC), Bank of Baroda, Madras Cement Ltd, Hero Moto Corp Ltd., National Hydroelectric Power Corporation Limited (NHPC), Reliance Industries Limited (RIL) and Cairn India. Dabur India limited, SAIL and BHEL are the firms whose data related to activity-wise CSR expenditure was not available.

Bank of Baroda: Bank of Baroda has spent major share of CSR in the form of donations. Bank of Baroda has donated 50.86 per cent of its CSR expenditure to Baroda Swarojgar Vikas Sansthan Bank of Baroda has also donated 32.68 per cent of its CSR expenditure to Chief Minister’s Relief Fund of Uttarakhand and Odisha. Bank of Baroda has spent 4.19 per cent on health activities and 5.76 per cent of total CSR on education. Bank has spent 1.32 per cent on women welfare activities and 5.19 per cent on other activities.

**Table 3- Percentage of CSR expenditure of the firms on different activities***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firms/Activities</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Rural Development</th>
<th>Sustainable livelihood</th>
<th>Environment sustainability</th>
<th>Sport, Arts and Culture/Other initiatives</th>
<th>Women’s empowerment, girl child development</th>
<th>Contributions to temples/places of worship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bank of Baroda</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairn India</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero Moto Corp</td>
<td>29.87</td>
<td>19.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madras Cement</td>
<td>73.69</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHPC</td>
<td>48.15</td>
<td>8.93</td>
<td>28.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONGC</td>
<td>16.65</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIL</td>
<td>11.35</td>
<td>38.55</td>
<td>23.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Calculated by the author from the annual reports of the firms for the financial year 2013-14

**Cairn India:** Cairn India’s has spent 27 per cent of CSR expenditure on health and 12 per cent on education activities. Firm has spent 24 per cent of its CSR expenditure on sustainable livelihood. As Cairn India is an Oil and Gas exploration and production company recognizing the limitation of incorporating environmental and social concerns? Cairn India’s has also spent 37 per cent of CSR expenditure on construction of Cairn center of excellence for vocational training.
Hero Moto Corp Ltd.: Hero Moto Corp Ltd has spent 29.97 per cent of its total CSR expenditure on education and for health activities it has spent 19.44 per cent of total CSR expenditure. Welfare of armed forces is another area where Hero MotoCorp Ltd has spent its CSR expenditure. It has spent 3.88 per cent of CSR expenditure on Welfare of armed forces. Around 47 per cent of total CSR expenditure has been spent on other activities. Further detail of these activities was not available.

We find that most of the firms spend their CSR expenditure on rural welfare, especially around their areas of operations. Main reason behind this type of expenditure can be that firms want to build good will amongst the peoples in the neighborhood. Madras Cement Ltd has spent highest share of CSR expenditure on education which accounts 73.69 per cent of its total CSR expenditure followed by NHPC. NHPC Limited has spent 48.15 per cent of its total CSR expenditure on education. Reliance Industries Limited has spent highest share of CSR expenditure on health among all the firms, which accounts 58.55 per cent of its total CSR expenditure. Hero Moto Corp Ltd has spent 19.44 per cent of total CSR expenditure on health activities. NHPC and Reliance Industries Limited have spent 28.73 per cent and 23.28 per cent of CSR on rural development. ONGC has spent 48.2 per cent of CSR on environment sustainability. Bank of Baroda has spent major share of CSR in the form of donations. Bank of Baroda has donated 50.86 per cent of its CSR expenditure to Baroda Swarojgar Vikas Sansthan Bank of Baroda has also donated 32.68 per cent of its CSR expenditure toChief Minister's Relief Fund of Uttrakhand and Odisha. Around 47 per cent of total CSR expenditure has been spent on other activities by Hero Moto Corp Ltd. Further detail of these
activities was not available. Companies will change their CSR strategies according to the new act. It will be interesting to see what type of changes companies will make in their CSR strategies.

Issues and challenges:

There are various issues and challenges related to CSR, which are given below:

(i) There is no minimum or maximum ceiling of CSR spending is given for various activities which come under corporate social responsibility. Without the minimum or maximum ceiling equal attention will not be given by the companies to all the activities.

(ii) There are no tax benefits by the government for the companies spending on CSR activities which will negatively affect the companies spending on CSR.

(iii) There is no effective CSR performance indicator to evaluate the CSR performance.

(iv) Present guidelines/rules of CSR act are applicable only for those companies which are making profits and ignored the other form of business.

Conclusion:

In India CSR has been seen as a charitable activity, where companies were contributing through making donation to non-government organizations (NGOs) and to their own trusts. These kinds of donations were not transparent and lacked accountability because there was limited documentation on the related activities. The Government of India under the new Companies Act 2013 has made CSR activities mandatory for the companies to ensure accountability and transparency. CSR activities of the companies were mostly restricted to the area where the company was located. Another thing that determines the CSR activity of the company is the type or nature of the company. Now, in presence of this act firms may now spread area of activities of the firms to those communities which are most affected by the business operations and left behind in the development process.

It has been seen that firms are spending their CSR expenditure on Health, education, infrastructure development for its employees, community centre, township, women empowerment, medical assistance, promotion of arts, culture and sports, health care in remote and rural areas, road safety, skill development and community development. Overall we can say that CSR expenditure of all firms in 2012-13 and 2013-14 has increased except for three firms, Hero Moto Corp Ltd, Grasim India Ltd and Madras Cement Ltd. Highest decrease in CSR spending (49.68 per cent) has been noticed in Grasim India Ltd's expenditure.

There is an urgent need for making new rules/guidelines for promoting CSR activities in all type of business. This will help to achieve the inclusive and balanced growth. Tax benefits should be extended to other than the Prime Minister Relief Fund activities also so that companies are motivated to spend their CSR expenditure on other areas too. For an overall and balanced growth a complete list of CSR activities with their minimum or maximum ceiling of amount to be spent should be issued by government.

References:

Abstract: Corporate philanthropy fits well with the notion of the discretionary responsibility of business. This discretionary responsibility involves a firm's choosing how it will voluntarily allocate its slack resources to charitable or social service activities that are not business related and for which there are no clear social expectations as to how the firm should perform. Various studies have been conducted throughout the world to study various effects related to corporate philanthropy. But the research has been on a comparatively less large scale in India. Corporate Philanthropic practices surely have strategic dimensions for companies and countries. The present study proposal aims at reducing the gap of research input available on Corporate philanthropy in India.

Keywords: Corporate Philanthropy, Indian Corporations.

Objectives of the study:

* To determine the motives behind corporate philanthropy in India.
* To measure the effect of corporate philanthropy on corporate reputation.

Introduction: Corporate Philanthropy is the act of a corporation or business promoting the welfare of others, generally via charitable donations of funds or time. A classic definition of corporate philanthropy is the "charitable transfer of firm resources at below market prices" (Lehman and Johnson, 1970, cited in Sanchez, 2000, p. 364). There has been considerable discussion in the literature as to whether corporate philanthropy is usually instrumentally motivated to increase profits or enhance public image (Bock et al., 1984). In an attempt to clarify the definition, Jones (1994, cited in Sanchez, 2000, p.364) has noted that corporate philanthropy fits well with the notion of the discretionary responsibility of business. This discretionary responsibility involves a firm's choosing how it will voluntarily allocate its slack resources to charitable or social service activities that are not business related and for which there are no clear social expectations as to how the firm should perform (Wartick and Wood, 1998, p. 75).

The present study involves the analysis of corporate philanthropic practices in India and their impact on the consumer purchase intentions, corporate reputation, and consumer attitude towards the charity linked products. There have been continuous observations by various researchers that corporate philanthropy has evident market implications for the companies. Patten (2008) observed that corporate philanthropy has evident market reactions in the US market. Corporate philanthropic practices do shape the market offerings and market reputation of companies in different ways. Like other organizations, Indian organizations also indulge in philanthropic practices, may it be due to the cultural inheritance or the competitive advantage.

Charitable giving by the firms may be a way for the firms to enhance their public image, and to create goodwill with the people. Corporate philanthropy has been discussed in detail in the western part of the world, and the results show that the effects are long term and strategic in nature. In the Indian sub-continent the practice and concept of philanthropy is not new, and has been prevailing since the ancient times in different forms of donations, may it be donations from the king to the poor people of his state, or may it be from the rich people for the benefit of the poor. Philanthropy has been there in the ancient Indian scriptures also, and has been described as a good deed for the betterment of the people and for the spiritual future of the donor also. This implies that Indians are involved in philanthropic practices since ancient times. So their mind-set is sure to be different towards corporate philanthropy, and so are their reactions towards the corporations who are doing such activities.

Another main part of corporate philanthropy is CPDR i.e. corporate philanthropic disaster relief. CPDR aims at providing instant or in time relief for the people struck by some natural disaster, for e.g. The Japanese Tsunami of 2012 or Indian Tsunami of 2004. Corporate philanthropic disaster relief is important as cited in many studies, and plays an important role in the arena of corporate giving. The present study includes the study of CPDR and its market implications for the philanthropist.

The Evolution of Corporate Philanthropy: Corporate involvement in social well-being began as voluntary responses to social issues and problems, then evolved into a phase of mandated corporate involvement, and is now evolving into a phase in which social responsibility is viewed as an investment by corporations (Stroup and Neubert (1987). A brief description of these phases is warranted to trace the emergence of CRM. In Voluntarily doing good, Stroup...
Strategic Aspect of Corporate Philanthropy in Indian Corporations

and Neubert (1987) noted that early philanthropy and social responsiveness were undertaken by public-spirited corporations voluntarily. Though such undertakings invariably reduced profit because they consumed corporate resources (Stroup and Neubert 1987), some authors contend that even these voluntary actions were not entirely altruistic. Keim (1978, cited in Menon and Varadarajan, 1988), for instance, points out that corporate philanthropy encompasses a range of activities, some that may positively affect the profit of contributors and others based on purely altruistic considerations. Shrewd alignment of corporate and social needs marked the first 50 years of corporate philanthropy. In fact, corporate giving was limited by law to donations that could be justified directly as being in the stockholders’ interests. Hence, though the decision to donate or not to donate was voluntary, the recipient of the donation was limited largely to one that furthered corporate interests.

This situation changed in 1954, when a New Jersey Supreme Court decision established the principle that publicly held companies can provide grants to non-profit entities that do not directly produce profit to the companies’ stockholders. (Menon, Varadarajan, 1988)

Mandated corporate social responsibility phase was marked by a recognition among firms that in a free society any business operates only as long as societal members continue to grant it that right. Also, stakeholders dissatisfied with the corporate leaders' voluntary actions used a variety of pressures, including regulatory provisions, to force corporations into actions that did not necessarily contribute to their profit. As these pressures grew, to avoid charges of corporate hypocrisy, corporations tended to shy away from supporting causes that seemed to have the potential to further their corporate interests (Morris and Biederman 1985, cited in Menon and Varadarajan, 1988). Doing better by doing good. The recent trend seems to be to seek a middle ground between voluntary and mandated support. Corporate philanthropy seems to be driven by the concept of "enlightened self-interest." Stroup and Neubert (1987) note that corporations are beginning to realize that, for their survival and competitive advantage, they must evolve from doing good to doing better. Therefore, social responsibility is treated as an investment that improves the long-term performance of the organization. This trend is also identified in a recent review of literature on the objectives of corporate philanthropy (Grahn, Hannaford, and Laverty 1987, cited in Menon and Varadarajan, 1988). The authors broadly classify these objectives as

- Corporate philanthropic objectives that are also objectives of marketing strategy and
- Corporate philanthropic objectives that are not objectives of marketing strategy.

Rosenthal's (1985, cited in Menon and Varadarajan, 1988) study on the motives underlying corporate involvement in national charity telethons provides additional insights into the overlap between the philanthropic and marketing objectives of firms. He reports that corporations use philanthropy both as a channel for charitable contributions and as a marketing tool.

**The altruistic model of corporate philanthropy:** The altruistic model of corporate philanthropy (Sharfman, 1994; Useem, 1984, cited in Sanchez, 2000) is generally considered a non-strategic explanation of corporate giving. According to this theory, a firm uses social criteria as a basis for actions that are right, good, and just for society. Firms practice altruistic philanthropy for the singular goal of helping others, thus philanthropy is considered independent of the operational pressures of generating profit. These altruistic motives allow individual managers to pursue charitable goals that are not linked to corporate interests or performance. Despite its noble goals, the altruistic model alone tends to be a weak explanation for corporate philanthropy, even in the most pluralistic societies, because it ignores the profit maximization goal and other strategic goals of the firm.

**The profit maximization model of corporate philanthropy:** According to this model, corporate philanthropy is designed to contribute to direct monetary gain, just as are other functions of the firm. This model is considered to be driven by "enlightened self-interest" (Drucker, 1984, cited in Sanchez, 2000), such that the corporation undertakes philanthropy as long as direct economic benefit can be gained by doing so. In this sense, corporate philanthropy is strategic. For example, charitable contributions to support a community project may be made based on the argument that better community conditions are good for business because when the standard of living is increased, product demand is increased. New corporate charity in Latin America is said to be largely motivated by the enlightened self-interest factor. Philanthropy may maximize profits by reducing corporate income taxes. It is argued that the profit-maximizing effects of corporate philanthropy are evident in countries where charitable donations can be deducted from earnings. However, the tax benefits may not be a sufficient explanation for corporate philanthropic behaviour. In the United States, corporate donations increased sharply when the excess profits tax was imposed on companies in 1942 (Sharfman, 1994, cited in Sanchez, 2000). But after the excess profits tax was repealed, donations declined only temporarily and resumed the levels observed when the tax was in force. Tax benefits may be an even less compelling explanation for philanthropy in developing countries.

**The political and institutional power model of corporate philanthropy:** This theory of philanthropy, similar to the previous one, is also strategically motivated. The model posits that firms engage in philanthropy to maximize benefits, but not in the form of an economic return on investment. Rather, the firm uses philanthropy to maximize its political return on investment. The firm does whatever it takes to protect its wider corporate environment, but always with the shareholders' interests in mind (Neiheisel, 1994, cited in Sanchez, 2000).
the goal of corporate philanthropy is to support, neutralize, or win over problematic actors in the political environment (Burt, 1983, cited in Sanchez, 2000), and to preserve corporate autonomy by establishing private initiatives as an alternative to the growth or interference of government. Therefore, firms may practice philanthropy to gain and hold power and legitimacy in the political and institutional sense.

**Philanthropy as a Strategic Tool:** Strategic giving addresses important social and economic goals simultaneously, targeting areas of competitive context where the company and society, both benefit because the firm brings unique assets and expertise. (Porter, Kramer, 2002). The benefits that the firm gets from pursuing philanthropy are strategically important and it enhances the brand equity when a firm is behaving as a good corporate citizen. (Carroll, 1991)

**Research Gaps:**
* To determine the motives behind corporate philanthropy in India: the authors in the field of corporate philanthropy have discussed the motives behind corporate philanthropy in their respective countries. The motives behind CP in the western world may be different than the motives of corporations in India. Thus the present piece of research aims at reaching a decision about the motives behind corporate philanthropy in India.
* To measure the impact of corporate philanthropy on corporate reputations: Collins (1992) in his research article "Global Corporate Philanthropy-Marketing beyond the call of duty?" Concluded that philanthropy has much more meaning than just donations and it has long term effects on the corporate future. He added that philanthropy must be an ancillary part of the mainstream marketing plans. He suggested that in reputation building, marketing should focus on a clear philanthropic strategy. Terence Lim also said that CP plays an important role and should be practiced more professionally. But not much work has been done on the effect of corporate philanthropy on corporate reputation.

**Conclusion:** Corporate philanthropy is a less discussed issue in India in comparison to the U.S.A. and other western countries. Literature on philanthropy in the USA and Europe abounds, but knowledge in the sector in India is far more limited. The economic power has, to a big extent shifted to the emerging economies and this power shift brings with it corporate culture shift. The culture plays a prominent role in the social and corporate interactions with the people. And philanthropy has been an integral part of the Indian economic system from ancient India. But the economic impact of corporate philanthropy, the customer response towards corporate philanthropy, the impact of corporate philanthropy on company reputation, has not been studied and there has been very less weightage has been provided to this area of study. Being an emerging economy, the philanthropic part and its impacts are a very important issue in Indian context. This study aims at drafting different effects of corporate philanthropy on strategic management. Another underlying aim of the study is to develop a more localized, Indianized model of corporate philanthropy. The study will aim at answering two prominent questions, i.e. can philanthropy be strategic? And can it affect customer purchase intentions?

**References:**
Synergistic Advertisement Strategies on Indian FMCG Sector: An Overview

Ashu Saini* & Kapil Sharma**

Abstract: In today's competitive era, everyone is continuously bombarded with advertisements. FMCG companies spend crores of rupees for advertising on their different kind of products or services. Every year these companies investing millions of rupees or dollars in Integrated Marketing Communication. Indeed, a bulk of money obviously goes into advertising expenditure. Marketing is the backbone of the product, but no product can run without ads. Without advertisement strategies neither the industry nor the consumer can flourish. This paper gives an overview of the various types of advertisement strategies of Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) sector in India. The purpose of this research paper is to study the role of Synergistic Advertisement Strategies on Indian FMCG sector.

Overall the study provides support for the idea that the mass media create desires, which in turn motivate consumers to work harder to satisfy their needs. As a result, more focus is required by FMCG companies while planning their advertisement strategies for different age groups of children and peoples. Furthermore, it can be concluded that synergistic advertisement also helps to build a brand identity and loyalty, which actually increased sales and impact positively on the company. In simple terms, synergistic advertisement strategies appear to be a fruitful area for future investigation.

Keywords: Synergy, Synergistic Advertisement Strategies & Indian FMCG Sector.

Objective of the Study:
- To study the role of Synergistic Advertisement Strategies on Indian FMCG Sector.

Research Design: In this present study, an attempt has been made to retrace the diversified literature available Synergistic Advertisement Strategies on to Indian FMCG Sector.

Source and Methodology: In order to review the relevant literature, research papers have been collected from the referred journals related to Journal of Marketing, Advertising, Retail and Distribution Management. The focus of the study is to also unify the application of synergistic advertisement strategies in the FMCG sector globally. This study builds up a strong conceptual framework for the researchers by thoroughly analyzing the various empirical studies on advertising strategies for the Indian FMCG sector.

Scope and Need of the Study: The study is based on the effect of synergistic advertisement on the FMCG sector in India. It covers the synergistic advertising strategies as a tool of promotion. It will study the relation of synergistic advertising with other various advertising strategies.

All the studies show that a lot of work has been done and is being done on the relevance and need of advertising, but so far no attempt in the field of Synergistic Advertisement Strategies in the Indian FMCG sector has been made. A very few comprehensive studies in this area could be found which provides detailed information regarding impact of synergistic advertising on Indian FMCG Sector. In present competitive scenario across the global it has become very important to communicate the target customers regarding their products and service features. So, Synergistic Advertising can be a tool for marketing communication or promotion to aware the consumers about the product or services. It will help create awareness, reminds image of product and service, persuades and retains the customers. It will also help to increase the new customers and retain the existing customers. Further, if synergistic advertising is done with the proper strategies and planning, the effectiveness will be higher on the customers buying behavior, sales and positioning of FMCG brands. There is in dire need of discussion on the above comprehensive and detailed study regarding effect of Synergistic Advertisement Strategies on Indian FMCG sector.

Introduction: In today's competitive era, everyone is continuously bombarded with advertisements. FMCG companies spend crores of rupees for advertising on their different kind of products or services. Every year these companies investing millions of rupees or dollars in Integrated Marketing Communication. Indeed, a bulk of money obviously goes into advertising expenditure. Advertisement in the present atmosphere of global competition is a powerful social and economic force. Consumers look to it for information in respect of products, brands and services that might help them in the selection and meet their expectations. Advertising is an important form of

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communication and its basic responsibility is to deliver the message to the target audience. Indeed, it is an important tool of promotion. Advertising is also one of the most important and a basic ingredient in today's business environment. It is the central idea of synergy that has actually given the theory of Integrated-Marketing Communication. Marketing is the backbone of the product, but no product can run without ads, so without advertisement no one is likely to come to know about a product. Therefore advertisement is must in today's industry. Without advertisement strategies neither the industry nor the consumer can flourish. As a matter of fact, the Indian advertising industry witnessed a real 'Advertisement Boom'.

**Advertisement**: Advertisement is an important element of the promotional mix. As Per the Philip Kotler (Marketing Guru) - "Advertising can be defined as a paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor". Hence, in a simple sense, "It is a method to pass on the message to the end user".

**Advertising Strategy**: An advertising strategy is a campaign developed to communicate ideas about products and services to potential consumers in the hope of convincing them to buy those products and services. A business advertising strategy "determines the character of the company's public face. Today, most advertising strategies focus on achieving mainly the following general goals:

1. Promote awareness of a business and its product or services;
2. Stimulate sales directly and "attract competitors' customers"; and
3. Establish or modify a business’ image.
4. To motivate consumers to switch from a rival brand to the promoted brand.

**Synergy and Synergistic Advertising**: The term synergy comes from the Greek word "synergia" which means "working together". Synergy is the ability of a group to outperform even its best individual member. On the whole, by the help of synergy the better results can be produced only if each person within the group will work as a team not as an individual. Synergy can be precisely defined as the sum of two and two equaling to five. This means that synergy is a method of combining different business sectors in a way that delivers unexpected results, innovation, and a competitive advantage that all companies seek.

Synergistic Advertising Strategies represent the majority of all marketing communications, and these rapidly evolving communication technologies allow for various routes of network formation in competitive era. The integrated communication strategy in the innovative advertisement marketing practices should involve sustainability component to overcome the hurdles faced on the business front.

**FMCG Products and Indian FMCG Sector**: Those products which can be sold quickly at a relatively low cost and have a quick turnover. Further, FMCG products can be replaced within a year. FMCG's generally include products such as toiletries, soap, cosmetics, tooth cleaning products, shaving products and detergents, as well as other non-durables such as glassware, bulbs, batteries, paper products, and plastic goods. It also includes pharmaceuticals, consumer electronics, packaged food products, soft drinks, tissue paper, and chocolate bars.

The Indian FMCG sector is the fourth largest sector in the economy characterized by the strong MNC presence, well established distribution network, low operational cost, and intense competition between the organized and unorganized players. In the India's economic growth, an estimated market size of the Indian FMCG sector is Rs.1, 300 billion. Particularly, the sector has shown an average annual growth of about 11% per annum over the last decade. There are approximately 12-13 million retail stores in India, out of which 9 million are FMCG Kirana stores. Now days, the FMCG sector has changed its advertising strategies and has opted for a more well-planned integrated marketing communication for their products/services to penetrate both the rural and urban FMCG markets. Altogether, FMCG products require marketing; Marketing is done to launch a product. So, if we have to launch a new product in the market advertisement is a must.
Findings: The findings of the study indicate that there were six factors related to the impact of promotional tools on sales and consumer buying decisions, namely: print and outdoor advertisement, sales promotion tools, and TV advertisements. The promotional tools like TV print or outdoor media ads were effective. Furthermore, the sales promotion had influenced many young consumers to purchase the product. Some researchers found that demand for the advertised products was heavily influenced by the children's attitude towards advertisements. The finding of other research reveals that shopping behavior of urban consumer at retail stores in response to radio advertisements was highly influenced. Still, radio advertisement messages on sales of products have quick response to the supermarkets and department stores. Remarkably, listeners of radio commercials are attracted towards advertisements. Some studies investigated the effects of industrial advertising and business practices and analyzed the advertising budget for the FMCG market.

Conclusion: In view of tough competition across the global market, even for MNCs, it has become difficult to survive, grow, stabilize and excel in the advertisement business. In order to communicate to target customers regarding various products and services of the companies, help of advertisement strategies is required. Further, if advertising is done with synergistic media planning, the communication effectiveness will be higher. The main goal of synergistic advertising a certain product or service is to attract the consumer's attention and analyze the impact of advertising on consumer behavior.

Furthermore, synergistic advertisement also helps to build a brand identity and loyalty, which actually increased sales and impact positively on the company. Researchers have identified the following three guiding principles, companies can improve their advertisements and also companies can spark their business:
- Strategy: Establish a leadership vision and strategic alignment.
- Synergy: Create a comprehensive program of cooperative action.
- Significance: Implement a program that brings tangible value to both the enterprise and the world.

A big challenge in future will be the ability to meet competitive threats from a variety of competitors in the advertising arena for the FMCG products. Market conditions will continue to be more competitive and manufacturers will have to lay greater emphasis on quality of advertisements. Synergistic advertising will be a reliable force in the creation and maintenance of brands. Despite the enormous issues and challenges ahead in the world of advertising, it will be filled with young people having energy, creativity, innovations and the spirit of adventure in the field of advertising. The synergistic advertising concept requires managers to recognize that multiple marketing communication activity (e.g., advertising, promotion) not only affect market shares directly, but also amplify or attenuate the effectiveness of marketing activities indirectly. In simple terms, synergistic advertisement strategies appear to be a fruitful area for future investigation. As a result, more focus is required by FMCG companies while planning their advertisement campaign for different age groups of children, rather than considering them as one homogenous group and various elements of the advertisements. Consequently, now days FMCG companies should focus on the concept of "Right ads for the Right people at the Right time by the Right medium with the Right Advertisement Strategies."
References:


Feminist Glance on Toni Morrison's Beloved

Amandeep Kaur*

Abstract: Beloved would appear to be the only "ghost story" among Morrison's Nine novels, but as this provocative new study shows, spectral presences and places abound in the celebrated author's fiction. Here we explore how Morrison uses specters in her novel to bring the traumas of African American life to the forefront, highlighting histories and experiences, both cultural and personal, that society at large too frequently ignores. Working against the background of magical realism, while simultaneously expanding notions of the supernatural within American and African American writing, Morrison peoples her novels with what Anderson identifies as two distinctive types of ghosts: spectral figures and social ghosts.

Keywords: Feminism, Beloved, Toni Morrison & Negritude.

Introduction: Morrison uses the spectral to marvellously indicate power through its transcendence of corporality, temporality, and explication, and she employs the ghostly as a metaphor of erasure for living characters that are marginalized and haunt the edges of their communities. The interaction of these social ghosts with the spectral presences functions as a transformative healing process that draws the marginalized figure out of the shadows and creates links across ruptures between generations and between past and present life and death. An important contribution to the understanding of one of America's premier fiction writers, Spectrality in the Novels of Toni Morrison demonstrates how the Nobel laureate's powerful and challenging works give presence to the invisible, voice to the previously silenced, and agency to the oppressed outsiders who are refused a space in which to narrate their stories. Toni Morrison told Nellie Mckay in an Interview in 1983 that she is very happy to hear that her books haunt and she said that this is called real achievement of her writing that her writings haunt her readers. Like her previous novels Songs of Solomon and TarBaby, Morrison's fifth and seventh books, Beloved (1987) and Paradise (1997) are set in the area between 'all the two's one like". Unlike her previous works these bookends to her trilogy together from the apogee of her project to conjure African American history through a spectral guide.

According to Marsha Darling, for the characters in the environment that Morrison creates, "Ghosts or spirits are rea. And the purpose of making them real is making history possible, making memory real". In Beloved, the presence of a ghost makes real the personal and cultural history of Sethe, a runaway slave who attempts to kill her children rather than see them enslaved. This choice results isolation from her community and a tainted relationship with her remaining children. Ultimately, for Sethe and her daughter Denver to repair their broken bonds and becomes healthy individuals, a bridge must be constructed to connect them. Sethe must find out a conduit through which she can communicate all the horrors of her past to her daughter so that Denver can understand her mother and they begin to forge a place for her in the world. This bridge of personal and historical memory is the ghost: Beloved.

Thus while analysing the spectrality in the novel Beloved. It is a time- shifting, border- crossing character that embodies Derrida's "spectrality effect" or undoing this opposition, or even this dialectic, between actual, presence and its other. She is an intense spectral appearance of traumatic history in a physical form, a becoming body and through her spectrality the merges and undoes rigid barriers between life and death and past and present. Through her use of 124 as a spot for apparition, Beloved creates a spectral moment, which is a moment that no longer belongs to time, if one understands by this world the linking of modalized presents.

In this sense, Beloved is a timeless and subversive figure, who can cross and recross borders between binaries and defy compartmentalization. As a spectre, she serves as a translation point, a medium, between Sethe and Denver, processing the traumatic memories of slavery and Sethe's personal response to it. If Beloved is interpreted as a child spirit attempting to deal with the trauma of slavery then Consolate, a character in Paradise, becomes a more mature spirit guide with one foot in the real another in the beyond, memorializing and healing the scars of slavery, Reconstruction, and the civil rights movements through her interaction with the four women in the convent and the townspeople of Ruby. In both Beloved and Paradise, Morrison privileges the liminal power of spectrality that illuminates personal memory and cultural history while concurrently "unghosting" silenced individuals who are disconnected from that transformative space where personal experiences, memory and history merge.

In Beloved, history is very dangerous and very real in the present, and this reality and concomitant danger go beyond the actual spectre and exist within the fabric of the characters themselves. For Sethe, moments
of graphic terror from her past continue in a time that is not temporal but repetitive and otherworldly. She tells Denver that she remembers a picture floating around out there outside her head. This is a remarkable description of spectral as a moment that is in the mind, yet physically outside of the individual, and in the past but still forever recurring in the present.

It is an obsessively repetitive trauma that can be experienced by people other than the original participants, which is why Sethe warns her daughter against visiting these haunted locations either imaginatively or physically. For Sethe the past haunts and hurts and death is no certain release from the haunting she is already caught in a traumatic, temporal limbo. Sethe's reasons for her actions. Even with a limited amount of information available, Denver seems to pick up on the importance of Sethe's warning when she notes, If it's still there, waiting, that must mean that nothing ever dies”.

Thus with this observation, Denver correctly diagnosis the problem for characters in Beloved as the line between the living and dead is blurred and nothing ever dies. In this worldview, pain continues and a ghost is just another obstacle to peace It is not surprising that Morrison would build a ghost story around this trauma. We can say that Beloved functions in the text as a spectral bridge that conveys historical and cultural information from Sethe to her remaining daughter, Denver: she is a vital connection between generations. Beloved's presence in the text as "spectral history" and her resulting spectrality effect help Denver learn to live and respect her mother as well. The importance of Spectrality is clear I that Morrison immediately immerse the reader in the spirit world. A haunted house is introduced on the first page, and 124 are occupied by three phantoms and a ghost. Once again there are two kinds of ghosts operating here. Because of Sethe's actions and her pride, her family is cut from the surrounding community and each woman without warning. The three isolated and ghost like women of 124 haunt the building as much as the baby's spirit does. The "real" ghost the baby is the typical ghost of a haunted house and it changes its manifestations as the story progresses in the novel. The contact that the ghost desires is at first satisfied through childlike crawling on the main stair, shattering mirrors, and placing handprints in desserts.

These paranormal manifestations make 124 a link in the oppression of slavery and to survive her life of isolation in illustrated in her outburst to Paul D in defence of her daughters, both living and dead: I got a tree on my back and a haunt in my house and nothing in between but the daughter I am holding in my arms. Sethe's tree is a large network of horrific scars recording the terrors and abuses from her past life as a slave on Sweet Home. Not only has she paid in forced labour and demeaning abuse; she has also paid for her freedom with the destruction of her family and the haunting of her home by a horrific loss and all reminders of her painful past, a past she desperately wants to forget.

Thus fully prepared for an encounter with the spectral. Denver is born in a liminal space, the Ohio River, and she lives in seclusion in a haunted house with the mother who, she fears, could at any moment plunge her, as Sethe describes it over there. Denver lives in a world of her own imagination between her thoughts and reality, present freedom and past enslavement, her mother's world and her sister's. She actually experiences deafness when a classmate tells her about her mother's past and even after her hearing returns with the advent of the ghost, she lives in her own world of silence. She comes to identify with her only playmate, an otherworldly ghost-sister, to the pint that she seems to understand that Beloved will take physical form. She tells Sethe that she thinks the baby got plans. We can also say that Denver's attachment to the baby ghost and her own ghostly qualities. The poltergeist expresses Denver's anger against her mother. Denver identifies with her dead sister; the ghost becomes her only playmate in the lonely childhood.

Denver loneliness and her dependence on a ghost for company allow her to come as close as is humanly possible to the world of the dead, and her attachment to Beloved is a liability because it begs the question of what would be left of Denver if Beloved were to leave. Denver learns the horrific answer when she and Beloved goes to the shed to find cider and Beloved capriciously disappears Denver realizes that she also has disappeared; her entire identity is wrapped so tightly in Beloved's presence that she knows that she is crying because she has no self.

The experience continues and Death is a skipped meal compared to this she can feel her thickness thinning, dissolving into nothing and she does not move to open the door because there is no world out there. She feels as if the dark is swallowing her.

Thus whole novel runs after past history and every time characters haunt for their past similarly one example of an important half-forgotten story involves Sethe's memories of her own mother. These remembrances haunt her and must be integrated into her consciousness no matter how dangerous they may be, which circumstance is quite similar to the impasse in communication between her and her own daughter. The only identification that Sethe knows for her unnamed mother is a brand that her mother showed her when Sethe was a young child. The loss of family history is clear when Sethe realises that she had forgotten this information and never shared it with her children. Morrison has created two spectres in Beloved working in tandem to produce healing, particularly in Denver's life. Beloved is a ghost resulting from slavery; she is disconnected, angry, and, at times, violent in her demands. She opens the line of communication between Sethe and Denver but she is focussed on Sethe and her
vengeance that she cannot show Denver how to use this new knowledge. Beloved jolts Denver out of her fear and isolation by disclosing secrets of her mother's past, but Baby Suggs finishes Beloved's spirit work by comforting her granddaughter in her time of extremity and teaching her how to digest what she has learned of the past.

In the end Beloved's work of cultural recovery has been accomplished, but she cannot be completely laid to rest because the forgetting of generations creates her physical form. Unlike Sula, Pilate, and Therese, who disappear by end of their texts Beloved seems to be absent, but traces of her presence remain on the edges of memory and perception. Moreover, the injunction to not pass on a cultural ghost story that has just been told hints at how Beloved's spectral presence could remain. The novel positions the consequences of black invisibility in both the records of slavery and the record keeping as a situation of primary spiritual significance. The spectral presence brings to the fore the experience of slavery despite holes in the master narrative chronicles of those events.

Thus the whole novel right from the very beginning till end haunts the readers and its characters. History plays very dominant role in this novel although black people history never leave them always hold them with strong grip till end of their life. Similarly Sethe's life haunted by the past that she has suffered miserably in her life and she has suffered immense pain in her life unable to get her own mother love and also unable to love her children. The basic reason behind their sufferings was the slavery that creates all this immense trouble for their lives. They were exploited tortured by white people they are always at the mercy of the white people. Thus similarly Sethe being a black suffered a lot in her family her childhood was full of pain and trouble unable to receive her mother love and was considered as orphan in her life. Thus all this happened because of extreme torture of white people with black. There was lot of discrimination they were considered as very low, degraded or we can say they were not having their identity they were treated mercilessly by white people.

**Conclusion:** Thus in the novel Beloved the whole novel rests on the history. It is the history that creates trouble in their lives and they all were suffering from the malicious waves of the white people rule. So here we are considering history as a spectral bridge in this novel portrays the history of the black people how they were suffering endlessly by deeply affected by history. Thus Beloved is used as a spectral bridge in this novel the whole sufferings regarding blacks and how the exploitation and torture of slavery led them into devil acts. Sethe kills her own children to save them from hand of the cruel rulers. Thus although she tries hard to save herself from the past but this painful past never leaves them it haunts them at every moment of their life. Thus how this past disturbs their present and make it more dreadful than past is just because of their history of being black people. Morrison has used all such imagery and metaphors in this novel to outlay her main idea of that it is the history or scary past that led them into wells of pain and sufferings. She has marvellously portrays the history as a spectral bridge in her novel Beloved.

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India’s Stacks and Security Concerns in Pak-Afghan Region:
Make Peace and Stability

Baldev Singh*

Abstract: India has taken a lead role in the reestablishment of Afghanistan and enjoys wonderful amount of goodwill in the country. Its role is seen as crucial for the long-terms stability of Pak-Afghan Region and India realizes that a stable, prosperous and democratic Afghanistan is also in its strategic interests. This paper examines the trends in India’s ties with Afghanistan in the last few years and argues that driven by its growing regional and global ambitions, India is following a multi-pronged strategy in Pakistan-Afghanistan region. This paper underlines the structural issues that are the most important ones in determining India’s response to the changing strategic environment in this Afghanistan. India’s rise in the global inter-state hierarchy over the last decade has led India to define its regional foreign policy in more ambitious terms than before and the success of India’s Afghanistan policy will go a long way in determining if India will be able to emerge as a provider of regional security in South Asia.

Keywords: Security, Stacks, India, Pakistan, Afghanistan Peace and Stability.

Introduction: Bilateral ties between India Afghanistan span over centuries, give Afghanistan’s close links to the South Asia civilization historically. India has traditionally maintained strong cultural ties with Afghanistan, resulting in stable relations between the two states. Of course, Imperial powers such as Great Britain and Russia used Afghanistan as a pawn in their ‘great game’ of colonization and given the contested boundary between British India and Afghanistan, the ties between the two remained frayed. But after the independence, the area near Durand line the boundary between British India and Afghanistan transferred to Pakistan. So India had not to enjoy good ties with Afghanistan, especially given the unfriendly nature of India-Pakistan relations.

Before 1989, the war in Afghanistan was entangled with the cold war: Pakistan joined the U.S.-led anti-Soviet alliance in order to arm itself against India. Afghanistan which originally contested the legitimacy of Pakistan’s creation and has never explicitly recognized the border between the two countries, followed India into a form of Non-alignment titled toward its northern neighbor. The United States saw the Soviet-Afghan war of the 1980s as part of its containment Strategy; Pakistan saw it as a way to gain Strategic depth against India. The strategic importance of Afghanistan had increased during the 19th century. The European empires had emerged on the Asian scene. The Russian and British advances brought them to meet near Afghanistan.

India’s involvement in Afghanistan has visibly enlarged during the Taliban regime, when US started US-led anti-terror coalition’s assault in 2001. During the Period of Taliban rule Indian embassies in were closed down by Taliban (1996-2001). But they were reopened while new democratic system was set up. India has played a significant role in the reconstruction and rehabilitation process in Afghanistan. India’s extensive developmental assistance programme, which now stands at around US 2 billion, is a strong signal of its abiding commitment to peace, stability and prosperity in Afghanistan. This makes India one of the leading donor nations to Afghanistan and by far the largest donor in the region. Government of India has taken on a number of medium and large infrastructure projects in its assistance programme in Afghanistan. Some of these include: construction of a 218 km road from Zaranj to Delaram for facilitating movement of goods and services to the Iranian border; construction of 220kV DC transmission line from Pul-e-Khumri to Kabul and a 220/110/20 kV sub-station at Chimtala. Also India Built new Parliament in Kabul, Afghanistan. The work for this project started in December 2009 and the original schedule for completion was December 2011. The Indian government has provided Rs 710 crore aide for this project.

The signing of a strategic partnership between India and Afghanistan on October 4, 2011 during Afghan President Hamid Karzai’s visit to India was a landmark event. The document is significant for its implications for

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Good India-Afghanistan ties are seen by Pakistan as detrimental to its national security interests as the two states flank the two sides of Pakistan's borders. A friendly political dispensation in Kabul is viewed by Pakistan as essential to escape the strategic dilemma of being caught between a powerful adversary in India in the east and an irredentist Afghanistan with claims on the Pashtun dominated areas in the west.

India has attempted to prevent Pakistan from dominating Afghanistan. India would like to minimize Pakistan's influence of each other in the affairs of Afghanistan. Given these conflicting imperatives, both India and Pakistan have tried to neutralize the adversary in India in the east and an irredentist Afghanistan with claims on the Pashtun dominated areas in the west.

India's Objectives in Afghanistan: India's objectives in Afghanistan have always been primarily Kautilyan, to make friends with an enemy's enemy. It has preferred regimes in Kabul that are antagonistic to Pakistan and that distracts and weakens Pakistanis in their face off against India. To this goal has been added countering the rise of the more militant political forms of Muslim fundamentalism. New Delhi conceders these challenge to communal harmony at home and, especially a danger in Kashmir, where Kashmiri and Foreign Muslim fundamentalist played an important role in the Insurgency. India faces considerable security challenges from terrorist organisations like the Al Qaeda, Talibin, Hizb-e-Teriya (LeT), Hizbul Mujahideen (HM) and others; all of them operating with state support from Pakistan.

a) Exclusion of Terrorism: Pakistan has repeatedly launched anti-India, and non-attributable terror attacks on Indian soil and on Indian interests in Afghanistan. When presented with evidence proving its involvement in the terror attacks, Pakistan has consistently resorted to denial and lies. The 26/11 Mumbai attacks and the attacks on Indian Embassies in Afghanistan have strengthened the Indian resolve to prevent further attacks, by military means, if necessary.

Although imposition of Shariais the stated goal of terror organizations like the Haqqani network, Hizb-i-Islami Gulbuddin (HIG), LeT, Quetta Shura Talibin (QST) and HM, these groups have evolved as commercial mafias with self-sustaining financial enterprises, including drug trafficking, kidnappings for ransom and smuggling, to name a few; and successive Pakistani governments have been unable to check these activities effectively on either side of the Durand Line.

b) Countering Pakistan: To a large extent, India’s approach towards Afghanistan has been a function of its Pakistan policy. It is important for India that Pakistan does not get a foothold in Afghanistan and so historically India has attempted to prevent Pakistan from dominating Afghanistan. India would like to minimize Pakistan’s involvement in the affairs of Afghanistan and to ensure that a fundamentalist regime of the Taliban variety does not take root again. Pakistan, on the other hand, has viewed Afghanistan as a good means of balancing out India’s preponderance in South Asia. Good India-Afghanistan ties are seen by Pakistan as detrimental to its national security interests as the two states flank the two sides of Pakistan’s borders. A friendly political dispensation in Kabul is viewed by Pakistan as essential to escape the strategic dilemma of being caught between a powerful adversary in India in the east and an irredentist Afghanistan with claims on the Pashtun dominated areas in the west.

Given its Pashtun-ethnic linkage with Afghanistan, Pakistan considers its role to be a privileged one in the affairs of Afghanistan. Given these conflicting imperatives, both India and Pakistan have tried to neutralize the influence of each other in the affairs of Afghanistan.

c) Energy and Commercial Interest: TAPI Pipeline: A stable Afghanistan has the potential to serve as a key land bridge to facilitate India’s energy and commercial interests in hydrocarbon rich Central Asia, thus facilitating the diversification of oil and gas supplies and reducing India’s excessive dependence on supplies from the Middle East. The Weight attached to the issue was reflected in a speech by india’s than President Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam: 'my Government will give full importance to synchronizing our diplomatic activity with our need for energy to fuel our development needs'. With this objective of enhancing India’s energy security, vital to sustain the momentum of its economic growth, India joined the ambitious $7.500m. TAPI (Turkmenistan, Afghanistan, Pakistan and India) pipe line initiative, which was envisaged to carry 30000m cu feet of gas from the Dauletabad field in Turkmenistan via Afghanistan, Pakistan, Into India.
India’s relationship with Afghanistan is multi-layered; there is clearly a military and security angle, with its growing economy, its population and soft and hard power assets, India
The much appreciated development role, notwithstanding, the
India has been trying to work realizing this goal. In the past few years its
Since 2001, India has adopted a soft power strategy in Afghanistan. Its policy has
In the pursuit of these objectives, India has adopted a multi-pronged approach by
The Afghan terror groups operating from the Afghan-Pakistan
Security Concerns: Extremism and Terrorism: The much appreciated development role, notwithstanding, the recurring attacks by the Taliban and its affiliates (the Haqqani network) on Indian mission and personnel pose a significant challenge for investing in large scale high visibility projects in post-2014 Afghanistan. The gruesome and high profile symbolic attacks on the Indian Embassy in Afghanistan, in July 2008 and October 2009 continue to highlight India’s vulnerabilities in Afghanistan. Since 9/11, New Delhi’s policy has broadly been in congruence with the US goal of destroying the Taliban-Al Qaeda combine and instituting a democratic regime in Kabul.
A complete international troop withdrawal would not be in India’s interest, but an Indian military footprint would feed into the insurgent propaganda and dissipate the goodwill that India has earned among the Afghans. Having avoided the military option and provided huge developmental assistance instead, New Delhi intends to keep its image as a ‘friendly and neutral country’ untarnished. In this context, India’s lack lustre responses to Afghanistan’s repeated requests for military hardware assistance, including President Karzai’s wish list during his visit in May 2013, is hardly surprising.
Conclusion: India’s relationship with Afghanistan is multi-layered; there is clearly a military and security angle, under which India aspires for stability within Afghanistan and hanging over which is the shadow of its relationship with Pakistan. While growing, the military relationship with Afghanistan remains relatively low-key, though it has the potential to be significantly ramped up dependent both upon developments in Afghanistan and on the actions taken by Pakistan.
The Strategic Partnership agreement which was signed during the visit of Afghanistan President Hamid Karzai to India on October 04, 2011 was the first agreement that Afghanistan has formally entered into with any country to help guarantee its security and is linked with the drawdown of US forces from Afghanistan. It was meant to reconstruct Afghanistan. But beyond the reconstruction, the Government of Afghanistan also views the strong ties with India as a means to assuage the sense of insecurity and capable of assisting the war-torn nation to stabilize the helpless nation on account of the debilitating power struggle anticipated in the power vacuum following the withdrawal in 2014 of the US and NATO forces.

By contrast, India pursues interests that require Afghanistan to experience stability and economic growth—notably, protecting itself from terrorism, expanding commerce, securing Central Asian energy resources, and establishing itself as a regional power. Thus, whereas Pakistan seeks to fashion an Afghan state that would detract from regional security, India’s objectives for Afghanistan would enhance Afghanistan’s political stability, security, economic growth, reconstruction, and regional integration.

India stands to make tremendous gains in the political, economic, strategic and resources sectors if it makes a well calculated assertive move in Afghanistan at this juncture in its history. India needs to quit the fence and get on with the task of proving to the world that it has indeed arrived—and that it is quite capable of assuming regional roles and resolving issues in its backyard.

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Nuclear Proliferation in South Asia

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Abstract: South Asia, which consist of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. This paper analyses the role of nuclear weapons in Southern Asia which are many fundamental questions i.e. what is the role of nuclear weapons in keeping peace in this region? Do these weapons deter war? South Asia nuclear modernization is mainly a function of prevailing threat perceptions arising from security dilemmas. Modernizing of arsenals includes the development and testing of longer range missiles such as the tests of the Agni-III by India, and the Shaheen-II by Pakistan in first of 2007.

Keywords: Nuclear Weapons, South Asia, India, Nuclear and Proliferation.

Introduction: South Asia went overtly nuclear when India and Pakistan conducted open nuclear tests in May 1998. It was a spectacular development and left profound, long term consequences for international relations as well as security of the region. Since then scholars have debated on the impact of this development, particularly on the issue of whether overt nuclearisation has injected a dose of stability in an otherwise unstable region or has added more instability.

Vertical and Horizontal: To begin with, proliferation issues in South Asia must be understood in context of vertical and horizontal proliferation. Vertical proliferation takes place as nuclear states modernize their nuclear arsenals with more reliable delivery systems and warheads. Countries including the US, China, India and Pakistan, are in the process of modernizing their arsenals through actions such as proposals for a reliable replacement warhead. In the context of South Asia nuclear modernization is mainly a function of prevailing threat perceptions arising from security dilemmas. Modernizing of arsenals includes the development and testing of longer range missiles such as the tests of the Agni-III by India, and the Shaheen-II by Pakistan in first of 2007.

Horizontal proliferation is the spread of nuclear weapons technology from nuclear states to other entities, including aspiring nuclear weapons states as well as non-state actors such as terrorists groups. Horizontal proliferation generally involves a significant role for WMD (Weapons of Mass Destructions) supply networks that may or may not have a connection to official entities in a nuclear state. In the South Asian context, this variant of proliferation is especially pertinent given the history of the A. Q. Khan network and its assistance to the states such as North Korea and Iran. In addition horizontal proliferation includes second tier proliferation where developing countries trade and exchange nuclear technology with each other. While vertical and horizontal proliferation is variants of proliferation dynamic, it is entirely possible that a nuclear state (such as Pakistan) could make use of non-state networks in the pursuit of nuclear modernization.

Indian diplomats raised the issue of 'vertical' and 'horizontal' proliferation of nuclear weapons during the NPT negotiations. On this issue, India emphasized that these two types of proliferation should be linked and addressed together to obtain genuine nuclear disarmament. Contrary to the Indian position, Pakistan maintained that vertical proliferation should be prevented, but the two concepts should not be linked.

Are Nuclear Weapons Necessary?

There are two main perspectives on nuclear proliferation, namely, Optimist and Pessimist. Some prominent Realist scholars, classified under 'Proliferation Optimists' have argued that there is virtually no risk that nuclear weapons will actually be used if more countries obtain them. They believe that proliferation would result in lesser number of wars and greater peace and stability. Rooted in the assumption that states behave in a self-interested and rational manner, the pioneer among Proliferation Optimists, Kenneth Waltz, argues: "More May be Better". In contrast to Proliferation Optimists, the Pessimists believe that the spread of nuclear weapons to other states beyond P-5 will make the world more dangerous. Opposite to Waltz's theory of 'More May Be Better', Scott D. Sagan, also known as a 'conditional pessimist', believes that 'More Will Be Worse.

Curiously, despite the sharp theoretical disagreements between optimists and pessimists about the impact of nuclear weapons on international relations the two camps share a consensus on the broad impact of nuclear capabilities in the Kargil War of 1999. For optimist Kenneth N. Waltz, "Kargil showed once again that deterrence does not firmly protect disputed areas but does limit the extent of the violence. He continues, "The obvious conclusion to draw from Kargil is that the presence of nuclear weapons prevented escalation form major skirmish (battle) to full scale war". Even the pessimist like Sagan readily acknowledges that, "the existence of nuclear

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weans in South Asia made both governments cautious in their use of conventional military force in 19996”. In other words existential deterrence in South Asia has hardly been limited to the Kargil conflict.

**The Main Factors to Develop Nuclear Proliferation:** Proliferation trends in South Asia can examine from three perspectives. The first looks at the doctrinal issues arising from security disputes that are the driving forces for nuclear modernization in South Asia. The second is proliferation linkages between South Asia and other regions like in the South Asian context, this variant of proliferation is especially pertinent, given the history of the A.Q. Khan network and its assistance to states such as North Korea and Iran and key problem arising from contemporary WMD proliferation-the involvement of non-state actors. The final is the potential impact of a crucial development-the Indo-U.S. nuclear cooperation and Pak-China cooperation in the contrary. But the security dilemma factor is more important which compelled India and Pakistan to go nuclear. Other factors, i.e. prestige and status, technological development and domestic politics, were only marginally important in the South Asian nuclearization process. Therefore, the proliferation of nuclear weapons in India and Pakistan basically concerns the politics of security.

The two countries have fought two wars over Kashmir (1947, 1965), one limited war (Kargil, 1999) one over East Pakistan/Bangladesh (1971) and the ongoing insurgency in Kashmir (since 1989). Kashmir, which lies at the heart of the dispute, is more than a simple territorial problem. Keeping the various security disputes and attitudes in mind, the next step is to consider the nuclear doctrines and policies of protagonist in the region. Both India and Pakistan struggle for a minimum deterrent. The objective of India's nuclear strategy is credible minimum deterrence (CMD), meaning a secure and reliable second-strike capability after absorbing an adversary's first strike. The main potential targets of this projected deterrence capability are Pakistan and China. Pakistan's nuclear doctrine also seeks a credible deterrent, against India.

**Nuclear Developments in India:** The first phase of independence during Nehru era, from 1947 to 1964; India primarily focused on developing a wide ranging civilian nuclear infrastructure with an obvious intention of using atomic energy for industrial and economic purposes. At a political level, however, Nehru remained opposed to India's development of nuclear weapons. Indeed, virtually in his all public pronouncement of nuclear related issue, Nehru was against the nuclear weapons. His opposition to the nuclear option for India drew in part from his keen concern about the opportunity costs of defence spending in a poor, developing nation facing many socio-economic challenges.

The first Chinese nuclear test at Lop Nor on October 16, 1964 impelled India's political and scientific establishments to take greater interest in acquiring nuclear Weapons. China's nuclearisation in the aftermath of the 1962 Sino-Indian border war dealt a further blow to India's national security. There were strong demands within India for acquiring nuclear weapons; but there was also considerable hesitation arising from the deep revolt against nuclear weapons.

Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Shastri decided in 1965 to go ahead with a Subterranean Nuclear Explosion Project (SNEP). But both Shastri and Bhabha died in January 1966. And given the large political and economic crisis that India went through in that period, SNEP was postponed. It was left to Mrs. Indira Gandhi and the successors of Bhabha to complete it in 1974 by conducting the first underground nuclear test. But the test a delayed response to China's explosion a decade earlier did not end the Indian nuclear problematic. It verified India's nuclear capability, but India remained unwilling to call itself a nuclear weapon power.

India's action in 1974 provoked the world into acting against it. The US and Canada cut off all nuclear cooperation with India. Canada accused India of having diverted nuclear materials from a Canadian supplied reactor to make the bomb.1982, India called for "nuclear freeze," that is, an prohibition on the production of fissile material for weapons, on production of nuclear weapons, and on related delivery systems. At the UN General Assembly Special Session on Disarmament in 1988, India put forward a Comprehensive Plan for total elimination of weapons of mass destruction. But when the scale of Pakistani nuclear weapon programme began to be under-stood in India in the mid 1980s, Mr. Rajiv Gandhi sought to pressure the United States into stopping the Pakistanis; but the strategy did not work. Mr. Gandhi ordered nuclear weaponization in 1988 and the project was completed in 1990 under his successor, Mr. V.P. Singh. But the ambiguity in India's nuclear posture remained.

In the May 1998, India ended its long-standing nuclear ambiguity. By conducting two rounds of nuclear tests on May 11 and 13 and declared itself a nuclear power. Soon after the 1998 tests India declared it was related to a minimum nuclear deterrent and promised that unlike other nuclear weapon powers, it did not propose to build a large arsenal.18 July, 2005 US-India nuclear deal The end the 24 Years Isolation of India does give India the option yet again to both keep its nuclear weapons program while also preserving its access to international nuclear commerce. The issue had become even more vital for India because India's explosive economic growth has put much greater strains on its electricity generation capacity.

**Nuclear Developments in Pakistan:** The origin of the Pakistani nuclear programme is markedly different from those of India's. The post-independence Pakistani leadership had a little interest in harnessing the power of the atom. They were primarily concerned with the problems of law and order. In 1953 Pakistani leadership sought to
develop a small nuclear research programme. In 1957, the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) was established to train nuclear scientists and to set up a nuclear research reactor.

Western countries have also contributed to the development of Pakistani nuclear programme. In 1965, the United States supplied a research reactor to the Pakistan Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology (PINSTECH) in Rawalpindi. In the wake of India's 1974 nuclear test, many foreign countries stopped or limited their cooperation with Pakistan because of its more than obvious eagerness to catch up with India. Canada stopped supplying nuclear fuel to Pakistan in 1976, and France cancelled its contract with Pakistan to supply Plutonium reprocessing plant for its Chasma facility. In 1980s United States stopped supplying fuel for the PINSTECH and KANUPP reactors. The only exception is China, whose nuclear relations with Pakistan became prominent only after the 1974 Indian nuclear test.

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1980 proved another crucial turning point for Pakistan's nuclear weapons programme. In reaction to the Soviet Military Interventions, the United States for six years suspended the application of the uranium enrichment under the sanctions to Pakistan and provided greatly increased military and economic assistance to Pakistan.

The six nuclear test at Chagai Hills in the Baluchistan province on May 28 and 30, 1998 gave the signal of Pakistan's abandonment of policy of nuclear ambiguity. Following the test, Pakistan laid claim to the status of a nuclear weapons State, with Prime Minister Nawaz Sharif declaring 'No matter we are recognized as a nuclear weapons power or not, we are nuclear power'.

Implications: The most disturbing fact about Pakistan's proliferation network is that there is no guarantee that the nuclear black market will not surface again. Nuclear proliferation by Pakistan will have serious implications for India and the threat of nuclear terrorism in the form of a dirty bomb cannot be ruled out. Though it can be assumed that Pakistan's Nuclear weapons are in safe hands and they have regulated command and control structure, there is no guarantee of small amounts of nuclear waste not find in its way into the hands of radical elements.

The heart of India's current nuclear modernization program, which is centered on developing and inducting, sold-fueled intermediate-range ballistic missiles, deploying ballistic missile submarines, building weapon storage and integration sites, is aimed principally at renew its deterrence capability especially against China not Pakistan. At present India, which is stronger than Pakistan but not China is concerned because Pakistan is a weak state. Pakistan's security competition with India, which dates back to the creation of the two countries as independent states, is multi-dimensional in nature and involves territorial, religious, and power political dimensions.

Conclusion: Underlying the analysis on the role of nuclear weapons in Southern Asia are many fundamental questions- what is the role of nuclear weapons in keeping peace in this region? Do these weapons deter war? Or do these weapons bring about a phase of 'ugly stability'? The two states more or less on an everyday basis, engage each other military at various other points along the line of control. This engagement is limited to the Jammu and Kashmir state. The competing claims over Jammu and Kashmir Lend confidencethat any future large scale military confrontation between India and Pakistan will be over Jammu and Kashmir.

References:
Abstract: Sohan Singh Josh was one of the most important Communist leaders of Punjab. This research paper is an endeavor to highlight the role of Sohan Singh Josh in the Communist Party of India, especially his contribution as the founder of the Communist Party in Punjab. Paper will analyze the writings of Sohan Singh Josh and his struggle for workers and peasants. He was arrested in the 'Meerut Conspiracy case' and spends four years (1929-1933) in Gaol (jail). After his release from the jail Josh became member of the Legislative Assembly, he played a very active role. This was a platform from where he presented his ideas, expressed communist ideologies and worked for the welfare of people. Role played by Josh during World War II was commemorative; he was again arrested as put to jail for two years from June, 1940 to May 1942. He led agitation in Punjab after Independence when Communist Party was declared illegal in 1948; he was again put to jail by the Congress-led state government in Punjab.

Keywords: Sohan Singh Josh, Colonialism, CPI, Revolutionary Movement.

Introduction: This research paper is an endeavor to highlight the role of Sohan Singh Josh and his contribution in the development of India, especially his role as a founder member of the Communist Party in Punjab. Meerut Conspiracy Case has a unique place in the history and development of revolutionary politics (political movement) of India, like Lahore Conspiracy Case of Bhagat Singh and his comrades. In both the cases, the Conspirators fought against British imperialism tooth and nail, unmindful of the consequences. Both trial accused exposed the British courts as "class courts" and their justice as "class justice". Comrades involved in both the cases made great sacrifices and challengingly stood their ground. According to Sohan Singh Josh, it was a great act that most of the Lahore comrades learnt Marxism Leninism philosophy inside jail and later joined the Communist Party of India. One of them was Comrade Ajoy Ghosh, who rose to occupy the position of General Secretary in the Communist Party of India for more than a decade. Before his martyrdom, Bhagat Singh himself had become a Communist and wrote in jail:

"The nation can wage a successful struggle only on the strength of organized workers, kisans and the common people. It is my firm belief that we will not profit by bombs and pistols. This is clear from the history of the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army (HSRA). Our main objective should be organized workers and kisans. British ruling class terrified with the rapid growth of Communist influence, especially after the formation of 'workers and Peasants' Party of India in the Calcutta Conference. Communist movement had become a great headache to the British government of India. In order to hit at the base of growing Communist movement, the British Government set up Meerut Conspiracy Case against them, under which 31 members of trade union and peasant's organization were arrested in the month of March, 1929.

The persons arrested under section 121-A, according to which it was alleged that the accused under the guidance of the Comintern had conspired to bring about an armed revolution and establish Soviet republics in India controlled by the Soviet Union. Thus, everything was decided, pre-planned and well-thought out. On 20 March 1929 there were police raids in four provinces of India-Bombay, Bengal, U.P. and Punjab to arrest the Communists, prominent members of the 'Workers and Peasants' party and leftwing trade union and peasant leaders. As many as 32 persons were taken into custody and brought to Meerut district jail.

The cases were opened after three months of their detention on 12 June 1929 by Mr. Long-ford James before Mr. Milner White, special magistrate of Meerut. This prosecuting counsel was the bitterest enemy of Indian freedom and communism and was the most highly paid counsel of that time. It was estimated that the government paid a sum of Rs. 34000 per month to Mr. James alone. Up to the beginning of 1931 the British government had spent more than Rs. 8 lac on this case.

The Meerut accused were first lodged in separate cells of the Meerut District Jail. They were treated worse than animals. News was published in Mazdoor Kisan that Sohan Singh Josh, the prominent leader of the Kirti Kisan Party, got ill due to dirty barracks. The press took up the issue about the miserable conditions of the Meerut prisoners. It was only after a crusade that they were shifted to a bigger barrack.

Here, the Communist group took a very important decision. It decided that the session court be utilized as a platform for Communist propaganda. The government wanted to discredit and crush the Communism. The Communist group however took it as a challenge and decided that to propagate their views without fear of the consequences. The group decided that it would not put up defense to find legal loopholes in the case, to save its
skin but to challenge the very nature of the charge of Communist Conspiracy and the intention and purpose of the 
British rulers working behind it. With this political objective in view, the Communist group decided to conduct its 
own defense.

The Meerut conspiracy case trial came to an end on August 1933 when the Allahabad High Court 
delivered its judgment. Sohan Singh Josh's sentence was reduced to one year rigorous imprisonment but as he had 
already completed the required period, he was set free on November 17, 1933. He was welcomed and was honoured 
by various organizations and Sabhas at Amritsar, Lahore, Gujranwala, etc. but not a single person from the Kirti 
Parity came to receive or welcome them, comments Sohan Singh Josh. He was surprised and disrupted in Punjab 
after their arrest in Meerut Conspiracy Case. Bhagat Singh and his Comrades had been hanged on March 23, 1931. 
It was a huge setback to the Naujwan Bharat Sabha and also to the Kirti kisan Party. According to Naian Singh 
Dhoot, a Communist leader himself, it is imperative to consider Sohan Singh Josh's complaint against the Kirti 
Kisan Party. In his view, the Kirtis manifested political bankruptcy in failing to understand the significance of the 
Meerut Conspiracy Case and the great achievement of the accused in placing Marxism in the contemporary 
political discourse. The Kritis did not contact those implicated, either during the trial or later in jail. They did not 
care to inquire about the well-being of the families of the Meerut prisoners. They ousted Bhag Singh Canadian 
from the Kriti management and replaced him by Santa Singh Gandiwind, who was not only illiterate but also 
politically ignorant.

The Communist movement was in shambles, as both the Kriti Kisan Party and the Naujwan Bharat Sabha 
had split into two factions each. There were serious differences in the Kriti Kissan Party over the utilization of 
funds. The intelligence agencies had succeeded in planting their agent Parumal (Sub-inspector Ghulam Muhammad) 
as the editor of the Kriti Urdu in place of Feroze Din Mansoor. The Kritis had misguided the Moscow trainees into 
believing that the kriti Kisan Party was the Punjab unit of the CPI, whereas in reality the party did into represent the 
CPI.

Between 1928 and 1935, the Communist Party of India remained a narrow sectarian group. It was the 
Seventh Congress of the Communist International that enabled the Indian Communist to get out of their self-
imposed isolation. It enunciated a policy of "United Fronts" which in Colonial countries enjoined Communists to 
participate actively in "the mass anti-imperialist movements headed by the nationalists-reformists and to seek joint 
action with them on the basis of an "anti-imperialist platform". Indian Communists were to strive for the establishment 
of "a united anti-imperialist front...both from within and without the National Congress". Anticipating a change in 
the Indian Communists attitude towards itself as a result of the Seventh Congress line, the Congress Socialist 
Party (CSP), which had earlier barred Communists from membership in the Party, reversed its policy at the meeting 
of its executive in Meerut in January 1936 and invited Indian Communists to join the party on an individual basis. 
Indian Communists were initially hesitant, but by April 1936 had begun to enter CSP, while maintaining their own 
secret separate organizational identity.

In Punjab, this enabled the CPI-affiliated group to join up with the Congress Socialists and declare the 
goal of a united people's Front of all anti-imperialist forces. The important demands of the Party were complete 
independence, the repeal of all repressive laws and ordinances, the release of all political prisoners, the assessment 
of land revenue on income tax basis, the cancellation of agriculturist's debts, free education and the abolition of 
native states.

Meanwhile, the Congress had emerged out of the slump following the Civil Disobedience Movement and 
was getting ready to fight the elections under the Government of India Act of 1935. According to this Act, the 
voting qualifications had been reduced through they were still very restrictive, "One had to pay land revenue or 
house rent of Rs. 5 or should have passed primary education". One of the biggest landlords of Punjab, Sardar 
Raghib Singh Sandhanwalia, the Honorary Magistrate of Rajasansi, was contesting the election from Tarn Taran. 
He belonged to the party of Punjab landlords, known as the Unionist party of Sir Sikander Hayat Khan and 
Chowdhury Chhotu Ram of Haryana. The Unionist party was dominated by big Muslim landlords. In this meeting 
they decided to use the election opportunity to propagate their ideas, and he was chosen as the party's candidate 
to oppose Raghib Singh.

Seven Communists were nominated on the Congress list-Sohan Singh Josh, Teja Singh Swatanter, Master 
Kabul Singh, Harjap Singh, Bibi Raghib Singh, Raman Vats and Baba Rur Singh. According to Sohan Singh 
Josh, he along with other companions moved from village to village to explain their mission to the Sikh rural voters. 
In this respect they held election meetings from time to time and requested the villagers to attend them. The results 
of their efforts were that the four Communists won the election to the Assembly on Congress tickets. And he was 
the only Communist who had fought the provincial elections as a party candidate and won the elections. The most 
important thing in these elections for Sohan Singh Josh was that the people gave him notes (money) along with 
votes and he had beaten the landlord Raghib Singh, which was not a small thing Raghib Singh was a very 
influential personality of his area.
After the achievement of considerable unity in the ranks of the Punjab Socialists under the banner of the CSP, the peasant movement made headway in the province. The Punjab Kisan Committee (PKC) was formed in March 1937 and was affiliated to the All Indian Kisan Committee. The working committee represented all bodies with Socialist Leanings, i.e. Congress Socialist, the Desh Bhagat Qaidi Parwar Sahaik Committee (Committee to the families of political prisoners), the Riasti Parja Mandal, the Radical League (CPI group led by Sohan Singh Josh) and the Institute of Agrarian Reform.

Sohan Singh Josh as a member of the Punjab Legislative Assembly they played very active role. For him, this was a good platform to present his ideas and ideologies and work for the welfare of people and put into practice ideology. For instance, he tried to present a Bill in the Assembly for the amendment in the Punjab Tenancy Act. According to this Bill, the peasants who were ploughing the fields from six years or more would get the right of ownership of these fields. But, the majority of the Unionists were against this Bill and they did not let him present this Bill in the Punjab Legislative Assembly. But all this failed to demoralize Sohan Singh Josh. He was at the forefront of every Kisan Conference like at Baba Bakala under the auspices of Bandobast Committee on 21-22 August 1937; the peasant Conference at village Kingranwali in the third week of September 1937, the MazdoorKisan Conference held by KirtiMazdoor Dal on 9-10 October, 1937 which attracted 25,000 people etc.

The World War II began in September, 1939. According to Sohan Singh Josh, they were pushing the anti-imperialist war propaganda though the Congress and their Communist unit. The Congress and the CPI organized themselves into "satyagrahis" for an anti-war, anti-recruitment agitation and decided not to support the British government in the War. Sir Sikandar Hayat Khan, the British stooge was committed to defending the British Empire and fighting its enemy's i.e. the Communists, Socialist and the Congress Satyagrahis. In this way under the Defence of India Rules, arrests were made in July 1940. According to Sohan Singh Josh, who was also arrested, the number of actual detainees far exceeded the one given in the Government report as 1,300.

The hunger strike continued for more than a fortnight 184 prisoners abandoned the hunger strike. According to Government report, "Inside the Camp, the Communist Party members (numbering 150) are seriously contemplation initiating struggle in form of hunger strike and Socialist Party and other groups (numbering 100) have no intention at present of allying themselves with the Communists. But the Communists are trying very hard to persuade them to join them". But they were successful in achieving their unity. The Kriti comrades in the Deoli Camp then wrote to their comrades outside, asking them to join the CPI as they had done.

In the meantime something happened that created problems for the Communists in India. Hitler's attack on the Soviet Union on 22 June, 1941, changed the entire scenario. In December 1941, the CPI decided that with Hitler's attack on the Soviet Union, the character of the war had changed from an imperialist War into people's War. The task now, therefore, was to support the War effort instead of trying to sabotage it. The entire strategy of the party was overhauled to strengthen the War effort in order to defeat fascism (Germany), the great enemy of mankind. After all, Soviet Russia was the Symbolic-Country of workers all over the world.

The Punjab Government released eight Communist detenues, Sohan Singh Josh was one of them who were released on 1 May, 1942. After some days, all the detents were released. The ban on CPI was lifted on 23 July 1942. The Kriti group also joined hands with CPI. And Sohan Singh Josh was elected as General Secretary of Punjab State Committee. The British were successful in dividing the CPI and Congress when CPI started opposing the "Quit India Movement" under the leadership of Congress and also Subhash Chandra Bose's "Azad Hind Fauj". The CPI realized his mistake when in 1945, a group of people supporting "Azad Hind Fauj" making slogans of "LalQilaTorh Do", had burnt the Communist Headquarters. Now they realized that what kind of blunder they had made by opposing the "Quit India Movement" and "Azed Hind Fauj". As a result, they lost the elections of 1946 of the Legislative Assembly. Sohan Singh Josh was also one of them who lost.

The Second World War ended in 1945. The CPI was once again back to its policy of opposing imperialist forces as it had given support to British only for fighting fascism. Sohan Singh Josh continued his activities against the British government and her policies. And for this, he was arrested in 1946 for his role in "Harsha-ChhinnamoghaMorchha" and was lodged in Lahore Jail. In August 1947, India became free but it was partitioned. The CPI was declare an illegal Party by the government of India in 1948 Sohan Singh Josh was arrested in 1948. He was kept in Yole Camp, Kangra for two years. He was released in 1950. In 1951, he was elected as a member of Central Committee of Communists Party. He kept working as a Communist, organizing Kisan Conferences from time to time.

**Conclusion:** Therefore we can conclude that Sohan Singh Josh was one the most important communist leader of the Punjab. He was a multi-dimensional personality. He took keen interest in activities of working class and he himself participated in various peasant struggle led by the party in Punjab. He was not only instrumental in the formation of Kirti Kisan Party, but was the man who brought Naujwan Bharat Sabha and the workers and peasants party together. He devoted his whole life as a dedicated Revolutionary of Communists Party, struggling throughout his life for the rights of subalterns. He spent more than 12 years of his life in jail and around three years remained underground. He never compromised with his principles and always stood for them. Political and revolutionary activities of Indians compelled the British authorities to take a note of unrest prevailing in the country.
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Socio-Economic Inequality in India: A Theoretically Review

Gaganpreet Singh*

Abstract: The term “inequality” is a relative concept. It refers to unequal distribution of income among country or a state. The reasons of unequal earnings are, due to unequal opportunities, unequal abilities, unequal ownership of assets and other host of institutional and non-institutional factors. In others words, it refers to a situation in which some people are rich and many are poor. Inequality and poverty can exist only because of unequal distribution of income and wealth. The inequality of income and wealth is measured in the terms of the percentage of income received or wealth owned by the percentage of people in a country. This paper tries to analyse various views on socio-economic inequalities in India in terms of income, education, standard of living, assets, cast, colour, gender, etc.

Keywords: Inequality, Disparities, Gender Inequality & Indian Economy.

Introduction: India is a very diverse country regarding socio-economic condition which often leads to interstate and intrastate disparities. The disparities are seen in all dimensions of human life it may be economic and non-economic. Socio-economic status of a person can be described as a person's social and economic position in relation to others, based on income, education and occupation. The extent of disparities differs from country to country according to their socio-economic conditions. In India there is a large gap between rural and urban areas with respect to living condition, sex ratio, literacy, economic empowerment, technology etc. One third of Indian population lives in rural areas and mostly depends on agricultural sector. Many in rural India lack access to education, nutrition, health care, sanitation, and other assets when we compare with urban India (Das & Pathak, 2012).

India is multicultural nation as result great deal to inequalities between identity groups as well as inequalities across households. During the last 50 years inequalities in income and consumption expenditure of households have been greater in urban than rural India. In the pre-reform period the inequality seems to have declined a bit within rural area from the late 1950s to the early 1990s; it then rose considerably in the post-reform period. In urban area inequality also increased sharply after 1990s. In the context of income distribution India is presently neither across the most economically unequal countries of the world nor among the most equal. Most of the nations of Europe, Canada and Australia include as the most equal when we compared with other developing countries. India is certainly less unequal country than South Africa and Brazil. Income inequality in India is more comparable to that in Argentina, Russia, Indonesia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Turkey. Wealth inequality in India seems to be less unequal than in the United States (Weisskopf E. T., 2011).

Inequality in India has been the topic of debate in the development circles since independence. This debate on Indian inequality can be divided into two categories of inequalities that are vertical inequalities and horizontal inequalities. On the one hand vertical inequalities represent inequality among the classes based on income or consumption expenditure. On the other hand horizontal inequalities refer to the inequality among different groups based on caste, religion, gender etc. Under horizontal inequalities special focus has been given on inequality between caste groups such as between scheduled groups and non-scheduled groups. In the post-economic reforms period (1993-2012), economic disparities not only have increased between different social groups but also have gone up within the social groups for both rural and urban areas (Singh, Singh & Kumar, 2015).

The available literature on post-colonial India has presented a mixed picture. On the one hand, the country has made substantial progress in many socio-economic dimensions, whereas on the other hand, it has failed in addressing the problems of marginalized groups such as women, the scheduled caste and schedule tribes. No doubt government has taken affirmative actions in the form of reservation in public sector jobs among different groups during post-colonial period. Whereas several policymakers and scholars argued that a small section of society have benefited from these actions of government. It has led changes in inequality in the labour market among socio-religious groups and genders. This inequality exists in forms of type of work, wage/earnings, and occupations by socio-religious groups and gender. An inequality in the labour market leads to disparities in capability formation and ownership of assets (Mehta, Shree 2017).

The Indian economy showed a higher growth in the gross domestic product associated with rising of income inequality during post-reform period (1993-94 to 2004-05). On one hand, with increasing investment, trade

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and output generating better employment opportunities and leading to narrowing down of horizontal wage differences among workers in the same type of jobs. On the contrary side, wage differential between skilled and unskilled labour is rising due to highly demand for skilled labour. Labour market generates disparities in wage and income earnings that are based on skills, level of education, social group, and gender. The level of disparity is continuous increase at faster rate during post-reform period in the urban areas as well as rural areas (Sarkar, Mehta B.S 2010).

Assets are an important indicator of economic well-being of households which include Land, Building, Livestock, Transport Equipment, Agricultural Machinery and Financial Assets. An increase in inequality in assets leads to increase in overall disparity. Inequality in asset ownership in India has risen during a period of 1991-92 to 2012-13. Over the period of two decades, Indian households witnessed rising inequality in asset distribution. Increase in asset inequality was more prominent in urban India than in rural India. Land is the most vital form of asset for rural households but for urban households both land and buildings is important asset. There has been a significant rise in asset disparities across social groups. The incidence of Asset distribution in India is highly unequal in the international comparisons (Sarma. M. Saha. P, Jayakumar. N 2017).

Education is an important instrument of human development. It contributes to prosperity of individuals by raising capabilities, improving income and standard of living. Education also effects welfare of the members of the society because of the positive externalities that it generates. In developing countries like India, where educational disparities are exists between the rural and urban population, males and females, and among different social groups and religions. There are large numbers of factors responsible for these educational disparities. The most predominant factor is unequal distribution of educational infrastructure between rural and urban areas. On the one hand, students in rural areas suffer from scarcity of schools as well as the poor quality of education. On the other hand, Concentration of secondary and higher educational institution in urban areas limits the participation of rural people in schooling (Agrawal Tushar, 2014).

**Theoretical Review:** Agrawal (2014), estimated educational inequality and educational attainment for both rural and urban area in major states of India between the years 1993 and 2009. The study used information from household surveys conducted by the NSSO of India and estimated disparity in educational attainments with the use of education Gini index. The study clearly showed the picture of interstate disparities in the distribution of educational attainment. On the one hand, Gini index in Delhi was 30 percent and on the other, it was 60 percent in Bihar at given period of time. Delhi has the lowest index followed by Kerala in 2009. Among the other states, inequality was higher in Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Orissa. Intra sector inequality contributes a major share to the overall inequality. It was found that within rural sector, inequality has increases over the period. In 2009, the Gini index in the rural sector was higher by 18 percentage points than in the urban sector. The study also highlighted that the educational attainment among females, SCs, STs and Muslim groups has low in both sectors. There were also inequalities within these demographic groups. The study concluded that inequality decreased by 14 percentage points between the same periods, whereas the extent of inequality remained high and Income inequality was the major reason of educational inequality among rural and urban household.

Mehta & Shree (2017), focused on the inequality in labour market in India between gender based group and socio-religious group. The study based on the secondary data which has collected from 61st and 68th rounds of NSS surveys. The study showed that the problem of inequality in socio-religious group has more deplorable than inequality in gender based group. It also observed that on the one hand, there has been a rise in socio-religious inequality and other hand, there has been little decline in gender inequality due to more participation of women in decent jobs. The share of females in regular jobs increased from 22 percent in 2004-05 to 30 percent in 2011-12. In public sector and highly paid government job this proportion reached at 38 percent. This confirms that female employment condition have been improving over the years and narrowing the gender gap in Indian labour market. The study also highlighted that the high inequality in labour market prevails among socio-religious groups such as SCs, STs and other groups. A large part of these socio-religious groups have been suffered from uncertainty about earnings because they have been involved in casual, less skilled and low paid jobs which led to increase in income inequality among socio-religious groups. These groups earned less in similar type of jobs compared to others. The study concluded that inequality in labour market has been increased among different socio-religious groups. The concentration of socio-religious groups in low paid, less skilled jobs and low level of educational attainment have been major reason for inequality in labour market.

Piketty& Chancel (2017), tracked the evolution of income inequality in India from 1922 to 2014. The study used data from household surveys and tax data as well as national accounts. The study showed that the high income inequality has been prevailed in India where top 1 percent of income earners captured less than 21 percent of total income in the late 1930s, before dropping to 6 percent in the early 1980s and increasing to 22 percent today. Over the 1951-1980 periods, the bottom 50 percent group captured 28 percent of the total growth and incomes of this grew faster than the average, whereas income of top 0.1 percent has decreased. Over the 1980-2014, the situation was reversed where top 0.1 percent earners have received high share of total growth than the bottom 50
percent in India. The study also highlighted that the income of top 0.1 percent income earners in France and China rose 6 times faster than the income of bottom 50 percent between 1980 and 2014. In India the growth rate of top 1 percent was 13 times higher than bottom 50 percent in the same period of time. The study concluded that the period of income inequality was also the period of one of the slowest growth in GDP and per capita income. In India income inequality had declined first during 1951-1980, and then sharply increased after 1980’s.

**Conclusion:** The concept of inequality in India is very complex and diversified. During the last 50 years inequalities in income and consumption expenditure of households have been increasing in urban than rural India. In the pre-reform period the inequality seems to have declined a bit within rural area from the late 1950s to the early 1990s; it then rose considerably in the post-reform period. In urban area inequality also increased sharply after 1990s. In the context of income distribution India is presently neither across the most economically unequal countries of the world nor among the most equal. Most of the nations of Europe, Canada and Australia include as the most equal when we compared with other developing countries. In term of Gender inequality, Human development report 2013 showed that India ranks 132 out of 187 countries on gender inequality index. The report said that most of countries such as, Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan were better place for women than India, where Sri Lanka toping them all. Disempowerment of women results in less access to education, employment, and income and freedom of movement. These concepts of gender inequalities and women's disempowerment are the two sides of the same coin; progress towards gender equality requires women's empowerment and women's empowerment requires increases in gender equality. For the equal and sustainable development there is greater need to address the issues related to inequality. Such law and policy should be implemented to reduce these inequalities and provide equal opportunity to all the people without any discrimination.

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Analysis of Indian Federalism and Political Parties

Kulvir Kaur*

Abstract: Although Indian Constitution has provided its Central Government with administrative and financial powers, it has nowhere used the term “federal”. It has merely provided for a type of governance which is “federal” in nature. Within the basic framework of Federalism, the Central Government has been provided with over-riding powers. The main objective was to have Cooperative Federalism which included sharing of powers and resources between Central and State governments in some fashion. The Central Government can reorganize the states through Parliament via the use of over-riding of legislation passed by States in the issue of national interest. The Center can also dissolve the state governments under Article 356. Ever-since the dawn of independence, India pretty much operated under One-party modus operation but the recent emergence of state political parties has contributed to the collapse of this one-party system and help federalize the working of federalism.

Keywords: Federalism, One-party system, Cooperative Federalism, Article 356.

Introduction: India covers an area of 3.28 million square kilometers with a population of 120 crore. This is a country having wide range of Ethnic backgrounds, languages and cultures. It has 29 states and seven union territories, which differ greatly in terms of their natural resources, administrative capacity and economic performance. To begin with, India was a highly centralized federation. It has made a success of it's a democratic and federal system because of its democratic record, institutional strengths, strong civil society and vibrant political culture. The federal principle has/have helped India to live peacefully with its remarked difference.

The essence of federalism that it is a political system which creates in a society broadly two levels of government with assigned powers and functions originating from a variety of factors and political bargain and displaying a tendency to insist through active response to the challenges of the changing environment by the process of adaptation through creative modes of institutions as well as functional relationship. India has all essential criteria of federalism are like two sets of governments, written constitution, independent judicial set up etc. In Indian federal system have been put to trial, in last six decades. This article intended to focus on the impact of party system in general and regional party in particular on the working style of Indian federalism.

Political Party and Federalism in India: After independence, the Indian National Congress transformed itself into a political party and took over the administration and formed governments both at the Centre and the States. The Congress defended the strong centre in order to maintain national integrity of nation. This situation remained unchanged till Jawaharlal Nehru presided the destiny of the nation as its first premier. There were no dissidents and the centre-state relations were generally amicable, because of (a) the role of the Congress party which won freedom and institutionalized state-society relationship, (b) the national elite enjoyed high legitimacy because of contribution to the freedom struggle, (c) despite elitist predisposition, there was moderation in the use of state-power and, (d) the states as largely utilized as an instrument of social change (Chakraborty, 1999).

Centralized Federalism: During Nehru Era, India had a highly centralized federalism. The Congress party remained a centralized party, formulating all-India policies of the guidance and control of the Congress-led ministries in the states. After the death of Sardar Patel in December 1950, Nehru combined the premiership and the party President, and later handover to his protege. It was in this context in 1953 Nehru came to proclaimed that the "Congress is the country and country is the Congress (Khan, 1999), Intra-party democracy in the political parties was not looked upon with favour and dissidence as suppressed with heavy hands. The Parliamentary wings of most of the national political parties followed the Congress line and voices from below were ignored and dissidence forcefully curbed.

The Centre, in order to maintain its supremacy, proclaimed President's Rule under Article 356 of the constitution. It was so common that, from June 1951 to November, 1967 President's Rule was proclaimed 14 times- in Kerala (6 times), Punjab (3 times) and in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Goa, Rajasthan and Haryana (one in each). After 1967, its use threatened state's rights and use of power sharing with regional leaders and parties (Khan, 1999).

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Between 1960s to 1980s Mrs. Gandhi humbled the Congress machine, re-established the supremacy of the Parliamentary party over the party organization, broke the power of the state Chief Ministers and established a new balance, or rather imbalance between the Centre and the State. The centre had allotted a large funds to states but were centrally sponsored development projects, implemented by states while administered by the centre. However, Indira regime's policies of centralization, politization and dictatorship had damaged the federal and democratic structure of the country which led to the rise of non-Congress political parties. The dominance of Congress party could not last long and the consensual politics of "Congress System" (Rajni Kothari, 1974) began to breakdown. The process became evident from 1969 onwards when Nehru's successor Indira Gandhi faced the strong opposition "rejected the principle of consensus in favour of the majoritarian principles? (Chakraborty, 1999).

**Emergence of Regional Parties:** The need for a truly decentralized federal polity has been a constant demand of the states in the post- 1967 period. The changing nature of the party system and the growing importance of regional parties have federalized the working of Indian democracy to a large extent. In mid 1970s, sub-regional cultures started at the state level. It was difficult for Congress to take care of all provinces and their local issues, as different issues of local nature had begun to raise their heads. For the common masses, their local leaders were very closer to them than the national leaders, and their local leaders were more concerned with local issues than the national (Chakraborty, 2003).

As Surendra Mohan in his article "Pivotal role for Regional Politics" (Hindustan Times) has pointed out that the Central leadership failed to take note of safeguarding distinct cultural identities, persisting regional economic imbalances and as such the regional leaders started to assert their existence. The regional leaders and local leaders came forward to assert their regional issues and play the game of regional politics, and to build a close relationship between state and society for the people's welfare.

The growth of regional parties, must, therefore be seen as mainly the out-come of over-centralization by national leaders and government. The regional parties have grown in strength in Assam, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Maharashtra, Sikkim, Punjab, Jammu & Kashmir, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh and other states of the Union. Their distinguished feature is their cultural regional identity, their linguistic opposition to in most of the non-Hindi states, political commitment to greater regional autonomy and focus on state-specific or regional specific (Khan, 1999).

**Regional Parties Demand for State Autonomy:** The regional parties in many states started making suggestions for re-structuring of centre-State relations so as to ensure greater autonomy of state. The demand for more autonomy of the state may be caused out of discriminatory role of the Governor in the dismissal of Chief Ministers, reservation of Bills for consideration of the President, demand for repealing certain laws, dismissal of State Governments under Article 356, non-implementation of Central Laws, deployment of CRP, use of all India Services by the Centre, alleged discrimination against states in allocation of Central projects, allocation of food grains, discrimination in grants and loans, appointment of Inquiry Commissions and CBI against Chief Ministers. As a result, the regional parties started demanding the restructuring of centre-State relations in order to ensure state autonomy. Since then various proposals and suggestions have been made by various regional parties. In 1971, the DMK government in Tamil Nadu appointed the Rajamannar Committee to review the federal structure. The CPI (M) led government in Kerala submitted a memorandum to the National Development Council on centre-state financial relations. The Akali Dal in its AnandpurSaheb Resolution of 1973 pleaded for autonomy for states. The CPI(M) led West Bengal government in 1977 published a memorandum calling for a drastic revision of the constitution in order to make India federal rather than union. In 1983 the Janata Party government in Karnataka issued a 'White Paper' on centre-state relations held at Bangalore. In this meeting the non-Congress regional Chief Ministers of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Pandicherry demanded an equal distribution of financial resource between the centre and states (India Express, 1983).

The Southern Chief Ministers of Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Pandicherry founded a forum for tackling their common problems and seeking drastic changes in centre-state relations, particularly in the financial area, known as "Southern Chief Ministers". These Southern regional parties had demanded more autonomy for the states. The Congress government at centre (Indira Gandhi?is Government) did not give importance to it. But, as it, realized that other states had also begun gathering momentum for state autonomy, the central government announced the appointment of Sarkaria Commission to examine the working of the relations between the Centre and the State on 24th March 1983. (Rao, Ram, 1990). The emergence of some powerful regional parties like DMK and AIADMK and subsequently TMC in Tamil Nadu, Telugu Desam in Andhra Pradesh, the Shivsena in Maharashtra, the Akali Dal in Punjab, the national Conference in Jammu & Kashmir, the Assam Gana Parishad in Assam, the RJD in Bihar, Biju Janata Dal in Odisha, Janata Dal in Karnataka, the BSP/SP in Uttar Pradesh and CPM in Kerala and West Bengal and a host of other regional parties in various states replaced the Congress party in states, which is the concrete evidence that Congress had lost its national character.

With the growing importance of regional parties in Parliament after 1989, there has been further federalization. The regional parties became more strong (stronger) and started to demand more autonomy for the states. Subsequently a number of conclaves were organized by the regional parties on the issue of centre-state
relations. N.T. Rama Rao, the first Chief Minister of a regional party in Andhra Pradesh, and the President of Telugu Desam Party, took initiative to organize a group of non-Congress and regional parties. The first conclave was called between 31st May to 1st June 1983, joined by leaders of 14 political parties. The main issue of discussion in the meeting was the restructuring of centre-state relations to ensure State Autonomy (Rao, 1998). The second conclave was held on 30th June 1983 and projected a collective stand on the sensitive Punjab issue and urged the centre to attempt a political solution to the problem. The third conclave was held in Srinagar on October 5, 1983, and passed a 31 points resolution suggesting large scale changes in centre-state relation in the administrative, economic and political fields. Further, they suggested that, the centre should confine itself to subject like defense, foreign affairs, currency and communications etc. The Srinagar conclave was an important one (Rao & Sundar Ram, 1990). The regional parties on centre-state relations stressed the need for strengthening the autonomy of the states so as to maintain a proper balance in the centre-state relations. The fourth conclave was held in Calcutta on January 13 and 14, 1984. The concave adopted a resolution demanding “a total restructuring” of the economic policies of the centre and offered an alternative economic programme for the uplift of the poor and the middle classes (Sen, India Today).

On September 17, 1988, seven parties namely, the Janata, Jana Morcha, Lok Dal (B), Congress (U), Telugu Desam, DMK and Assam Gana Parishad agreed to form an alliance known as National Front, at Madras with NTR and V.P.Singh as its Chairman and Convener respectively. One of the important objectives of the Front was to re-examine Centre-State relations so as to remove the imbalance in fiscal, legislative and administrative relations and to usher in an era of harmonious relation between the Union and the States in the true federal spirit.

**Regional Parties Partner of Union Government:** With NTR’s, sudden demise in January 1996, N. Chandra Babu Naidu, his son-in-law led a split group of TDP and fought the elections to the Lok Sabha in 1996 and won 16 seats on its own and captured 22 seats including its electoral allies-CPM and CPI. The TDP President and United Front Convener N. Chandra Babu Naidu, played the major role in the formation of the United Front of 14 parties with the Janata Dal, DMK, TDP, AGP, TMC, NC and CPI as the major partners supported by CPM and Congress (I) from outside. After the fall of Atal Bihari Bajpaee government, under the Prime Ministership of Deve Gouda, the regional parties joined as partners to form the government at centre. Besides being the Convener and the President of TDP, Chandra Babu Naidu alongwith other regional parties, realized the need for an arrangement for regional parties at the national level, took active role in the formation of another Front known as the “Federal Front” consisting of TDP, TMC, DMK and AGP, so as to protect the interest of the states they were representing, and to gain a better bargaining power for themselves. In the last two decades, the regional parties are the partners of UPA and NDA coalition government at the centre.

**Bargain by Regional Parties with Federal Government:** The new role of regional parties has transformed Indian federalism beyond recognition. Once those states were dominated by the Union, became asserted themselves against the super-power of Union Government. They started to bargain with Union government for their state interest. For example, the two Dravidian state parties DMK and AIADMK are alternatively made alliances with the two all-India national parties, Congress and BJP and every time they are extracting some price in the form of project or larger grants for the State. Sometime ago, Tamil Nadu had no ministers in the Union Cabinet, but of late, they have not only been in the Union Ministry, but also able to get the portfolios demanded. In the latest coalition, the DMK has been able to get a commitment from the Congress-led Union Government that, the Tamil will be considered as a national language.

Some regional parties blackmailing the union Government even giving support from outside. For example, the Telugu Desam Party in Andhra Pradesh had demanded several times and got concessions from the NDA Government in Delhi between 1999 and 2004. The support of TDP to NDA Government at New Delhi though from outside, brought benefit to state. The Department of Telecoms (later BSNL) had to give huge bandwidth to link up all the district towns to the State capital without charging a single rupee for years. To cope with natural calamities liked flood and drought, the TDP was able to extract generous grants from centre. Even the TDP pushed the central government to endorse its loans from the World Bank; in fact, it extracted the privilege to negotiate with the World Bank directly and got the Union Government's guarantees to backup its debt to the international financial enterprises.

The 23 party coalitions Union Government in Delhi in the period between 1999-2004 had went on announces packages of thousands of crores of rupees for development schemes to please the north-eastern states, each one of which contributed one or two MPs to the coalition. The full support and loyalty of some states were secured by financial packages. A Prime Minister of the United Front Government in 1996- 1997 announced Rs.8000 crore package to Jammu & Kashmir. National Conference Party in the hope of buying peace from terrorists. Another Primer Minster in 2004 had announced Rs. 24,000 crore package for Jammu & Kashmir. Every time the regional parties extended support to the Union government in Delhi and got some more packages.

The requirements of regional parties ruling in the states have been working havoc in regard to the utilization of the river water, flowing across several states. The water dispute between Karnataka and Tamil Nadu over the Kaveri water, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and marginally Maharastra over sharing of the Krishna water.
have still pending. The government involves in the water disputes were the partners in the coalition government in Delhi. The Government was unwilling to take the risk of it and did not try to solve the problem rather referred to the judicial court. Till getting the decision from judiciary, there will be lost of time, water and wealth of the farmers.

Cover up corruption, shielding of criminals and turning blind eye to illegal infiltration are some of the prices bargain by regional parties as coalition partners. The withdrawal of cases, non-progression of prosecutions already in progress, fabrication of cases, revival of cases, inclusion of criminals in Ministries, non-resolution of inter-state water disputes, extractions of "packages? of funds from the Union, subversion of states, change of demography by infiltration are some of the challenges of the regional parties on the Union Coalition Government. Thus the regional parties could not remain silence, but raised their voice, for their state interest and to fulfill the aspirations of the people. This need not be seen as a negative growth. It is part of the process of democratization in a federal polity.

CONCLUSION: This paper has tried to show that the rise of regional parties has contributed to the break-down of the one-party dominant at the Centre (which looked like Unitary Form of Government) and a total reversal of the authoritarian and centralized politics of Congress (I) leadership under whose tenure, the Congress (I) High Command was treating the Chief Ministers as though they are the Chief of Municipalities. The Congress (I) Prime Ministers never treated the Chief Ministers as equal partners in the running of federal polity of India. The Chief Ministers had to depend on the Prime Minister for survival in their office. In contrast to these past political cultures, the current Indian politics have been drastically federalized by the regional parties. The Prime Minster is no more as powerful as they used to be under One- party dominant system. The President and the Governors are no more rubber stamps endorsing the dictates of the ruling party; rather they are conscious of their constitutional roles. The new role of regional parties has transformed Indian federalism significantly. Since 1990s have seen the emergence of the state as the epic-Centre of Indian Politics. The regional parties came to play major roles at the national level and also the key players in coalition government. This kind of change in political parties in India, reflect the drastic change in politics of federalism, shifting from dominant federalism to co-operative Federalism.

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GST In India: A Key Tax Reform

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Abstract: The GSTC has been notified with effect from 12th September 2016. GSTC is being assisted by a secretariat. Fifteen meetings of the GSTC have been held so far. The following major decisions have been taken by the GSTC. (1) The threshold exemption limit would be Rs. 20 lakh. For special category states enumerated in article 279 (A) of the constitution, threshold exemption limit has been fixed at Rs. 10 Lakh. (2) Composition threshold shall be Rs. 50 lakh. Composition scheme shall not be available to inter-state suppliers, service provider and specified category of manufacturers. (3) Exiting tax incentive schemes of central or state governments may be continued by respective government by way of reimbursement through budgetary route. The schemes, in the present form, would not continue in GST.

Keywords: GST, Indian Economy, SGST, CGST and IGST.

Introduction:

The introduction if Goods and Services Tax (GST) would be a very significant step in the field of indirect tax reforms in India. By amalgamating a large number of Central and State taxes into a single tax, it would mitigate cascading or double taxation in a major way and pave the way for a common national market. The proposed GST is likely to change the whole scenario of current indirect tax system. From the consumer point of view, the biggest advantage would be in terms of a reduction in the overall tax burden on goods, which is currently estimated to be around 25%-30%. Introduction of GST would also make Indian products competitive in the domestic and international markets. GST will unify all the indirect taxes under an umbrella and will create a smooth national market. Experts say that GST will help the economy to grow in a more efficient manner by improving the tax collection as it will disrupt all the tax barriers between states and integrate country via single tax rate. GST was first introduced by France in 1954 and now it is followed by 140 countries. Studies show that this would have a boosting impact on economic growth. "It has been long pending issue to streamline all the different types of indirect taxes and implement a "single taxation" This system called as GST (GST is the abbreviated form of Goods & Services Tax)."

Literature Review:

Agogo Mawuli (May 2014) studied, "Goods and Service Tax-An Appraisal" and found that GST is not good for low-income countries and does not provide broad based growth to poor countries. If still these countries want to implement GST then the rate of GST should be less than 10% for growth. Dr. R. Vasanthagopal (2011) studied, "GST in India: A Big Leap in the Indirect Taxation System" and concluded that switching to seamless GST from current complicated indirect tax system in India will be a positive step in booming Indian economy. Success of GST will lead to its acceptance by more than 130 countries in world and a new preferred form of indirect tax system in Asia also. Ehtisham Ahmed and Satya Poddar (2009) studied, "Goods and Service Tax Reforms and Intergovernmental Consideration in India" and found that GST introduction will provide simpler and transparent tax system with increase in output and productivity of economy in India. But the benefits of GST are critically dependent on rational design of GST.

Objective Of Study: The study has following objectives:

1) To cognize the concept of GST
2) To study the features of GST
4) To furnish information for further research work on GST.

Research Methodology:

Being an explanatory research it is based on secondary data of journals, articles, newspapers and magazines. Considering the objectives of study descriptive type research design is adopted to have more accuracy and rigorous analysis of research study. The accessible secondary data is intensively used for research study.

Concept:

GST is an indirect tax which will subsume almost all the indirect taxes of central government and states governments into a unified tax. As the name suggests it will be levied on both goods and services at all the stages of value addition. It has dual model including central goods and service tax (CGST) and states goods and service tax (SGST). CGST will subsume central indirect taxes like central excise duty, central sales tax, service tax, special additional duty on customs, counter veiling duties whereas indirect taxes of state governments like state vat,
purchase tax, luxury tax, octroi, tax on lottery and gambling will be replaced by SGST. Integrated goods and service tax (IGST) also called interstate goods and service tax is also a component of GST. It is not an additional tax but it is a system to examine the interstate transactions of goods and services and to further assure that the tax should be received by the importer state as GST is a destination based tax.

**Features of Gst:**

**Ambit of Gst**

1) It is applied to all taxable goods and services except the exempted goods and services and on transactions below the threshold limit.

2) Exempted goods and services include alcohol for human consumption, electricity, custom duty, real estate. [Proposed article 366(12A)]

3) Petroleum products [crude oil, HSD (high speed diesel), motor spirit (petrol), natural gas, ATF (aviation turbine fuel)] are initially exempted from GST till the GST Council announces date of their inclusion.

4) Tobacco products are included in GST along with central excise tax.

**Imposition and Collection of Gst:**

1) The power of making law on taxation of goods and services lies with both union and state legislative assemblies. A law made by union on GST will not overrule a state GST law. (proposed article 246A)

2) GST has two components CGST and SGST as discussed above. CGST will be collected by central government whereas states governments will collect SGST.

3) IGST is levied on supplies in the course of interstate trade including imports which is collected by central government exclusively and distributed to imported states as GST is destination based tax. The proportion of distribution between center and states is decided on recommendation of GST Council. (proposed article 269A)

**Gst Council:**

1) It is set up by president under article 279-A. It is chaired by union finance minister.

2) It will constitute union minister of state in charge of revenue and minister in charge of finance or taxation or of any other field nominated by state governments. The 2/3rd representatives in council are from states and 1/3rd from union.

3) The decision of council is made by 3/4th majority of the votes cast and quorum of council is 50%.

4) It will make recommendations on

a) Taxes, surcharge, cess of central and states which will be integrated in GST.

b) Goods and services which may be exempted from GST

c) Interstate commerce - IGST- proportion of distribution between state and center

d) Registration threshold limit for GST

e) GST floor rates

f) Special rates during calamities

g) Provision with respect to special category states specially north east states

5) It may also work as Dispute Settlement Authority for GST.

**Additional 1% Tax:**

1) Additional 1% tax on interstate taxable supply of goods which is levied by center and directly portioned to the exporter state (origin state).

2) This tax will be charged for two years or for longer time period recommended by GST Council.

**Compensation to States:**

1) For maximum of 5 years union will compensate states for the revenue losses arising out of GST implementation.

2) This compensation will be made on the recommendation of GST Council.

**Way Forward for Implementation of Gst:**

1) The 122nd amendment bill to be passed by upper house with 2/3rd majority and then will be ratified by at least 50% state legislatures and will be followed by assent of president.

2) After the bill has been passed, GSTC (GST Council) to be established.

3) GSTC to advocate GST law and procedure.

4) GST law to be introduced in parliament.

5) GSTN (GST Network) a section- 25 company established to design IT infrastructure of GST

**Conclusion:** Due to dissilient environment of Indian economy, it is demand of time to implement GST. Consumption and productions of goods and services is undoubtedly increasing and because of multiplicity of taxes in current tax regime administration complexities and compliance cost is also accelerating. Thus, a simplify, user-friendly and transparent tax system is required which can be fulfilled by implementation of GST. Its implementation stands for a coherent tax system which will colligate most of current indirect taxes and in long term it will lead to higher output, more employment opportunities and flourish GDP by 1-1.5%. It can also be used as an effective tool for fiscal
policy management if implemented successfully due to nation-wide same tax rate. It execution will also results in lower cost of doing business that will make the domestic products more competitive in local and international market. No doubt that GST will give India a world class tax system by grabbing different treatment to manufacturing and service sector. But all this will be subject to its rational design and timely implementation. There are various challenges in way of GST implementation as discussed above in paper. They need more analytical research to resolve the battling interest of various stake holders and accomplish the commitment for a cardinal reform of tax structure in India.

References :
Abstract:
The offences of rape and also the sexual violation have notoriously low coverage rate in India. Underreported Crime is due to the reason of disbelief in police and investigation system. Police officers skill in taking rape complaints is important, because it may affect the willingness of survivor to cooperate with criminal justice authorities, the quality of crime reports which result in the degree of secondary trauma experienced by survivors. As patriarchal legacies among the entire system of Police and their perspective towards women particularly in rape cases creating it troublesome for survivors to approach Police.

Role of police is questionable often especially in dealing with cases of Sexual violence in India. Their Role is of the essence in any investigation process of a crime, but unfortunately, Indian police system failed to do so. This paper has tried to understand the Police and their role in the criminal Justice system and especially in rape cases. But In India police personnel are having a problem of Patriarchal mindset and see women as a commodity and such practice reflect in their investigation. Paper will also explore the how Survivor of rape have to bear the burden of the long investigation process and experience mental trauma by revictimization through police System.

Keywords: Rape, Police, Law & Survivor.

Introduction:
The offenses of rape and sexual violation have notoriously low reporting rate in India. Underreported Crime is due to reason of disbelief in police and investigation system. As patriarchal legacies among whole system of Police and their attitude towards women especially in rape cases making it difficult for survivors to approach Police.

Survivors are often reluctant to make police reports for various reasons- Undeniably fear of re-victimization by criminal justice professionals, survivor fear they will be shamed, disbelieved, coerced, re-traumatized, or dismissed. In Research and media reports has shown that our police officers are not even aware about the current Rape law, which shows their incompetency but not a challenge. Police officers skill in taking rape complaints is important, because it may affect the willingness of survivor to cooperate with criminal justice authorities, the quality of crime reports which result in the degree of secondary trauma experienced by survivor.

This paper reveals the undignified and unjust ordeal women rape survivors are forced to endure at the initial reporting stage of the crime and role of police. More research on role of and challenges faced by police are needed to explore the settings in Rape cases and also require to see capacity of police official and their attitudes towards survivors of rape.

Rape as Issue:
Violence against women has an age old history. Women worldwide have been forced to suffer abuses, harassment, torture, humiliation and exploitation since the inception of the society. The role of power between the genders have always made them its prey and hence this cruelty is ongoing even it has been acknowledged as criminal. The women have been victim of rape, kidnapping, abduction, dowry torture and deaths, mental and physical torture, molestation, sexual harassment, trafficking, acid attacks, domestic violence, genital mutilation, honor killing etc. The list is lengthy and the problems associated with this violence are never ending.

Rape is a growing problem in today's society and it is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the startling statistics about this crime. This is becoming the fastest growing crime in India. According to latest data of the home ministry, India stands third, leaving behind countries like Sri Lanka, Jordan and Argentina, when it comes to rape cases, (Times of India, 2012). Indian feminist movements have recognised rape as a sort of male oppression and management over girls since the 1970s. However, the Indian legal system prefers to examine it as a difficulty of loss of honor of the raped woman. Rape continues to be a serious issue for Indian women. The latest crime statistics released by the Home Ministry's National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB, 2017) show that every hour 22 women become victims of rape.

Accountability of Police:
Police forces have the authority to exercise force to enforce laws and maintain law and order in a state. However, this power could also be used in many ways in which. As an example, in India, varied types of complaints are created against the police as well as complaints of unwarranted arrests, unlawful searches, torture and custodial
rapes. To check against such abuse of power, varied countries have adopted safeguards, such as responsibilities of the police to the political executive, internal accountability to senior police officers, and independent police oversight authorities.

State police forces had 24% vacancies (about 5.5 lakh vacancies) in January 2016. Hence, while the sanctioned police strength was 181 police per lakh persons in 2016, the actual strength was 137 police and United Nations recommended standard is 222 police per lakh persons. 86% of the state police comprises of constabulary. Constables are typically promoted once during their service and normally retire as head constables. This could weaken their incentive to perform well. Crime per lakh population has increased by 28% over the last decade (2005-2015). However, convictions have been low. In 2015, CAG audits have found shortages in weaponry with state police forces. For example, Rajasthan and West Bengal had shortages of 75% and 71% respectively in need arms with the state police. The Bureau of Police Research and Development has also noted a 30.5% deficiency in a stock of required vehicles (2, 35,339 vehicles) with the state forces. However, funds dedicated for modernisation of infrastructure are typically not utilised fully. For example, in 2015-16, only 14% of such funds were used by the states (BPRD, 2015). These are the current basic problem from which our system require a big reform but still no such action taken for such important issue from government and agencies. It should be corrected within concerned time if system want to understand the factor within crime and to curb it for betterment of people of country and police accountability towards Society.

Rape Survivor Comments on Cops:

- There are different equally distressing cases. A mother and daughter in Kerala whose complaints of stalking were disregarded by the police till the girl was raped, mutilated and murdered.
- The father whose pleas for the investigation into his teenage daughters' disappearance were unnoticed by police just for the girls to be found hanging from trees when being gang-raped.
- For the woman in South Delhi who said the police had refused to require her rape complaint seriously, the politicization of the police means that justice is available only to the well connected. When her rapist threatened her 12-year-old daughter, she turned to her brother to call a high-ranking politician. Belatedly, the police sprang into action. "During that whole time, I lived in fear of my husband being killed or my kids being kidnapped, because I knew the police wouldn't facilitate if that happened," the woman said. "I haven't any faith within the police. If you have got money or connections, you'll get justice. If you don't, forget it."
- Alleging that she was asked to unbutton her garments, the victim had said that the act of the policemen on duty was additionally undignified that the rape. "The policemen by getting opened the buttons of my shirt wanted to inquire whether or not wrong act (rape) had been committed to me or not. I even feel embarrassed to jot down here concerning the humiliating questions of the policemen.

Suggestions for practice:

- Develop a web system where rape reporters can check the status of their cases and look at their police reports (Greenson & Campbell, 2011).
- Basic training on trauma-informed practice ought to be provided to all or any new recruits, in spite of their degree of involvement with rape cases.
- Specialist units (staffed by a minimum of some female officers) ought to be created. These exist inside concerned half all jurisdictions within the UK. Their sole purpose is to investigate sexual assault cases, in order that they are armed with special training and knowledge.
- Develop protocols in collaboration with alternative community agencies, thus victims will access coordinated services.
- Police officers appointed to rape cases ought to be carefully screened and trained since qualities chosen for during the hiring method (suspicion, control, and detachment) might cut back their effectiveness with rape reporters. Before this study there have been no pre-existing scales to measure rape victim interviewing: measures of performance ought to be enforced in a selection of officers for this purpose.

Conclusion:

Through these paper findings in rape cases, the police spend longer seeking reconciliation between the assailant and therefore the victim than investigation the facts. Overall, specialists say, the police are poorly organized to cope with serious crimes, significantly those against women. Of all the issues affecting the police, several women's advocates point to cultural tradition because of the most intractable.

It shows that old police attitudes and practices, widely assumed to have vanished, are still in evidence and still cause victims pain and suffering. Research of the type that has been undertaken here doesn't lend itself to sweeping statements and conclusions however it does recommend, at the terribly least, that more analysis is currently desperately required to find whether or not the treatment of adult rape victims by police in alternative areas of the country is quite as benevolent as is commonly supposed.
Role of Police in Investigation of Rape Cases

Its shows that Indian Police system is in dire need of reform in legal and especially in Police officials. As they still have older values, thought and specific mindset for society and especially for women as they still believe women as commodity and patriarchal believe to deal with women.

References:
Anti-Social Behaviour of Teenagers - A comparative Study of Gender Behaviour

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Abstract:
This study seeks the information towards the scenario on anti-social behavior of teenagers. In 21st century, there are numerous societal problems. These problems lead to the disturbance in the social order and control. Teenagers are societal issue. Above 40 percent of teenagers in our population, represent a large number of youth populations. Delhi has witnessed to the anti-social behavior of teenagers. In Delhi gang rape 16 Dec, 2012, teenagers played major and it was the worst form of anti-social behavior. India is vulnerable to large number of natural and man-made problems. "Anti-social behavior" is one of them. In present era teenagers suffer a lot to this problem. It would be very highly affecting on their physical and mental development. The purpose of this research is to know the nature of the anti-social behaviour and comparative study on gender behaviour. There have been many attempts to characterize the nature of anti-social behavior and gender behavior. This study includes current status of the anti-social behavior and how the concept of comparative study of gender behavior can help in improving the anti-social behavior of teenagers. There has been little research into the nature and development patterns of anti-social behavior in teenagers. This study is based on doctrinal research and also descriptive method. The researcher has utilized the secondary source data from various documents such as Research Papers, Articles and Journals etc.

Keywords: Anti-Social Behaviour, Teenagers, Gender behavior, Comparative Study, Family Response, Social Response & Psychiatric Response.

Introduction:
"A behavior or act which is harmful to society, family, friends and his/herself or property, animal etc., in a developing stage" is called anti-social behavior of teenagers. Unwilling or unable to associate normally with other people or a society is an anti-social behavior but not a crime. All crime is anti-social, but all anti-social acts are not crime. It may be or may not be. Disobedience in behavior is known as anti-social. Anti-social behavior is known as the behavior which breaks societal rules and norms. Anti-social act is not crime but not acceptable by the society. Anti-social behavior is against the social order or customs of the society. Anti-social behavior is hostile towards the society. Researchers found strong relation between aggression and violence in teenage. Social isolation is the biggest reason of anti-social behavior. According to World Health Organization's international study, an anti-social behavior is a kind of disease that is called "Dissocial Personality Disorder".

Anti-social behavior is intentional aggression towards others such as verbal abuse, bullying and hitting. Anti-social behavior leads in childhood may include lying, secretly destroying property, theft and also include drug and alcohol abuse and high-risk acts to self and others. These disruptive behaviors are one of the most common forms of psychological disorder and is related to mental health. Teenager boys are more engaged in overtly aggressive behavior than girls. Boys show their aggression verbal and physical, whereas girls show their aggression indirectly and secretly. A gender difference in anti-social behavior is due to differing rate of maturity between girls and boys. Physical aggression is expressed at different stage of maturity like verbal threat, lust, and indirect strategies to break societal norms. Lack of attention by parents is leading to anti-social behavior.

Social response towards Anti-Social behavior:

What is a society? Society is group of people and company of other people or other kind of grouping of human being and all are bound with customs, norms and rules in a group. Society is main factor at development stage of human being. In earlier period our society was different from that of today's society. In earlier period society was based on four varnas. This was structured from higher to lower groups. Namely Brahmana, Kshatriya, Vaisya and Shudra. But in present era, society is based on economic conditions. Economic discrimination leads to anti-social behavior in society. Anti-social behavior affects the society directly. Social behavior or anti-social behavior is followed by social actions. Social behavior based on social relations and interactions between different

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people of society. At that time, when society isolation occurs, most of the teenagers become indulge in anti-social activities of society. Cultural and social norms encourage anti-social activities. Rules, cultural norms and expectations of society lead violence. Societal rules and cultural norms encourage anti-social behavior of teenagers. Economical discrimination determines anti-social behavior. Society teaches us “always depressed emotions not to be regulated.” That's why at the development stage of human being, some are very much aggressive and some are very much shy due to depressed emotions.

Now Society make anti-social teenagers who has indulged in anti-social activities because of society’s rule, norms, customs, economic-discrimination and society isolation. Our question is based on social response toward anti-social behavior. Present society deals anti-social behavior teenagers as criminals or mentally ill persons. Society never wants to know about the reasons behind anti-social behavior of teenagers. Why they become anti-social? Society needs to encourage teenagers to regulate emotions from their depressed conditions.

**Family response towards Anti-Social behavior:**

What is a family? Family is a group of blood relation, and in this group, people bound with blood bonding, emotions, love, care, affection and not least but last the responsibilities. Every person is responsible towards each other. That's why family is most important for development stage of human being. But family pressure, norms and many expectations of parents spoil the childhood. But in present era, main problem face by the teenagers is lack of care, time spend by parents. It leads anti-social behavior of teenagers. Parenting is one best therapy to reform and rehabilitate the anti-social behavior of teenagers. Many teenagers experiment with drugs, alcohol, tobacco and stealing. Factors that contribute to a particular teenager's anti-social behavior, usually because of some form of family problems like-divorce, harsh behavior of parents, disciplinary practices, physical disability or health problem. Children with anti-social behavior have an increased risk of school failure, early alcohol, suicide and criminal behavior.

**Psychiatric response towards Anti-Social behavior:**

Psychiatric specialist deals anti-social behavior as mental disorder. Teenagers may lie, steal, or engage in violent behavior, and be diagnosed with conduct disorder. Mental health professional agree that rising rates of serious school disciplinary problems, delinquency, and violent crime indicate that anti-social behavior. 30-70 % of teenager psychiatric patient are exhibiting disruptive behavior disorder, and diagnoses of behavior disorders increasing overall with them. A small percentage of anti-social teenagers grow up to become adults with anti-social personality disorder, and a biggest problem is that they suffer from the social, academic, and family failures resulting from their anti-social behavior. Attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder is highly correlated with anti-social behavior. Most of teenagers become under stress after the death of a parent or a divorce. With some of the teenagers the stress survives for long time and with other some of the teenagers the stress survives for short term. According to personality test anti-social behavior is scoring impulsiveness, but low of anxiety and reward dependence. Anti-social behavior teenagers have low self-esteem. Social learning theory of Prof. Sutherland suggests that negative behaviors are reinforced during childhood by parents, caregiver, or peers.

**Comparative study of gender Anti-Social behavior:**

Question of gender difference cannot be refused at any cost. Anti-social behavior is more common in male compare to females. Anti-social behavior is rare in women, with a ratio of 10 men to 1 woman as per the study of cohort (2003). The influence of friends and poor peer relations plays a crucial but different role in the development of anti-social behavior among boys and girls. While boys commit more antisocial crimes than girls, the rate of girls charged with violent crimes has increased twice as fast as boys in recent years. Girls are more likely to be incarcerated for minor offenses. The aggressive behavior of females is covert, while aggressive behavior of males is overt. Boys are four times more likely to appear in Juvenile Court than girls. While both boys and girls engage in aggression, girls tend to use more indirect, social and verbal forms of aggression. Examples of this include: social exclusion, collusion, gossiping, rumor spreading, and character defamation, name calling, ostracism, threatening to end valuable friendships, threatening to disclose personal information and mean-spirited teasing. And boys tend to use direct form of aggression such as: fighting, bullying, and rule breaking behavior and running away from home. This relationship aggression consists of efforts to harm others through manipulation or control of relationships with others. Such forms of aggression are more common in same sex peer groups such as: abuse, bullying, character defamation and disclose personal information. When behavioral problems emerge they are initially similar for both boys and girls.

**Conclusion:**

The structure of anti-social behavior of teenager appears to increase due to ignorance of parents, family, and society. And hard punishment leads anti-social behavior among teenagers. Although, hard punishment is used by many parents to reduce anti-social behavior. but non-physical punishment is more effective at reducing anti-social behavior. Girls are 50% more likely to suffer from depression than boys. Anti-Social behavior is a diverse concept which surrounded by physical and mental aggression. So, gender differences were confirmed in some dimensions. Such forms of aggression are more common in same sex peer groups such as: abuse, bullying,
character defamation and disclose personal information etc. So behavioral problems emerge and they are initially similar for both boys and girls. Comparative study of gender behavior among teenagers provides different tools and tactics regarding coping with anti-social behavior, such as- Counseling, good parenting, school activities and positive environment of society and positive peer group and all are playing constructive role in their life. Parents should aware regarding the problems of their child in teenage and address the cause of the problem. Found the seriousness of the anti-social behavior, later delinquent behavior became.

References:

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The Corporate Sector in Delhi-NCR - An Enquiry into the World View of Young Corporate Professionals

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Abstract:
Giddens (1991) argues that people retain a capacity to resist oppressive aspects of their lives and to use knowledge and skills in a socially responsible way. Sennett (1998) offers a sharp reminder of the negative potentialities of neo-liberal economics and the corrosive effects of individualism in capitalist societies, where wealth creation and projection of a certain kind of lifestyle (linked to consumption practices) becomes the ultimate value. But Webb (2004) argues that his pessimism is over-stated, resulting in a world view which offers little scope for resistance. In terms of theory, I argue that a mix of both the contrasting approaches which links changing nature of work and construction of self-identity can be used to understand the worldview of the young corporate professionals who constitute the new middle class.

Introduction:
The upper rungs of the 'new middle class' (Fernandes, 2006) are seen as one of the main beneficiaries of India's economic liberalisation. They have always received a lot of public attention (Meier & Lange, 2009), have a numerically small but hegemonic presence in the media and the civil society. They are often blamed for ignoring larger social issues, to engage in consumerist display of commodities and fads (Gupta, 2000) and are held responsible for a growing social, environmental and economic insensitivity (Brosius, 2010).

Within the ambit of the new middle classes, I would like to look at the corporate sector and its employees because it is the tertiary or service sector in India which invite foreign investments and contributes to growth of GDP. Within that the corporate 'work-culture' is often looked up to as efficient, ambitious and target-oriented; less bureaucratic; thereby emulated even in smaller workplaces, including government sector such as banking and insurance. This paper focusses on their worldview around India's present and future, their role in it and how work shapes their identity.

Literature Review:
The Corporate Sector and the Changing Notion of Work:

Here I would like to set a context so as to give a feel of the kind of broader work-culture that my respondents are part of. According to Giddens (2000), transnational corporations are an integral part of globalisation where companies produce goods or market services in more than one country. A person sitting in India can create a product or design a service for a company in the U.S through fast evolving information technology (Upadhyay and Vasavi, 2006). This has different kinds of consequences such as changes in the idea of 'work-time' as one has to make oneself available as per the timing of the country he/she works for. It also leads to home-based work which is possible due to advanced technology which can be accessed from anywhere.

It is argued that the idea of a 'job for life' has been replaced with the idea of a 'portfolio worker' - one who has a number of skills which he can use to offer his services to a number of organisations across space. There is less importance given to job-loyalty. The young workforce employed in the corporate sector are characterised by frequent job switches, each one better than the previous one in terms of pay-package, designation or both. However, scholars have argued that such lack of consistency is often exaggerated.

Theoretical Framework: Work and Identity:

Webb (2004) has argued that there is a relationship between self-identity and organisational change in advanced capitalist societies, which he elaborated on by doing a comparison between the approaches of Anthony Giddens’ (1991) concept of 'reflexive self' and Richard Sennett's (1998) concept of 'corroded self'. Giddens has an optimistic view of the idea of self and identity in capitalist society and argues that contemporary corporate organisations offer choices around self-identity. On the other hand, Sennett argues that new economic forms are corrosive of character and social relations because of lack of permanence, mutual dependence and 'short-termism' which means that the market is universally characterized by casualization, contract work and multiple job moves.

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In terms of theory, I argue that a mix of both the contrasting approaches which links changing nature of work and construction of self-identity can be used to understand the worldview of these young professionals and through this, arrive at some understanding of the direction in which they think and act individually and socially.

Objective of the Paper:

In this paper, I am looking at questions which define their ‘worldview’ - their views on neoliberalism; ideas around economic ‘growth’ and ‘development; their views on economic and social inequalities and issues surrounding environment consciousness. The concept which seems to underline these realities in urban metropolitan city like Delhi is ‘consumption’ which is a running theme in the paper.

Methodology:

This is qualitative exploratory study in which I chose to do semi-structured interviews and open ended narrative interviews to get detailed subjective understanding of different aspects of the lives of corporate professionals working in senior executive, managerial or senior managerial positions; men and women; 25-40 years old, living and working in Delhi-NCR; mostly migrants.

Sector is not confined, I have met people in different occupations within the ambit of the ‘tertiary or service sector’ such as telecom, IT, corporate law, brand managers, e-commerce, sales/finance/marketing profiles, public relations and software related start-up. Fieldwork was conducted in multiple sites such as residence, office, restaurants, coffee shops based on the availability of the respondents which has been an ongoing challenge considering their work-profiles.

Analysis and Findings of the Paper:

The reason for choosing Delhi-NCR in my case is that it has one of the highest per capita income in India, INR 70,000 per year (as opposed to INR 30,000 per year for other cities on an average). It is Asian cities such as Delhi which participate in the race for national and international investment and foreign recognition. The respondents I met were mostly migrants, either from small towns or other metropolitan cities who had come to Delhi either to seek professional education or a job and have now spent a couple of years in the city..

Post economic liberalisation, there has a shift in the mind-set of young people as they want to abstain from government jobs which were commonly linked to corruption, redtapism and inefficiency (Ganguly-Scrase, 2009). Today, the relationship that such professionals share with the state might have undergone shift as further opening of different sectors of the economy to foreign direct investments are political decisions which are backed by the national and international private business conglomerates and professionally qualified people who seek employment in them. The current government is an example of such a shift wherein there is a lot of emphasis being placed on ‘development’, converting Delhi into a ‘world-class’ city and increasing nation’s wealth reflected by the growth-rate all of which have implications not only on the relations between haves and have-nots but also on the environment.

My respondents mostly look at neoliberal capitalism as the only economic path that India can pursue at this juncture. To them, it means the point in time when India abolished the stringent license raj which was as exclusionary in principle, as uncontrolled capitalism is, in the sense that which does not heed the industrial workers or the agricultural farmers in debt. However, it has helped India foster some healthy market competition and has made her more reliant. It has given some of the country’s bright young minds an avenue to take risks and follow their minds. Pure capitalism has welfare inbuilt into it. But if there is petty divisive politics, corruption and lack of infrastructural growth, then capitalism cannot be made to work.

Q: Do you think a country like India with such a huge poor and lower middle class segment can gain from pure capitalism?

A: ‘We are not a socialist country anymore. The state does need to take care of some basic things like education, health, agriculture to an extent if not fully…but educated, ambitious minds should not be expected to take up government jobs if they have such meagre pay…it is true that those with competitive zeal and hunger to be known for good work prefer the private corporate sector and only those who want a secured job and work-life balance opt for government jobs..(Male, 29 years, Gurgaon based MNC)

As Lange & Meier (2009) argued, the developing countries are caught in a difficult problem of balancing economic growth with environmental and resource related problems, the same is reflected in the views of these people. Since development/ growth is the only way to reduce poverty and other social problems, it cannot be avoided. However, it is again growth which is driven by consumption which results in increased environmental and resource crunch related problems. Some are not willing to critique the growth and development strategy at present despite being aware of the ecological consequences and the more visible class-divide in the city.

They argued that it is consumption which is going to fuel growth which is indispensable for India’s present and future. As Brosius (2009) has noted, India’s new middle class is enthusiastic about ‘India shinning’, growth and GDP and a few booming sectors such as IT, technology and real estate. While capitalism in the 1990s was not entirely equated with patriotism, later it was successfully revamped as ‘nationalism’ linked to economic growth fuelled by consumption.
The questions around consumption are related to the questions on the environment and economic inequalities. Largely, the environmental resources was the last concern for these people. To some extent, it was seen that questions around consumption get linked with existing infrastructure such as public transportation. A person working in an e-commerce site in a senior position said, 'In New York everybody takes the tube, here either we do not have those facilities or they are sub-standard so the upper middle classes do not want to use it here…why would I want to drive if I had an option of good public transport as it would not just be hassle free but also save resources and the negative impact of fumes on the environment'

They identify with the potential of India as an emerging power on the path of neoliberal capitalism and globalisation and their concerns would in most cases be more towards creating a 'world-class city' with growth in foreign investment and infrastructure. The working class, the poor are the problems of the country which only economic growth can handle with some responsibilities of the government. A respondent in senior sales manager position in the FMCG sector said, 'China, the west and others took care of problems of poverty through unbridled capitalism, not socialism or communism…it is lack of discipline and corruption which are the main hurdles…and if you talk of pollution, the leather and chemical factories cause it much more than we do…can we do without manufacture today? How will people get jobs and how will consumers use products? What the state should do is give us good transport facilities…we can’t stop using vehicles but we can make some difference…and nothing is possible till the population growth becomes stable'.

**Conclusion:**

Neoliberal capitalism, a typical corporate working environment and its role in determining worldview can be understood by using both the contrasting approaches of self which links nature of work and construction of self-identity a combination of both 'reflexive' and 'corrosive' can be used to understand it. Unbridled consumption, display of wealth and status, closing one's eyes to problems of inequality and ecological unsustainability, unhealthy competition, social distancing from other people came up in my interviews as important elements in the lives of corporates. However, introspection, being able to detach from work and corporate socialisation in one's personal life, the acknowledgement of the problems of fast-paced growth & issues of environmental degradation, holding on to values of family togetherness, loyalty and simplicity, restrained consumption have also been heard of and discussed. So it is not useful to look at their lives in terms of this duality.

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Higher Education in India-Issues, Challenges and Solutions

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Abstract: The present system of higher education does not serve the purpose for which it has been started. In general education itself has become so profitable a business that quality is lost in the increase of quantity of professional institutions with quota system and politicization adding fuel to the fire of spoil system, thereby increasing unemployment of graduates without quick relief to mitigate their sufferings in the job market of the country. After independence, there has been tremendous increase in institutions of higher learning in all disciplines. But with the quantitative growth has it been able to attend to the core issue of quality. India is today one of the fastest developing countries of the world with the annual growth rate going above 9%. In order to sustain that rate of growth, there is need to increase the number of institutes and also the quality of higher education in India.

Keywords: Higher Education, India & Challenges.

Introduction: India's higher education system is the world's third largest in terms of students, next to China and the United States. Unlike China, however, India has the advantage of English being the primary language of higher education and research. India educates approximately 11 per cent of its youth in higher education as compared to 20 per cent in China. The main governing body at the tertiary level is the University Grants Commission (India), enforces its standards, advises the government, and helps coordinate between the centre and the state. Universities and its constituent colleges are the main institutes of higher education in India. At present in 2011, there are 227 government-recognized Universities in India. Out of them 20 are central universities, 109 are deemed universities and 11 are Open Universities and rest are state universities. Most of these universities in India have affiliating colleges where undergraduate courses are being taught. However Jawaharlal University is a remarkable exception to this rule. According to the Department of higher Education government of India, 16,885 colleges, including 1800 exclusive women's colleges functioning under these universities and institutions and there are 4.57 lakh teachers and 99.54 lakh students in various higher education institutes in India. Apart from these higher education institutes there are several private institutes in India that offer various professional courses in India. Distance learning is also a feature of the Indian higher education system.

Some institutions of India, such as the Indian Institutes of technology (IITs), have been globally acclaimed for their standard of education. The IITs enroll about 8000 students annually and the alumni have contributed to both the growth of the private sector and the public sectors of India. However, India has failed to produce world class universities like Harvard and Cambridge. According to the London Times Higher Education (2009)-Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) World University rankings, no Indian university features among the first 100. But universities in East Asia have been included in the first hundred. Hong Kong has three, ranked at 24, 35 and 46; Singapore two ranked at 30 and 73; South Korea two ranked at 47 and 69 and Taiwan one in the 95th position. Notably, China's Tsinghua University and Peking University are ranked at 49 and 52 respectively. There is no Indian university in the rankings from 100 to 200. It is only when one moves on to the next 100 that we find the Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur at 237; IIT Madras at 284 and the University of Delhi at 291.

A recent evaluation of universities and research institutes all over the world, conducted by a Shanghai university, has not a single Indian university in the world's top 300 while China has six. The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, comes in somewhere in the top 400 and IIT, Kharagpur, makes an appearance after that. Yet this decisive edge also has its shortcomings. Besides top rated universities which provide highly competitive world class education to their pupil, India is also home to many universities which have been founded with the sole objective of making easy money. UGC and other Regulatory authorities have been trying very hard to extirpate the menace of private universities which are running courses without any affiliation or recognition. Students from rural and semi urban background often fall prey to these institutes and colleges. Today, Knowledge is power. The more knowledge one has, the more empowered one is. According to the University Grants Commission (UGC), India

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needs 1500 more universities with adequate research facilities by the end of the year 2015 in order to compete in the global market.

The country lacks the critical mass in higher education. Its gross enrolment ratio (GER) is a mere 11 per cent compared to China's 20 per cent, the USA's 83 per cent and South Korea's 91 per cent. This means that in comparison to India, China has double the number of students pursuing higher education. The Eleventh Five Year Plan envisages increase in the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in higher education to 15 per cent of the population in the age cohort group of 18-24 years by 2011-12. This requires a substantial increase in the number of institutions and consequently would require an adequate number of teachers for imparting education. Failure to redress the faculty shortage would hamper the achievement of the targets for increase in GER set out by Government.

President Pratibha Patil said that India aspires to increase enrolment in higher education. She added that the country intends to raise gross enrolment ratio in higher education to 30 percent by the year 2020, which means almost tripling the enrolment from the present 14 million to about 40 million. As per sources, the President has made the announcement at the sixth convocation of the Mizoram University, held on September 24, 2010. Patil also said that higher education has been accorded priority in our country. Further, she added that universities of the country, existing and the new ones, will be responsible for achieving this target.

The government after pursuing neo-liberal policies for the last 17 odd years is keen to open the higher education sector to the private providers, either through public-private participation or foreign direct investment in higher education. The society is divided. While one section is opposed to commodification of education, the other section thinks that involving the private sector is the only way out. How would the higher education sector evolve in response to these challenges is a crucial issue for us to understand and anticipate. How is the sector contemplating changes to engage with the world? If India is to be a global economic powerhouse it is essential to nurture this higher education.

Critical Issues of Higher Education: As India strives to compete in a globalised economy in areas that require highly trained professionals, the quality of higher education becomes increasingly important. So far, India's large, educated population base and its reservoir of at least moderately well-trained university graduates have aided the country in moving ahead, but the competition is fierce; from China in particular. Other countries are also upgrading higher education with the aim of building world class universities. Even the small top tier of higher education faces serious problems. Many IIT graduates, well trained in technology, have chosen not to contribute their skills to the burgeoning technology sector in India; perhaps half leave the country immediately upon graduation to pursue advanced studies abroad, and most do not return. A stunning 86 per cent of Indian students in the fields of science and technology who obtain degrees in the United States do not return home immediately following their graduation. A body of dedicated and able teachers work at the IITs and IIMs, but the lure of jobs abroad and in the private sector makes it increasingly difficult to lure the best and brightest to the academic profession.

The present system of higher education does not serve the purpose for which it has been started. In general education itself has become so profitable a business that quality is lost in the increase of quantity of professional institutions with quota system and politicization adding fuel to the fire of spoil system, thereby increasing unemployment of graduates without quick relief to mitigate their sufferings in the job market of the country. Most observers agree that Indian higher education, the significant and impressive developments of the past few decades notwithstanding, faces major challenges in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Perhaps the clearest and boldest statement of this issue can be found in the "Report to the Nation 2006" of the National Knowledge Commission which concludes that there is 'a quiet crisis in higher education in India that runs deep', and that it has to do with both the quantity and the quality of higher education in India. Recognizing this dual challenge, the Indian Prime Minister, Manmohan Singh, severely criticized in a recent speech the serious qualitative deficiencies in Indian higher education while at the same time announcing plans for a major expansion of the system. Reflecting on the findings of a confidential report by the National Assessment and Accreditation Council, which is affiliated to the University Grants Commission (UGC), he expressed his concern over the fact that two thirds (68%) of the country's universities and 90 percent of its colleges are "of middling or poor quality" and that well over half of the faculty in India's colleges do not have the appropriate degree qualifications. Knowledge is the base for overall growth and if the nation has to be competitive and to be at par with the globalization pace, we will have to respond to the market forces.

According to a study only 25% of engineering graduates are directly employable (Infosys, an IT giant, last year sorted through 1.3 million applicants only to find that around two percent were qualified for jobs.) Quality of education delivered in most institutions is very poor. While India has some institutions of global repute delivering quality education, such as (Indian Institute of Management) IIMs and (Indian Institute of Technology) IITs, we do not have enough of them. It has very narrow range of course options that are offered and education is a seller's market, where is no scope of incentive to provide quality education. There is clearly a lack of educated educators and teaching is not an attractive profession. It's a last choice in terms of career. Number of Ph.D.s produced each year is very low and those required by academia is far higher. In fact, at many institutions fresh
graduates are employed to teach, leading to poor quality of classroom instruction. Most of the education institutions esp. in states such as Maharashtra and states in South India are owned by politicians. This Education system which is highly regulated by the government has been set up to benefit politicians.

**Challenges of Present Higher Education:** Since we have got independence we are facing challenges to establish a great and strong education system. Various governments came and gone. Off course they tried to establish new education policies in the system but this is very sad to dictate that they were not sufficient for our country. Still we are facing lot of problems and challenges in our Education System. India recognises that the new global scenario poses unprecedented challenges for the higher education system. The University Grants Commission has appropriately stated that a whole range of skills will be demanded from the graduates of humanities, social sciences, natural sciences and commerce, as well as from the various professional disciplines such as agriculture, law, management, medicine or engineering.

India can no longer continue the model of general education as it has been persisting in for the large bulk of the student population. Rather, it requires a major investment to make human resource productive by coupling the older general disciplines of humanities, social sciences, natural sciences and commerce to their applications in the new economy and having adequate field based experience to enhance knowledge with skills and develop appropriate attitudes.

Responding to these emerging needs, the UGC stated: “The University has a crucial role to play in promoting social change. It must make an impact on the community if it is to retain its legitimacy and gain public support”. It seeks to do so by a new emphasis on community based programmes and work on social issues. Concepts of access, equity, relevance and quality can be operationalised only if the system is both effective and efficient. Hence, the management of higher education and the total networking of the system has become an important issue for effective management. The shift can occur only through a systemic approach to change as also the development of its human resource, and networking the system through information and communication technology.

There are many basic problems facing higher education in India today. These include inadequate infrastructure and facilities, large vacancies in faculty positions and poor faculty thereof, low student enrolment rate, outmoded teaching methods, declining research standards, unmotivated students, overcrowded classrooms and widespread geographic, income, gender, and ethnic imbalances. Apart from concerns relating to deteriorating

**Suggestions:** There are some suggestions and Expectations from Government, Industry, Educational Institutions, Parents and Students for improving quality of higher education-

1. **Industry and Academia Connection-** Industry and Academia connect necessary to ensure curriculum and skills in line with requirements. Skill building is really very crucial to ensure employability of academia to understand and make sure good jobs (keeping in view knowledge + skills+ global professional skills = good jobs).

2. **Incentives to Teachers and Researchers-** Industry and students are expecting specialized courses to be offered so that they get the latest and best in education and they are also industry ready and employable. Vocational and Diploma courses need to be made more attractive to facilitate specialized programs being offered to students. Incentives should be provided to teachers and researchers to make these professions more attractive for the younger generation.

3. **To mobilize resources-** The decline in public funding in the last two plan periods has resulted in serious effects on standards due to increasing costs on non-salary items and emoluments of staff, on the one hand, and declining resources, on the other. Effective measures will have to be adopted to mobilize resources for higher education. There is also a need to relate the fee structure to the student's capacity to pay for the cost. So that, students at lower economic levels can be given highly subsidised and fully subsidised education.

4. **Coming of Information Age-** The world is entering into an Information Age and developments in communication, information and technology will open up new and cost-effective approaches for providing the reach of higher education to the youth as well as to those who need continuing education for meeting the demands of explosion of information, fast-changing nature of occupations, and lifelong education. Knowledge, which is at the heart of higher education, is a crucial resource in the development of political democracy, the struggle for social justice and progress towards individual enlightenment.

**Conclusion :** To attain and sustain national, regional or international quality, certain components are particularly relevant, notably careful selection of staff and continuous staff development, in particular through the promotion of appropriate programs for academic development, including teaching/learning methodology and mobility between countries, between higher education institutions and the world of work, as well as student mobility within and between countries. Internal self-evaluation and external review must be conducted openly by independent specialists, if possible with international experts. Report of the National Knowledge Commission if implemented can help boost education sector in India. We are moving towards an era which would be defined by the parameters
of knowledge and wisdom. India in order to become a developed nation by 2020 and knowledge power by 2015. The decisions that are going to be taken on these are likely to hold the key to India's future as a center of knowledge production. We need higher educated people who are skilled and who can drive our economy forward. When India can provide skilled people to the outside world then we can transfer our country from a developing nation to a developed nation very easily and quickly.

References:

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Causes of Child Labour in India

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Abstract: In India, the problem of child labour is well recognized. Children are engaged in various types of work including those that are classified as 'hazardous'. Although there are inter-state and inter-regional variations in India, the factors that generate child labour in general, and hazardous child labour in particular, are basically similar and revolve around poverty, lack of access to quality education, demographic pressure, social exclusion etc. Child labour is a serious evil for the developing countries like India. The majority of child labourers in India work in industries such as cracker manufacturing, diamond polishing, carpet weaving, brassware industry, glass and bangle making, and mica cutting. The employers hire child labor by paying less pay in sub-human conditions with long working hours. Government of India has taken major initiatives to eradicate the child labour by passing special legislations and punishing the offenders. Not only government authorities, but also other social rehabilitated centers are playing an important role in rescuing the child labour at the central and state level. Providing education to all the children is a long-term answer to this social menace. The problem of child labour continues to pose a challenge before the nation. Government has been taking various pro-active measures to tackle this problem. However, considering the magnitude and extent of the problem and that it is essentially a socio-economic problem inextricably linked to poverty and illiteracy, it requires concerted efforts from all sections of the society to make a dent in the problem. This paper is an attempt in analytical look at the official sources of information on the scale of child labour in India.

Keywords: Child labour, Bonded Child Labour & India.

Introduction: Child labour refers to the employment of children in any work that deprives children of their childhood, interferes with their ability to attend regular school, and that is mentally, physically, socially or morally dangerous and harmful. This practice is considered exploitative by many international. Legislations across the world prohibit child labour. These laws do not consider all work by children as child labour; exceptions include work by child artists, supervised training, certain categories of work such as those by Amish children, some forms of child work common among indigenous American children, and others. Child labour in India is addressed by the Child Labour Act 1986 and National Child Labour project. Today in India, there are more than after 10.12 million children who are spending their childhood learning carpet-weaving, beedi-rolling, domestic labour, agriculture, firework and apparel manufacture and countless other occupations instead of going to school and receiving quality education. Child labor is work that harms children or keeps them from attending school. Around the world and in the U. S., growing gaps between rich and poor in recent decades have forced millions of young children out of school and into work. The International Labor Organization estimates that 215 million children between the ages of 5 and 17 currently work under conditions that are considered illegal, hazardous, or extremely exploitative. Underage children work at all sorts of jobs around the world, usually because they and their families are extremely poor. Large numbers of children work in commercial agriculture, fishing, manufacturing, mining, and domestic service. Some children work in illicit activities like the drug trade and prostitution or other traumatic activities such as serving as soldiers.

The problem of child labour is a universal phenomenon. Because it is inextricably associated with socio economic plight of the people. Children in every society have assisted in the activities, characteristics of their social group. Developed nations have got some control over many social problems, since in developed countries poverty and population explosion is under control. Further, Economic development is of very high standard in those countries. Still, one can observe considerable amount of child labours even in the developed nations of the world. But, the developing and underdeveloped nations are facing it very seriously. Because, in these countries usually poverty and population explosion are beyond control. The child labour is a measuring parameter for the economy of a country and a black spot on the face value of the so-called modern and civilized society.

The latest International Labour Organisation (ILO) report on the magnitude of child labour has revealed that around 250 million of children are engaged in one or other kind of works of whom 120 million are working full time workers and 130 million are part time workers. The report says, Asia accounts for 153 million working children, Africa about 80 million and Latin America 17.5 million working children. According to the recent ILO survey, in selected countries like India, Ghana, Indonesia and Senegal 15 per cent children are workers in the total workforce.

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of those countries (ILO, 2001). The percentages are as much as 40 per cent in Senegal if seasonal labours are taken into account. In Ghana more than 75 per cent of working children are between 10-14 years of age group are girl children only. It is estimated that there are around 250 million child labours in the age group of 5-14 years in the world, apart from those who work with their families mainly in traditional activities.

Magnitude of Child Labour in India: India has all along followed a proactive policy in addressing the problem of child labour and has always stood for constitutional, statutory and developmental measures that are required to eliminate child labour. The Constitution of India has relevant provisions to secure compulsory universal primary education. Labour Commissions and Committees have gone into the problems of child labour and made extensive recommendations. India's judiciary, right up to the apex level, has demonstrated profoundly empathetic responses against the practice of child labour. Despite several proactive legislations, policies and judicial pronouncements, the problem of child labour persists as a challenge to the country.

The magnitude of child labour in India has been witnessing enormous decline in the last two decades, both in terms of magnitude and workforce participation rates. Evidence drawn from the National Sample Survey data suggest that India's child workforce during 2004-05 was estimated at little over nine million (9.07 million) as against twenty-one and half million (21.55 million) in 1983. During this period, the number of child employment has declined sharply by 12.48 million. There is considerable fall in child workforce is observed among boys than girls. The corresponding fall in boys and girls workforce during 1983 to 2004-05 is observed to have decreased from 12.06 to 4.76 million, and 9.49 to 4.31 million, respectively. In effect, the gender difference that existed between boys and girls (adverse against boys) during the early 1980s has almost dissipated in recent years, the difference being slowed down from 2.57 million to roughly 0.45 million. However, in absolute numbers, the problem is large. As per the Census 2001, there are 1.26 crores economically active children in the age-group of 5-14 years. It was 1.13 crores in the 1991 Census. As per NSSO survey 2009-10, the working children are estimated at 49.84 lakh which shows a declining trend. As per the Global Report on Child Labour published by International Labour Organization, last year, the activity rate of children in the age group of 5-14 years is 5.1 per cent in Latin America and Caribbean Region, which is the lowest in the world. In the Asia-Pacific Region, it is 18.8 per cent. In comparison to that, the activity rate of children in India, as per 2001 census is 5 per cent.

Causes for Child Labour:

Primary causes: International Labour Organisation (ILO) suggests poverty is the greatest single cause behind child labour. For impoverished households, income from a child's work is usually crucial for his or her own survival or for that of the household. Income from working children, even if small, may be between 25 to 40% of the household income. Other scholars such as Harsch on African child labour, and Edmonds and Pavcnik on global child labour have reached the same conclusion. Lack of meaningful alternatives, such as affordable schools and quality education, according to ILO, is another major factor driving children to harmful labour. Children work because they have nothing better to do. Many communities, particularly rural areas where between 60-70% of child labour is prevalent, do not possess adequate school facilities. Even when schools are sometimes available, they are too far away, difficult to reach, unaffordable or the quality of education is so poor that parents wonder if going to school is really worth it.

Cultural causes: In European history when child labour was common, as well as in contemporary child labour of modern world, certain cultural beliefs have rationalized child labour and thereby encouraged it. Some view that work is good for the character-building and skill development of children. In many cultures, particular where informal economy and small household businesses thrive, the cultural tradition is that children follow in their parents' footsteps; child labour then is a means to learn and practice that trade from a very early age. Similarly, in many cultures the education of girls is less valued or girls are simply not expected to need formal schooling, and these girls pushed into child labour such as providing domestic services. Child labour in Brazil, leaving after collecting recyclables from a landfill. Agriculture deploys 70% of the world's child labour.

Macroeconomic causes: Biggeri and Mehrotra have studied the macroeconomic factors that encourage child labour. They focus their study on five Asian nations including India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Thailand and Philippines. They suggest that child labour is a serious problem in all five, but it is not a new problem. Macroeconomic causes encouraged widespread child labour across the world, over most of human history. They suggest that the causes for child labour include both the demand and the supply side. While poverty and unavailability of good schools explain the child labour supply side, they suggest that the growth of low paying informal economy rather than higher paying formal economy is amongst the causes of the demand side. Other scholars too suggest that inflexible labour market, size of informal economy, inability of industries to scale up and lack of modern manufacturing technologies are major macroeconomic factors affecting demand and acceptability of child labour.

Legislation for Child Labour in India: The first protective legislation for child labour in India was seen in 1881 in the form if Indian factories Act which had the provisions prohibiting employment of children below 7 years, limiting the working hours for children to 9 hours a day and providing 4 holidays in a month and rest hours. This was actually made by the ruling British Government to decrease the production in Indian industries through some legal
restrictions. It may be submitted that the labour legislations in India including protective legislation for children have been greatly influenced with the result of various Conventions and Recommendations adopted by International Labour Organisation. Besides Constitutional provisions, there are several legislative enactments which provide legal protection to children in various occupations.

- The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933
- The Employment of Children Act, 1938
- The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 and rules made thereunder by the government
- The Factories Act, 1948
- The Plantations Labour Act, 1951
- The Mines Act, 1952
- The Merchant Shipping Act, 1958
- The Motor Transport Workers’ Act, 1961
- The Apprentices Act, 1961
- The Atomic Energy Act, 1962
- The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act, 1966
- The Shops and Establishment Act in various States, and
- Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986.

**Conclusion:** The problem of child labour appears in severe form and various factors are involved. The reasons for the incidence of child labour in India are complex and deeply rooted into the society. Child labour has been a complex rural problem, as well with children helping out in the farm with their families. It has been one of the biggest obstacles to social development. It is a challenge and long-term goal in many countries to abolish all forms of child labour. Especially in developing countries, it is considered as a serious issue these days. It refers to children who miss their childhood and are not able to have the basic amenities which a child should have. The India government has established various proactive policies towards elimination of child labour. India has a number of child labour projects which have been implemented to help children from hazardous occupations and provide them an education. Each and every citizen should be aware of their responsibilities and should take corrective measures to stop child labour, so that we can have a better and developed India. Child labour can be controlled if the government functions effectively with the support of the public. Not only because the laws themselves have drawbacks, but also because of the human factors, and usually an international organizations and NGOs cannot fix the problem on their own, what they need is to intensify the cooperation with the governments who has the right of making laws. In a word, the key of the reduction of child labour is to emancipate children.

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Religious Myth and its Interpretation : Conflict of Supremacy
Anurag Kumar Pandey*

Abstract : Myths are the creation of uncreated, which is based on society's belief and faith system. The stability, dynamics and continuity all are extend or intend by society's perception and morality. If we cordially intervene myth with the special reference of Hindu mythology and its creation, negation and interpretation to make a group superior or inferior. The inferior group, which have no power, no status, and no concept of ritualism and with so on nothingness is a deprived group. Besides this, the superior group create and interpret religious myth to make their own domination on others. For this they make some stories, telling, rituals, symbols, taboos etc.

In this paper, I would try to find out some point, which pursuits the intellectual conflicts between so called the inferior and superior groups and it creates by religious myth in Hindu Mythology. The nature of this paper is hermeneutical and also analytical.

Key Words: Myth, Religion, Hinduism, Interpretation & Supremacy

Relevancy of Research Article : The world of myths and the myths of the world have been active since a long time. In our Hindu society, myth has always been a means of guidance and control in the form of various legends, fantasies, rituals etc. At that time society was driven by religion, belief and tradition, but now society is powered by science, technology and information, and this time is of a different nature than the past. At present, the changes in the fields of technology, knowledge, information etc. have changed all the areas more or less. Expression of these changes is directly reflected on social life. In contemporary context the myths are being summarized as a means of dominance. In addition to the traditional interpretation of the myths, his interpretation has begun in a new way, and this reinterpretation of myths has given birth to a new ideological struggle of supremacy. This ideological conflict has spread from caste panic to religious panels. Therefore, it seems fair to know the meaning of the general public against interpretation of the myths and the reinterpretation in contemporary scenario.

First of all, we must have to understand the concept of myth and how it works. According to ancient Greek philosophers, what we known as myth is mythos and it is distinguished from logos. Logos interpret the reasonable and rational things, in other hand mythos gave us stories with emotions. Logos enlightens the factual truth with the help of science and mathematics. It tells us how sun rises? How sunset been? How we born? How we dies? But in other hand mythos explained that why does sun rises? Why does it sets? Why are we born and why dies? Why are we exist on earth and what are our responsibilities for own society or community? What are our moral values? What is wrong and what is right? Mythos interpret these all things, which makes our personality and morality much better. Mythos gave us an ideal type of living life. It gave us the meaning of life, validation of existence and purpose for living. We can say that death of logos is the birth of mythos. Some key points, which could be elaborate myth as a term, are given below -

- Myths are narratives, which makes us to understand the cosmos and its origin and also its relation with culture, region or society. We have some stories with fiction, symbol, beliefs, rituals etc. and some mythical characters/super beings. From these traits, people started to develop their understanding with numerous activities of cosmos.
- Myths are narratives, which have a sacred nature and connections with rituals. These types of myths are originate and facilitate from the root of religious beliefs and their construction, reconstruction and deconstruction are dependent on nature of that specific religion.
- Myths are narratives, which have a social order or value and that value or social order are connected with culture.
- Myths are narratives, which teaches a way of understanding nature and various developing thoughts/ideologies.
- Myths are narratives, which has heroic characters, like gods, deities, super humans etc. These characters and their mythical stories plays significant roles for establish and change the pattern of human life.
- Myths are narratives, which is some one's subjective reality. It means that myths are experiences of daily life. These experiences are true, for those who has experienced it but the story of same experience is a matter of belief or falsehood to the other one, who can't even experience it.

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It is an eternal expression of human life, even when there is no historical evidence of myths. These myths, born from time to time, present a dialogue about different parts of human life. Myth is related to unnatural events. Myths create a purity-filled belief based on popular stories, stories full of symbols, rituals etc. since ancient times. These are a kind of traditional narrative, in which human values are safe. Through the myths, the basic elements of the human brain and its civilization and its development process are known. The history of these stories is as old as the human race themselves.

India is a religious country. Due to the domination of religion and traditions on society, the only way to establish supremacy was to use those traditional tools. The religious and cultural books i.e. Vedas-Upanishad, meta-narratives etc. were divided caste structure into two major parts- the dwija castes and lower castes. Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishya castes are included in the dwija castes. Brahmin's was top in the Dijija castes, then Kshatriyas and after then Vaishya. If we investigated the general notion of dwija and lower castes, then we find Vedas-Upanishads, Folklores and their myths appears behind the universal beliefs about caste hierarchy. As feminist thinker Simone de Beauvoir says in her work 'The Second Sex' that A woman is not born, she is fabricated as a woman by social structure. In the same way the concept of high-low in caste stratification has been created after a long interval and this composition is so precise that all castes are mutually agreed regarding this. For this some heroes were formed/created on the basis of Vedas-Upanishads and folklores and some stories related to them were created. Some of these stories are universal and some of the stories refer only to the particular region. Based on these stories some beliefs and traditions were born. Some stories were created for those who did not follow their beliefs and traditions. That means, the heroes or myths were formed and they were justified on the basis of legality and the binding elements were also coined for those who disbelieve. After the social formation of this entire procedure, the high-low caste of caste hierarchy, traditions, rituals etc. has been provided a unified structure and pillars of dominance and domination were created.

The contemporary era, the period of the 70, 80, and 90s, in which there were social, cultural, political and economic changes. Religious ideology has diminished due to the inclusion of logical ideology. The lack of religious views here is not to say that the religion of society and belief in God has ended. Their faith has still remained, but they have come down. The rituals and traditions that were firmly established on the basis of religious rituals and traditions, today there is a depletion of those rites and traditions. They are partially occupied in their original form. The result of this transitional phase resulted in caste structures, there was a lack of faith in religious rituals and a sense of mistrust and hostility towards traditional myths in the marginalized castes/groups. Its resonance is reflected by the marginalized/the Dalit castes as the composition of their own myths.

If we see it widely, then all the beliefs or concepts are relative to the time-period and the region based, and due to changes in these things, the change in beliefs is also natural. In the current time, the lower castes have tried to execute many challenges in relation to the traditional system. The lower castes are engaged in making a different utopia. They are using the traditional-structural weapons to fragment this structure. At the present time, the lower castes are being created their own different myths and for the legality of those myths, the related folklores are also being created. Simultaneously, these folklores are also being associated with the meta-narratives. Whether these myths belong to Parasuram and Bijali Pasi from the Pasi community, whether it is related to Saint Ravidas of the Chamar community, whether in the form of the heroine's myth of Panna Dhaai from Dhanuk caste, whether myths adopted by the Dalits; Somnayak, Chetram Jatav, Ballu Mehtar, Banke Chamar, Veera Pasi, Jhalkaribai, Uda Devi and her husband Makka Pasi, Avantibai, Mahaviri Devi, Matadeen Bhangi, Udaya Chamar, Ambedkar and Jyotiba Phule, whether it is in the form of deena-bhadari in the Mushahar castes, whether it is Reshama-Chuhadamal and Raja Sahales in the Dusadh caste, whether it is the myth of the Raiya Ranapal from Dom castes, or as Nishadraj, Kalu Dhivar, Himmat Rai, Eklavya, Avantibai Lodh, Rani Rasamani and Phoolan Devi in the Nishad castes.

Calendars, posters, statues, dalit magazines, newspapers, booklets etc. are the essential elements for establishment of these myths. And the praise of these myths and their legends from the political discussions and the lectures of leaders are also plays major role. Thus, the purpose of the lower caste is to create a separate panel for its community. This panel will certainly have been designed with the help of structural tools of higher castes but it will not have the feeling of high-low/hierarchy. On the basis of these myths, the sense of being deceived by the upper caste is also being given and efforts are being made to establish supremacy with the help of myths.

If you look at the mythical history of the past from the present time, then the practice of always maintaining supremacy by interpretation of myths and by some combination of it has been done by some group, caste or community. According to the concept of dominance, in all societies, attempts are made to control and dominate other groups on the basis of their thoughts, beliefs, values and life practices by the Dominating class or any particular group. The dominion of the high class is visible on the whole society on a cultural basis. This concept is accurate in terms of myths. On the basis of various traditions and prohibitions by a group special from the creation of traditional myths, their ideology was imposed on other groups or/inferior one. In response to the dominance of these myths, new myths are being composed by subordinate groups in contemporary times. The structure and reconstruction of these myths clearly reflects the interdependence of cultural domination.
Religious Myth and its Interpretation: Conflict of Supremacy

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Challenges of A Smart City

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Abstract:

The objective of the paper is to explore some challenges associated with the emergence of smart city in India which has not received serious attention in public. Smart city in India is a new concept. There is no scientific definition available in social discourse but on the basis of core infrastructure, we can provide a better life style in smart city. This paper is based on secondary sources and descriptive analysis. We use developmental lens to explain that how challenges affect government policy and planning. Lastly we can say that smart city will be a better option for future smart society.

Keywords: City, Smart City & Social Infrastructure.

Introduction:

The genesis of the hierarchy of urban settlements and spatial structure in contemporary India can be traced to the development dynamics that prevailed during medieval period through the inter-settlement linkages and bi-directional movement of goods and services between the core and periphery. The pre-existing rural-urban interactions were gradually replaced by export-import oriented commodity flows. Movement of population that became necessary to sustain the new urban centers and further disrupted the core-periphery relationship and strengthened the centrifugal forces.

In many developed countries, the high level of agricultural production, and the surpluses generated as a consequence, had facilitated the growth of cities. In British India, however, it was not the level of agricultural or industrial surplus but the socio-political organization that enabled the cities, directly or indirectly, to appropriate an increasing share of total production from their hinterland.

But when we focus on modern conditions and parameters of cities we see that Cities are engines of growth for the economy of every nation, including India. Nearly 31% of India’s current population lives in urban areas and contributes 63% of India’s GDP (Census 2011). With increasing urbanization, urban areas are expected to house 40% of India’s population and contribute 75% of India’s GDP by 2030. This requires comprehensive development of physical, institutional, social and economic infrastructure. All are important in improving the quality of life and attracting people and investments to the City, setting in motion a virtuous cycle of growth and development. Development of Smart Cities is a step in that direction.

What is a ‘smart city’. The first question is what is meant by a ‘smart city’. The answer is, there is no universally accepted definition of a Smart City. It means different things to different people. The conceptualization of Smart City, therefore, varies from city to city and country to country, depending on the level of development, willingness to change and reform, resources and aspirations of the city residents. A Smart City would have a different connotation in India than, say, Europe. Even in India, there is no one way of defining a Smart City. Some definitional boundaries are required to guide cities in the Mission. In the imagination of any city dweller in India, the picture of a Smart City contains a wish list of infrastructure and services that describes his or her level of aspiration. To provide for the aspirations and needs of the citizens, urban planners ideally aim at developing the entire urban eco-system, which is represented by the four pillars of comprehensive development - institutional, physical, social and economic infrastructure. This can be a long term goal and cities can work towards developing such comprehensive infrastructure incrementally, adding on layers of ‘smartness’.

The objective is to promote cities that provide core infrastructure and give a decent quality of life to its citizens, a clean and sustainable environment and application of ‘Smart’ Solutions. The focus is on sustainable and inclusive development and the idea is to look at compact areas, create a replicable model which will act like a light house to other aspiring cities. The Smart Cities Mission of the Government is a bold, new initiative. It is meant to set examples that can be replicated both within and outside the Smart City, catalyzing the creation of similar Smart Cities in various regions and parts of the country. Having recognized that cities are the engines of growth and are drawing a million people every minute from rural areas, the Government has introduced the 'Smart City Challenge', handing over the onus of planned urbanisation to the states. In the approach to the Smart Cities Mission, the objective is to promote cities that provide core infrastructure and offer quality of life to citizens, a clean and

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sustainable environment and application of 'smart' solutions. Those states that measure up to the guidelines and nominate cities could get funding of Rs 100 crore per year per city for the next five years. The funding is a golden chance for states to rejuvenate their urban areas but the Smart Cities Mission still has its own challenges to face. These are: 1. Economic drivers: Economic drivers are the key for the setting up of a smart city. A clear plan of vibrant economic growth of the city based on multiple economic drivers must be the focus area of smart city, especially if it is a greenfield city. 2. Obsolescence of technology: In the Indian context, control of infrastructure and resources is envisaging huge investments in technology. Whilst the investment is a small percentage of the overall infrastructure, all this investment is being done with a horizon of between 5-10 years - and technology leapt frogs quicker than that. For example, we have quickly moved from 2G to 3G and on to 4G from a wired world to a wireless world and from cables to optical fibers. Technology evolves faster than a city, and there must therefore be options to adapt as technology changes or gets obsolete. Technology protocols must be amenable to modification and upgradation. 3. Urban mobility: A smart city encompasses many dimensions, and a reliable, affordable, and sustainable transport system is at its core. Along with public transport systems, development of last-mile connectivity is necessary for optimal utilisation of mass transit systems. This is why smart cities around the world think about urban transport in a comprehensive manner to improve accessibility and mobility. India's public transport has not been adequate because of the high density of population, poor urban planning and zoning, and also lack of investment. As we build new cities, public transport must be the key focus. A new city's mobility system must be integrated with the regional transport system and may need augmentation of existing regional infrastructure. 4. Water management: The water cycle (water resource, production, distribution, consumption, collection, and treatment of waste water) plays an integral part of an urban system. Water and its sustainability are of key importance in new cities, which must aim to be water neutral or positive as much as possible. 5. Waste management: Sustainability in solid waste management calls for a new approach to solid waste and converting it as a resource. There is a need for solid waste management through smart solutions for clean roads and a healthy environment. Unfortunately, India has just not woken up to this. Cleanliness and hygiene call for a baseline cultural change. Technology could help; however, the upfront investment in some of these technologies or the minimum scale investment is high. Nevertheless, it is imperative that this be planned for. 6. Social infrastructure: A city needs social infrastructure for making it habitable, and most of this social infrastructure needs a critical mass of population and consumption to be viable. This means that in the initial years, participation of private enterprises would be limited. It also means that to start a new greenfield city, either the projects need to be funded by the promoting government or subsidised. City planners need to plan accordingly. 7. Funds: A new city would take a long time to develop both the requisite economic drivers and the infrastructure - only after that will it see people stepping in. By the time the city is habitable and has a basic population, the project would at least be 7 to 10 years in the making. Unfortunately, the current funds available for this sector are only for the short-term of 10-15 years. Unless the development of the city is done out of funds that have a 20 to 30 year horizon, these projects are unlikely to survive. India needs a sea change in the way it looks at funding these cities, or their infrastructure. 8. Employment generators: It is important to plan along with the government on job creation in these cities. A critical focus on job creation is not only on the primary economic jobs created, but on service jobs. The city has to be serviced by people working on the support infrastructure. 9. Rental housing: There is considerable need to develop a rental housing market to ensure that more people can move in and work in a smart city without needing to buy properties there. The real estate laws for a smart city must be such that investors will come in and provide rental residences to people who move in to stay there. 10. Phasing: A greenfield smart city must necessarily be built in phases on the basis of real demand, and demand should drive investments beyond the basics. Otherwise, we will wind up with ghost cities where infrastructure has been built, but with no takers. 11. Maintenance: Building a greenfield city is relatively easy; however, it is continuous maintenance which differentiates a great city from the rest. Smart cities should be easy to maintain and be taken care of to extend, modify and accommodate the growing needs of citizens. Smart cities need to be smart for the long haul, not only at the outset. 12. Digital technology - A smart city makes optimal use of all the interconnected information available to better understand and control its operations and optimize the use of limited resources. ICTs play an important role in this process, since they enable a digital platform from which an information and knowledge network can be created. Such a platform not only facilitates the aggregation of city information for data analysis, but it also can be used to better understand how the city is functioning. City administrators and stakeholders can use this information to create new policies and regulations to improve the quality of life for the citizens. One of the key value propositions of ICT in a smart city is the ability to capture and share information in a timely manner. Even if a city is well equipped to respond to a given situation, if the information is not provided and shared quickly specific problems, such as traffic congestion or utility outrages, may not be solved rapidly. If the information is provided in real-time and accurately, cities can potentially take action before the problem begins to escalate. A Smart City, therefore, can be understood as a "predictive city" where specific events and incidents can be predicted resulting in an improved quality of life, and enabling citizens to be more informed about the situation, so they can make an educated decision as to the next course of action.
Broadband Connectivity: Implementing smart city technologies often requires a robust, reliable, affordable broadband network. This underlines the need to continue to focus on bridging the digital divides, in order to harness the benefits of smart applications. Mobile broadband is also playing a major role especially in developing countries, where there is a lack of fixed infrastructure. The smart phone revolution with "apps" has already taken root and there are many apps related to smart cities including traffic, health, energy and water. Integrating the data collected through one infrastructure component and using the same in an effective manner in the operation or maintenance of another infrastructure provides another key method of integrating infrastructure operations in smart cities. Smarter integrated approaches to infrastructure and development should be a key component of how we conceptualize infrastructure for smart cities. Smart infrastructure should be seen as a system that integrates the core domains of sustainability (namely, social, economic and environmental) in the urban context. For example, by focusing on cutting-edge new renewable energy systems through smart energy infrastructure, cities are able to generate clean energy, assure cost-effectiveness and simultaneously realize technology leapfrogging. For example The Gujarat International Finance Tec-City (GIFT City) is a good example of an integrated smart city - incorporating the different functions of a city - Water, Waste, Air-Conditioning, Energy / Utilities, Transport and an ICT backbone to help manage these components. Such a holistic and integrated approach of infrastructure applications is creating a new paradigm and benchmark in city development.

In lieu of conclusion we can say smart city in Indian society is a good example of good governance and based on integrated approach of high tech developmental design and ict can play a major role. We are moving towards smart city and smart city will create a smart society without any risk and dangerous issues.

References:
An Analysis of Origin And Development of Existentialism

Stuti Dwivedi*

Abstract:
The objective of this paper is to explore the reason behind origin and development of existentialism. The paper may try to indicate the fact that existentialism is the only philosophy which considers human being as supreme and emphasizes the importance of man and its existence. In general terms the paper may be approached and discussed how existentialism can be described as an attempt to reach the inmost core of human existence.

Keywords: Existentialism, Philosophy, Civilization, Dread, Horror, Anguish, Solitude, Upanisads, Atm?anam Vidhi, Fideistic Catholicism, Ontic Self-Affirmation, Spiritual Self-Affirmation, Self Affirmation, and World War.

Introduction:
This paper is an attempt to describe the reason behind origin and development of existentialism. It is a very new, innovative and relevant concept of modern philosophy. After the Second World War, in which huge masses of humanity thrown into conflict, people have come to face each other more closely than before. They now wish to understand each other intimately and to avoid conflicts, which, in future will involve the whole of the globe. People realize that they have only two alternatives before them: recognition of the brotherhood of man or annihilation of man and civilization. This necessity to understand each other, each other's point of view, each other's culture, outlook, values and even religion have given comparative philosophy a new seriousness and importance. But the problems are complex; for we find not only different outlooks and cultural traditions but also outlook on life.

Man cannot be ignored by any philosophy; he has to be retained at its centre. Towards the 2nd World War, when the price of everything rose, the saying was on the lips of almost every man: the value of everything was risen expect human life. Thinkers began to be repelled by the devaluation of human life, whether in the name of science, culture, religion or political ideology. Even the claim of absolute value for science is being questioned. Man and his value are primary: their primacy has to be acknowledged by any philosophy.

Existentialists believe that existence of a person means his period from birth to death. In between man thrown into a social life and the characteristics of this social life are the contingent circumstances of our life. This contingency is often characterized by experience of dread, horror, anguish, solitude, uncertainty and finally limited by death. As Jean Wahl puts it, "man is in this world, a world limited by death and experienced in anguish, is aware of himself as essentially anxious; is burdened by his solitude within the horizon of his temporality."

Origin of Existentialism: We are all aware of our situations in life, limited by death, and existentialists rightly remarked that man is the only being in the world who knows that sometime he will die. That is why his existence is through-out permeated by dread, anxiety and fear. He cannot escape or transcend this situation. He has to be prepared to face dread, anguish, and fear resolutely. Hence existential philosophy holds that an individual can truly change the way as he think and feel about his life by believing differently, by acting rather than simply reacting, by asserting his will rather than simply allowing himself to be swept along by circumstances, by always taking responsibility for making himself and his actions.

Existentialism defined as a philosophical movement that captured the attention of general public. It emphasizes the subjective reality of individual existence, individual freedom and individual choice. Existentialist philosophers appear for explanation of the question of creation and existence of the universe and especially of Man, the sentient being in this world. They ask themselves questions like why has the Almighty created the Earth, the Moon, the Sun, the Universe, and most significantly why has He created ‘Human Being’ in this Universe? What is the purpose behind the creation and the origin of Man? Why did Adam and Eve, the first creations of God, our first ancestors, ate that forbidden apple, and initiate the cycle of life and death? The answers to these questions are still unrequited as the question of the evolution and foundation of the Human Being. These matters have been explored by various philosophers, from the beginning of organized religion and the philosophy behind it.

The mystery of human existence has been the most imperative and the most essential study so far. Number of studies has been conducted to answer the most significant and the central question, how the human

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being originated, and what the purpose behind this. Numerous philosophers have marked a shift from tradition to modernity. They have conducted their study to understand the exact nature of the origin and evolution of human being, which is still on. From the commencement of the human history and till the present day, human being has been trying to seek answer to the question of his creation and the purpose behind it.

The clarification of all these questions can be explained only if we first understand the history of the traditional thinkers and recent time philosophers. These philosophers have tried to explain and solve the enigma of evolution of the Human Being. In ancient times the traditional thinkers studied questions like "what and who am I?". And in modern times the philosophers argues and compares different cultures and study the growth and development of human being. They ask the major question, "what is man?"

Development of Existentialism: Because existentialism is a trend or mood involving Philosophical themes rather than a coherent system of Philosophy, it is possible to trace through the post a number of precursors to the self-aware existentialism that developed in Europe during the early twentieth century. These precursors involved Philosophers who may not have not been existentialists themselves, but did explore existentialist themes and thereby paved the way for the creation of existentialism in the 20th century.

So we come to the old advice of Socrates: 'know thy self.' The roots of Existentialism are found in the Socratic dictum 'know thyself'. It was Socrates (469-399 B.C) who first questioned human existence and saw man as a problem in himself and as a subject and object of true knowledge and enquiry. He stressed that self enquiry and self knowledge must be made the beginning as well as the end of life and that it is impossible for a man to live a genuine and fruitful life on earth unless first fully discovered.

Pope said that the noblest study of mankind is man himself. The Upanisads also declared: 'know thyself' (तम्यमनाम विद्धि).

Socrates' disciple Plato had many existentialist elements in his thinking. Plato used existential terms when he spoke of the transition from existence to essence or from essence to existence; of the fall of the souls; of the seeming but not true character of the world of appearances and opinions; or of the bondage of the soul in the cave of shadows.

Another important writer who anticipated a number of existentialist themes was the 17th century French Philosopher Blaise Pascal. Pascal questioned the strict rationalism of contemporaries like Rene Descartes. Pascal argued for a fideistic catholicism that did not presume to create a systematic explanation of God and humanity. This creation of a "God of the philosophers" was, he believed, actually a form of pride. Rather than search for a "logical" defense of faith, Pascal concluded (Just as Kierkegaard later did) that religion needed to be based upon a leap of faith which has not rooted in any logical or rational arguments.

St. Augustine has an existentialist viewpoint of human fallenness, an emphasis on the existing individual and an existential attitude of involvement. The stance of man's withdrawal into his own spiritual interior that we find in Marcel and Sartre has already been marked by Augustine. The requirement to know man in his particularity and therefore, in terms of a procedure different from scientific procedure to obtain knowledge of natural objects was dealt with by Wilhelm Dilthey. He viewed 'understanding' as the procedure and thus as the proper method of the human sciences. Understanding, according to him, "consists in the reliving and reproducing of the experience of others. Hence it is also a feeling together with others and a sympathetic participation in their emotions. Understanding, therefore, accomplishes a unity between the knowing object and the object known."

During the later portion of nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century, a number of writers contributed to the growth of existentialism. The Russian writer Fyodor Dostoevsky also is often considered to be a forerunner of existentialism and his "Notes from Underground" are thought to be a rich source of existentialist thought. "Dostoevsky (1821-1881) probed deeply into human subjectivity and freedom in his works."

Paul Tillich's (1886-1965) most important contribution to existentialism is his exploration of three types of anxiety which are genuinely existential- the anxiety of fate and death, the anxiety of emptiness and meaninglessness and the anxiety of guilt and condemnation. He calls first of these the threat to 'ontic self-affirmation', second is the threat to 'spiritual self-affirmation' and third is the threat to the 'self affirmation'.

Karl Barth (born1886) united Christianity and existentialism. Martin Buber (1878-1965) has dedicated his life to promoting the thesis that one's love of God must be expressed through his love of each particular man. Furthermore, it is the uniqueness in each particular man rather than generic 'man' that is the proper object of rest. Thus the existentialist theme that 'existence is prior to essence' is presupposed by Buber's philosophy.

Franz Kafka described human existence as the quest for a stable, secure and radiant reality that continually eludes it or he described it as threatened by a guilty verdict about which it knows neither the reason nor the circumstances but against which it can do nothing - a verdict that ends with death.

In "The Rebel" (1951), Albert Camus described the 'metaphysical rebellion' as the movement by which a man protests against his condition and against the whole of creation. The most obvious pre-existentialism
existentialists, though, would have to be Soren Kierkegaard and Friedrich Nietzsche, two Philosophers whose ideas and writings are explored in some depth elsewhere.

**Conclusion:**

Finely we can say that Existentialism as a universal element in all thinking is the attempt of man to describe his existence and its conflicts, the origin of these conflicts and the anticipations of overcoming them. "Existentialism is a philosophy of reaffirming and regaining the lost status of man in the advanced scientific and technological society. Therefore, this is a theory of individual meaning which asks each man to ponder over the reason for his existence."  

**References:**

Challenges in Tourism: A Study of Happiness and Commercialism

Shweta Mishra*

Abstract:

Tourism is a very dynamic and an ever-increasing industry. Its versatility as an important industry that churns out profits at the same time giving immense satisfaction to those who are its users, has been realized as a ground that blends materialism and happiness together. It cannot be denied that while the former one, that is materialism, is an absolutely concrete and palpable concept when we relate commodities and things or even business for that matter, while considering and weighing the well-being of an individual; on the other hand, the latter one, that is happiness, is an abstract idea that can neither be measured nor weighed and is an experience not related with material reality. In present times tourism can be understood as an activity as well as an industry that can hold these two seemingly variant concepts converging and meeting at its center.

The present paper takes as its focus Tourism as a concept and a profitable venture that encompasses the twin concepts of mercantilism and happiness, and will study the challenges and interrelations between tourism and mercantilism and tourism and happiness, that make it a fructifying industry.

Keywords: Tourism, Commercialism, Happiness, Commodities & Industry

Introduction:

Tourism has developed as an important business endeavor that has been taken up by enterprising and competent businessmen and governments who intend to gain through such businesses when they tap human happiness. Commercialism has its roots in materialism that is regarded as one of the mediums of human happiness. Mercantilism casts its impact on tourism which comes out as a successful and flourishing industry that profits the state and the nation concerned. It has been seen that before reaping the benefits of any industry it is important to establish that industry on firm grounds. Tourism also requires a proper building up of a set up that would be suitable and comfortable for the tourists; also, making that place attractive, accessible and always a desired place.

Commercialism is associated with trade and thus trading rules and business mechanisms are equally valid and applicable in this case.

The Key Challenges in Tourism:

The key features that need to be taken care of in case of tourism that would help in its growth and profit are:

1. The development of that place as a tourist center. Keeping in mind the main reason that would pull the travellers to this place, it could be for religious purposes, for its landscape/scenic beauty, or that the place has historical significance with monuments and forts, or museums, parks and unique culture and cuisine. That way the place has to be evolved and beautified. People also visit places particularly for health reasons for instance Kerala is world famous for its Ayurvedic methods of oiling and massaging and herbal treatments to cure various ailments.

2. The development of infrastructure that would assist in the accommodation of tourists, proper lodging and food centers.

3. The development of roads and connectivity. The linking of the place via roads, railways and even air routes.

It has usually been seen that when any place emerges as a place of tourist attraction there is simultaneously a development of various other businesses that prosper due to the inflow of tourists from within or outside the country. The maintenance of that place and its important locales, plus keeping it in good condition with regular renovation, updating and attempting innovations helps this industry in a positive way.

Tourism has come of age. Not just that place, but the neighboring towns, the state to which it belongs and also the country benefits of a tourist place. It not just brings in foreign currency but it also increases the reputation and prestige of that place that may gain great renown due to it. Tourism is growing day by day and with greater purchasing capacity, tourists and lovers of travelling have gained freedom to move beyond boundaries and travel across their native country and around the world too.

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Challenges in Tourism: A Study of Happiness and Commercialism

Governments and states encourage tourism as it brings an inflow of both foreign and domestic currency. There are several other interrelated benefits of tourism and with an attraction of larger number of tourists the country benefits from the rise in the number of visitors. The surplus visitors or an upsurge in the flow of visitors becomes a matter of pride for that place and also makes it an important mark on the map, thus making it geographically or location-wise an important place. Tourism and trading are closely related and governments intervene to regulate this industry.

The Process of Developing Tourism as a Business:

Commercialism is directly proportional to monetary gain. Commercialism is rooted into business related actions and maneuvering. Tourism as an industry is business-oriented and it supports and helps in the flourishing of many other businesses. Thus, tourism can be understood as that large tree under and which there are many business plants and saplings that sprout. Setting up the basis or the foundation and then building up on it this is the basic process and tourism as a business is a process that involves such steps like:

1. Realizing the potential or the worth of a place as an important site due to a particular or specific reason.
2. Developing or working on towards its building and growth, to be able to reap its benefits.
3. Certain amount of initial investment is necessary that would be needed for the beginning work.
4. Full swing growth through planning and execution.
5. Visualizing all the possible parameters and constructing upon them in a proper channel.
6. Developing on the safety angles that would provide all sorts of security to the tourists and would help in providing them that cushion that they may relax and consider it a safe place.
7. Advertising and marketing of that place as the ultimate destination.
8. Living up to the expectations and meeting out the hazards and challenges in a positive and successful way.

Tourism results in the meeting and converging of people of different beliefs, traditions, race, color, ethnicity and cultures at one place. For instance, mahakumbh in India invites people from all over the world. If commercialism is one side of the coin of tourism then human happiness is the other side of the coin of tourism. It is a twin or two-way process where people are happy due to visit to outside places and tourism gives them that happiness gaining in return from it. Not just the business factor but tourism fosters human happiness too. Though this holds true for other business enterprises as well, for instance, if one opens an eating corner like a restaurant or a dhaba, or makes films, one caters to the tastes and the other is for the purpose of entertainment. All these and others are there to satisfy human desires and fulfill their requirements; what they provide to the customers, its quality and quantity decides the price. But tourism is slightly different from other business ventures because here it improves the area, its condition and is advantageous even for those who are not there as customers or business runners. But simply as localites of that place or as citizens they too benefit out of regular beautifying and improvisation of that place.

The interconnection among tourism, commercialism and human happiness is an interesting one. Tourism thrives on the interest, adventure spirit and passion of the individuals, groups or families to move out of their homes, or usual routine course, venture new places and explore a new world. To know, to learn, to see, to have fun, to spend quality time with family, or simply to be away from their routine, monotonous lifestyle that has nothing much to offer except to leave us anxious and frustrated most of the times.

An Analytical Approach towards Tourism:

Tourism is developing in a systematic way. It reflects the quality of life that is being led by people and also contributes to and enhances the social well-being of the tourist. It is commonly seen that people who to visit different places are the ones who are happy people. Moving out of their customary days, these are the ones who move to different places and this requires an inside desire or call for a change. If this is absent then it reflects a complete lack of the spirit to live life to its fullest. Happiness obviously results from a better utilization of leisure time and de-stressing or releasing psychological pressures or other mental pressures that take a toll on the individuals or even their whole families.

Tourism is the thermometer to measure the social well-being of the tourist. Social well-being can be gauged through several other ways, like, how well the people interact with others during public meetings or gatherings, or even this that how active they are on social networking sites. But here too tourism is different, because it does not look at people sitting inside the closed rooms or short and small scale family meets. Tourism is a reflection of that society which is physically and socially fit and healthy. Unhealthy people or disturbed and frustrated people would never promote or propagate tourism. Tourism shows that those people are adventurous, passionate, keen to know and learn, and most importantly they are a happy and contented lot. Their adaptability and easy blending and getting acquainted with the mannerisms of different people shows that they are not in pain or aggrieved.

Joy, interest, contentment and love: all these core emotions are developed and strengthened through tourism. In the words of Sebastian Filep: "As a generator of happiness, tourism could be viewed as an important
tool for advancing tourists' quality of life and as a creator of highly fulfilling, positive experiences." ("Linking Tourist Satisfaction to Happiness and Quality of Life" researchonline.jcu.edu.au/)

Human happiness is the underlying reason that becomes the cause of innumerable activities into which a person indulges. Quality of life in modern or urban society is reflected through tourist index. The families belonging to which states are prospering and their financial stability gives them the freedom to move out to spend their holidays. While places in their own native country form the priority places but they also try to move out to travel greater distances, even outside their countries. For instance, those living in India, would love to move out such countries and islands like Thailand and Philippines.

**Conclusion**:

Overall happiness depends on the totality of satisfaction, contentment and bliss in all the life domains, and tourism is one of those domains. People plan and visit different places during vacations and strive to derive contentment by breaking from the routine and visiting new and exciting places, away from monotony and the orders of the society and commands of the boss. If they are able to successfully and in a delighted way spend their vacations then this would definitely act in a constructive way towards their happiness and would add on to their well-being.

This well-being of an individual is extremely important. The three core elements of human happiness have been identified as:

- Positive emotions (experiencing and savoring pleasures);
- Engagement (losing the self in engaging activities); and
- Meaning (participating in meaningful activities)

(Seligman, Steen, Park, Peterson, 2005)

Tourism and Commercialism as well as Tourism and Human Happiness, these are intertwined concepts, in close relation with each other and Tourism as an industry is on one hand a complete business endeavor with governmental regulations of economic affairs, and on the other hand, it is a huge statistical revealer of whether the people of a state or country are happy, content and working towards higher targets or not.

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Problems and Challenges of Higher Education in India

Ranjana Singh*

Abstract:

After independence, there has been tremendous increase in institutions of higher learning in all disciplines. But with the quantitative growth has been to attend to the core issue of quality. India is today one of the fastest developing countries of the world with the annual growth rate going above 9%. In order to sustain that rate of growth, there is need to increase the number of institutes and also the quality of higher education in India. To reach and achieve the future requirements there is an urgent need to relook at the Financial Resources, Access and Equity, Quality Standards, Relevance and at the end the Responsiveness. We need higher educated people who are skilled and who can drive our economy forward. When India can provide skilled people to the outside world then we can transfer our country from a developing nation to a developed nation very easily and quickly.

Keywords: Higher Education, UGC, India, Problems and Challenges.

Introduction:

Higher education has been obviously playing a speculative role in the development of human beings including all spheres of life in all dimensions. Higher education is the most powerful tool to build the knowledge based society for the future. Education system in India can be dated centuries back to the age of Budha, but there has been substantial improvement in the higher education in both quantitative and qualitative terms. It is need to be viewed as a long term social investment for the promotion of economic growth, cultural development, social cohesion, equity and justice. There has been a phenomenal growth of higher education in India since independence. There were only 20 university and 500 colleges at the time of independence. According to All India Survey on Higher Education (AISHE), 2012-13, there were 665 universities, 35829 colleges in India. Presently, India's higher education system is the largest in the world in terms of number of institutions and is often cited as one of the main contribution in the economic improvement in India. In spite of having phenomenal growth in higher education sector, it has been facing many challenges such as financial and management, access, equity, relevance and reorientation of policies and programmes for laying emphasis and values, ethics and quality of higher education together with the assessment of institution and their accreditation. In this paper an attempt has been made to analyze the development and present scenario of higher education in India, some issues and challenges of higher education in India and also try to point out some relevant recommendation to meet the challenges especially in teaching tools and techniques.

Objectives:

The objectives of this paper are following.

A) To analyze the present scenario of higher education in India.
B) To analyze the some key issues and challenges of higher education in India.
C) To present some recommendation to meet the challenges.

Methodology:

In this paper researcher has intended to examine the Indian higher education related to issues and challenges of India based on secondary data. The data has been collected from the official website of MHRD, University Grant Commission, Govt. of India and other related research papers, books, journals, news papers and also published work related to these affairs of statement.

Growth of Higher Education in India:

After getting independence especially from the initiation of five year plan, Govt. of India have been formulated number of plane programme for the over all development of Indian economy, culture as well as society. In association with these programmes, improvement of education was given one of the factors to some extent. Moreover, in India education has been a joint responsibility between the Central and State Government. The Central Government can pass nationally-binding legislation for higher education and is the final accreditation authority. It is to be mentioned here that the responsibility of higher education is lies within the Ministry of Human Resource Development.

It is already mentioned that there has been a phenomenal growth in the higher education system and a virtual explosion of Universities and Colleges. The table no. 1 shows that in the year 1950-51 the country had just 30 University and 695 colleges which was increased to 190 and 7346 university and colleges respectfully. It is also observed that the number of university and colleges in the year increased to 564 and 33023 and in the year 2013-14 704 university and more than 36000 colleges.

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Present Scenario of Higher Education in India:

Higher Education System in India compare to developing / developed countries needs substantial improvement. The percentage of students taking higher education is hardly about 13 percent, whereas the same is varying between 28 to 90 percent across the world. The lowest percent being 28 percent and the same is as high as 90 percent in developed countries.

At one end we claim that India would rank 3rd among all countries by 2020 in education. If we observe overall ranking of relevant institutions it's seen that in the year 2000, out of 500 there were 2 Indian Universities / Institutes were featured in the list, and 1 institution from China. Now almost after a decade in 2010 the tables have changed with only 1 institution from India being featured and 32 institutions are featured from China.

It categorically spells out, how much we are lagging behind in terms of overall % of higher educational institutions, number of students pursuing higher education. We are not only beaten in by the developing and developed countries in terms of GDP, Exchange of foreign currency but also in terms of number of students pursuing higher education.

Budget allocation by Govt. of India as per 2012 plan is about 6 percent, which is not going to be adequate, and therefore allocation must be made appropriately, i.e. minimum 10 percent in order to improve the scenario. Basic education must reach to maximum number of children from different strata of the society so that they are eligible to pursue higher education.

Though higher education system has been change to a great extent in India, it is observed that there are no universities in Andaman & Nicobar Island, Dadar & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu and Lakshadweep. The maximum numbers of universities are in Uttar Pradesh by 59 nos., followed by Tamil Nadu with 56 nos. and Andhra with 47 universities. The teacher-student ratio in higher education is 23 and there are 23 colleges per lakh population in India. So far employment is concerned, there is only 10-15 percent employed of regular graduate of Arts, Commerce and Science and 25 percent employed of technical education sector in India (NASSCOM Report 2011)

Issues and Challenges:

Though there has been a drastic change in higher education sector since independence, higher education system in India has brought several pertinent issues. In present scenario of higher education in India following issues and challenges are observed.

a) Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER): GER in India is very low compare to other developed and developing countries in the world. By the end of the year 2020, it is expected the GER will be increased to 30 percent.

b) Inclusion Education: It includes inequity in educational development. Large number of population remaining illiterate, rural urban, inter-state, inter-caste, gender disparities and disparities among the occupational groups.

c) Quality of Higher educational Institutions: Below standard.

d) Relevant Education

e) Research and Development

f) Shortage of Faculty
g) Student Teacher Ratio

h) Drop-out Ratio in UG level especially in 1st Semester

i) Poor Quality of Library (Most of the rural based colleges)

j) In Adequate Physical Infrastructure

k) Lack of Innovative Outlook

l) Inadequate Funds

m) Lack of Job Guaranteed Course

n) Globalization Issues

o) One of the most challenging parts of the higher education is to use of IT in this field. In modern time without using of IT, education is incomplete in deferent level of higher education. But, there is a major problem with maximum universities in general and colleges in rural areas in particular in India which is unable to use IT due to financial constraints and some other basic amenities.
Recommendations:

a) Need to change the attitude and introduce the new courses as per demand of industrial, service and agricultural sector.

b) The system of examination should be adequate.

c) There should be an environment for Research and Development for the teacher as well as students.

d) There should be a co-ordination between job and education which will increase GER in higher education and also universities and colleges should introduced job oriented courses.

e) To improve the higher education scenario more fund is utmost necessary for which Government should take especial step.

f) The Central and State Government should develop a separate infrastructural fund for educational institutes to provide better infrastructural facilities to the educational institutes.

g) Modern tools and techniques should be used for proper presentation of subject matter before the students to create a good teaching and learning environment may.

h) There should be maintained a optimum teacher- students ratio for better output from the education system.

i) In the era of globalization, equal importance should be attached to the inflow and outflow of quality education resources.

j) There is a need of review, revision and development of curriculum of prevailing system of syllabi of the universities.

k) Curriculum should also include sports, hobby classes, vocational skills development program, employability enhancement & soft skills development programs, entrepreneurship development modules, specialization wise clubs and committees of students, practical assignments related to their field, industry interface related modules such as internships, industry visits, guest - lectures / workshops / seminars, participation in summits, management quiz etc. with evaluation / monitoring system so as to ensure continual improvement in the same.

l) Special emphasis must be given to communication and presentation skills, especially for students coming from rural background / remote locations and that for students studies in vernacular languages, so that they can perform well in the corporate world, across the globe.

m) Institutions should also inculcate multitasking abilities amongst students, foreign languages, advanced IT knowledge so that they can perform better in the chosen field. Student exchange, cultural exchange should be encouraged and various ways and means should be found to enhance students interest level & participation.

Conclusion:

Although higher education in India has expanded very rapidly in last six decades after independence, but still it is not equally assessable to all. Though there are number of colleges and universities established in India, quality education imparted is not up to date. Our higher education system has not been able to change its organizational structure and form. It has also not been possible to maintain uniform standards of education or ensure that education imparted is relevant to our present needs. Under the circumstances, it is necessary that we need to implement the reforms in higher education system and also bring forth new factors of production, basically knowledge, skill and technology which will move the country in a dynamic way. It is also true that higher education is too costly for the government to provide higher education to all the people in the country and spend on technology and innovation related to the education system. It is expected, after introduction of RUSA in India, higher education system will explore in such a way that India can compete with other countries of the world so far higher education is concerned.

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5. Pethe, A. (…..). Some essay on higher education in India. Department of Economics, University of Mumbai.
Abstract: Education is universally recognized as an investment in human capital. It is the basic requirement and the most effective instrument of social empowerment and can contribute to socio-economic development by endowing individuals with the means of improving their health, skill, and knowledge, and capability for productive work. Higher education is of vital importance for country, as it is a powerful tool to build knowledge-based society of the 21st century. India possesses a highly developed higher education system, which offers facility of education and training in almost all aspects of human creative and intellectual endeavors, i.e., arts and humanities, natural, mathematical and social sciences, engineering, medicine, dentistry, agriculture, education, law commerce and management, music and performing arts, national and foreign languages, culture, communications etc. the expansion in institutional capacity in terms of number of universities/college and teachers has provided greater access to the students to post higher secondary education.

Introduction: Education is a basic requirement and a fundamental right for citizens of a free nation. It is also of increasing strategic importance in the new environment of knowledge and information technology based globalised economy. Education plays a catalytic role in a country’s socio-economic development and is one of the principal means available for a deeper and harmonious form of human development reducing poverty, ignorance and exclusion. Higher Education, which is a training ground for a professional, research-based, career-oriented future, must be respected as a potential instrument for bringing about social transformation and ensuring the success of democracy. Education must be provided to all categories of citizens by breaking down constraints and barriers.

The Concept of Higher Education: The change and the reform are propelled by the vibrant system of higher education in the wake of severe compulsions of economic, social, cultural, political, strategic and global demands. The concept of education only meant learning and imparting of knowledge. The definition of higher education includes hierarchy of programmes. Many different kinds of University level institutions such as central Universities, private Universities, IITs, NITs, IIMs, IISERs, occupy the upper end of the higher education spectrum. The various colleges offering general or specialized education, professional education, provide higher education to nearly per cent of students. Then, there are several other post secondary institutions such as community colleges and technical training institutions. In a sense, the polytechnics and vocational institutions, which are not strictly post secondary, are also considered as higher education.

Higher education is of vital important for the country, as it is a powerful tool to build knowledge-based society of the 21st century. Improvement of access and quality, the adoption of state-specific strategies, enhancing the relevance of higher education through curriculum reform, vocationalisation, Networking and Information Technology and distance education are the main policy initiatives of the higher education sector. The other important policy initiatives in higher education are the main policy initiatives of the higher education sector. The other important policy initiatives in higher education are programmes for general development of universities and colleges.

Current key issues and Disparities in Access to Higher Education: Sociologists see society as a stratification system that is based on a hierarchy of power (the ability to direct someone’s behavior), privilege (honor and respect), and prestige (income, wealth, and property), which leads to patterns of social inequality, social inequality is characterized by the existence of unequal opportunities and rewards for different social positions or statuses within a group or society. Inequality of opportunities refers to the unequal distribution of "life chances" across individuals. This is reflected in measures such as level of education, health status, and treatment by the criminal justice system.

Lack of research activity and shortage of high quality faculty are the plaguing factor in higher education. Industry reports and surveys indicate that the students qualifying from higher education institutes lacks the higher quality skills required, which leads to employability issues. Equity is a major concern in higher education in India. There is wide disparity in terms of rural-urban, gender and communities. Access to higher education for all minority social groups is much below the national average. For quality output in higher education there is need for strong foundation in the elementary education. Without having strong base in these set of knowledge one cannot build a quality higher status of knowledge. Large vacant faculty positions and poorly qualified faculty also dilute the quality of research done at higher education. Teaching of a person no only depends on his knowledge, but also how he delivers his lecture in the class rooms. The communication skill/accents is of low quality.

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There are several factors that reduce access and corrective orientations of women in higher education. Factors that inhibit female access to higher education are quantitative, such as non-availability of colleges and inadequate delivery that is unsuitable infrastructure and absence of basic physical facilities. Other factors are qualitative and are rooted in the socio-cultural context such as inadequate of rest rooms, common rooms, hostels, non-availability of scholarships/ fellowships and disciplines of their choice, absence of women teachers, or separate schools and colleges for women; absence of counseling for discipline and career options; etc.

The socio-cultural factors may be divided into two sets viz., those at the macro level and at the micro level. The macro level dimensions relate to caste, tribe, class and regional variations. The micro level factors may be further sub-divided into institutional and societal factors.

Institutional factors that originate from gendered structures. Some of the notable social dimensions of institutional arrangements are: gender stereotyping in course content and subject choices, discriminatory attitudes of teachers and administrators, absence of role models for career options and academic leadership etc.

Social factors are the push and pull factors that originate from cultural behavior patterns and social role expectations and the association of women with the private domain of household continues to affect access to higher education. Some of the notable and well-known barriers are: lack of economic resources in the family; the choice between dowry and educational expenses, education being perceived as consumption and being irrelevant for production.

Role of Universities: Empowering Agents of Higher Education:

To be effective agents of empowerment through Higher Education, universities need to give attention to:

1. Mass motivation and mobilization: Dissemination of information through newsletters and other social agencies;
2. Literacy Promotion: Preparation of training packages and development of learning materials;
3. Techno- pedagogic inputs: Preparation of data based information and transference of matter into technological display;
4. Network Culture: Monitor activities related to women’s studies and women’s movements and recommend better implementation;
5. Women and Research: The University Grants commission has agreed to provide part-time research associate ships to 100 girls every years
6. Special access for women: Women students from scheduled caste and tribes in India will be eligible for Government schemes of scholarships, coaching assistance and remedial classes.

After the independence there was tremendous increase in terms of the number of higher educational; institutional in India, teachers and students. Thereafter also there was big increase in the number of universities, teachers and students, but how far jumps where distributed among all the communities and groups in India has to be examine to understand how unequal was the developments the take place in arena of higher education. The national higher education policy adopted in 1986 has emphasized on three basic elements, Access, equal access (or equity), Quality and Excellence. But the process of development in this sector was exclusionary for the sections like scheduled tribes, scheduled castes, and other backward classes.

Conclusion: Therefore, higher education needs radical improvements in infrastructure, productive faculty, administration and management. On the ability to invest furthermore, as providing universal school education itself requires huge resources. Given these constraints, it is binding to mobilize resources from alternative avenues such as private sector and households while ensuring equity of weaker sections and efficiency of education sector. Government should envisage on changes in Indian higher education through private investment, and public-private participation so as to bring dynamics into it making them on par with global premier institutions, in quality and quantity.

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Abstract:

This paper attempts to analyze the conditions and status of Working Women in India and highlights the Issues and Challenges regarding them. Today the empowerment of women has become one of the most important concerns of 21st century. India is a traditional country and there is diversity in religions, culture and customs. Role of the women in India mostly is household and limited to domestic issues. In some cases women can find employment as nurses, doctors, teachers the caring and nurturing sectors. But even if well qualified women engineers or managers or geologists are available, preference will be given to a male of equal qualification. The present study investigated to identify the factors preventing women employees from aspiring for higher post and challenges & problems faced by women workers. Further the study try to explain the real condition of Indian working women and also make an effort to clear main problems of working women.

Keywords: Health, Socio-Economic Status, Women Workers, Challenges, Problems & Crimes Against Women.

Introduction:

India's economy has undergone a substantial transformation since the country's independence in 1947 and so the growth of women has also evolved. A section of Indian women-the elite and the upper middle class have gained by the exposure to the global network. Many of the working women, who manage their own expenses, do contribute towards the economic needs of their family as and when required. Unlike the earlier time they often participate in discussions at workplace where their views are also given equal importance before any final decision. After globalization, women are bagging more and more job opportunities. It has raised hopes of women for a secured and elevated status of women arising out of increased chances to work but, at the same time, it has placed them in a highly contradictory economic liberty. India is the first among countries to give women equal franchise and has a high credible record with regards to the enactment of laws to protect and promote the interest of women. But women continued to be denied economic, social and legal rights and privileges. Women plow fields and harvest crops while working on farms, women weave and make handicrafts while working in the household industries, they sell food and gather wood while working in the informal sector making money for them and their family. Working women i.e., those who are in paid employment, face problems at the workplace just by virtue of their being women. Social attitude to the role of women lags much behind the law. The attitude which considers women fit for certain jobs and not others, causes prejudice in those who recruit employees. Thus women find employment easily as nurses, doctors, teachers, secretaries or on the assembly line. Even when well qualified women are available, preference is given to a male candidate of equal qualifications. A gender bias creates an obstacle at the recruitment stage itself. When it comes to remuneration, though the law proclaims equality, it is not always practiced. The inbuilt conviction that women are incapable of handling arduous jobs and are less efficient than men influences the payment of unequal salaries and wages for the same job. But in most families her salary is handed over to the father, husband or in-laws. So the basic motive for seeking employment in order to gain economic independence is nullified in many women's case. Problems of gender bias beset women in the industrial sector when technological advancement results in retrenchment of employees.

Women workers in India are faced with lot more challenges than their counterparts in the other countries. Besides of so many efforts from past years, female section of society is deprived in compared to male section. They are not given first priority in social and economic decisions in her own family. According to United Nations Development Programmer (UNDP) report, women are involved in doing 67% work of world; still they are socially and economically deprived. They are receiving only 10% of the universal income and have 1% part in global assets. This discrimination also persists in their work place in unorganized sector. In informal sector, women workers don't get same wages for same nature of work for same hours done by men. They are exploited at workplace. They are some acts i.e. The Unorganized Workers Social Security Act, 2008, Domestic Workers Welfare and Social Security Act, 2010 etc. but due to their improper implementation, women workers are forced to work and live in miserable conditions in unorganized sector. In India mostly it is women who have to do household as cook, clean the house, do the dishes, wash clothes, care of children and men do not share on most of the household works. Men do that work that is to be dealt outside the house. Now a day there is increasing need for getting some
income for the family then women have to work harder. Women workers have to handle Persecution's at their work place, sometimes just over look things to ensure that their job is not jeopardized in anyway.

The cultural restrictions were the primary obstacles to female employment, now however, with the shortage of jobs in every sector even lead to more unemployed women in the country. Even if the women are employed she may not have control over the money she earns, though this money often plays an important role in the maintenance of the household. In Indian culture women are expected to devote virtually all of their time, energy and money to their family. Many Indian families are still living as joint families along with the parents and in-laws. This adds to their stress further because they have to please all the family members of her husband. Listen to their complaints that they make against her and turn deaf ears towards them and so on.

**Objective of the Study:**

1. To identify the factors preventing women employees from aspiring for higher post and troubles & problems faced by women workers.
2. To clear main problems of working women

**Employment Trends for Women in India:**

The increase in the number of women in the labor market signifies an important trend regarding women's employment. This has been occurring alongside increases in labor force and workforce, especially for urban women, although rural women workers predominate in terms of participation rates and overall magnitude. The increasing share of women's participation in the labor force and its significant contribution to household income as well as GDP require some policy attention be paid to the gender dimensions of employment. The eleventh Five Year Plan document for the first time in the history of Indian planning recognizes women not only as equal citizens but as 'agents of sustained socio-economic growth and change' (GOI, 2008, p. 5). A multi-pronged approach is emphasized to address issues concerning women workers, such as provision of basic entitlements and strengthening of institutional mechanisms.

The increase in the growth of employment appears to be much higher for female workers compared to male workers. Even where the proportion of working women as reflected in the female work participation rate may be low, the absolute numbers have significantly increased, given the rate of population growth over time. The increase in work opportunities during the early years of the new millennium has been to the tune of 9.3 million jobs per annum (from 1999-2000 to 2004-05). This acceleration in employment growth from 1.25 per cent per annum (1993-94 to 1999-2000) to 2.62 per cent per annum in the period 1999-2000 to 2004-05 (GOI, 2008) has been beneficial to women's participation as well. Of the 46 million job opportunities created from 1999-2000 to 2004-05 (compared to 24 million in the earlier period, i.e., 1993-94 to 1999-2000), nearly 15 million women joined the workforce. Urban areas almost doubled their number of women workers, while in rural areas women workers increased from 9 to 12 million. Are these signs of a gradual but definite wind of change with more women entering the labour market? This positive change is noted more forcefully in the urban context where requisite educational inputs and modern thinking vis-à-vis women's work is increasingly becoming noticeable. Rural agriculture is increasingly drawing women's laboursupplies, with over four-fifths of the women in rural areas working in agriculture. This gainsignificance amidst the declining share of male workers (from 74 per cent in 1993-94 to 66 per cent in 2004-05). Thus it seems that women in rural areas are finding it harder to shift away from agriculture. Involvement of women in agriculture is largely as cultivators/farmers as well as agricultural laborers. However, there has been a slight decline in the share of women as agricultural laborers, while their share among cultivators has increased.

In urban areas, women have achieved substantially higher growth of employment in manufacturing and have been able to increase their share, especially after 1999-2000 (from 24 per cent to over 28 per cent in 2004-05). Thus, in urban areas, the share of female workers in manufacturing has increased substantially while that of male workers has not.

Even in the services sector, women have gained in terms of employment, especially in the domestic and personal.

**Issues and Challenges among Working Women:**

- Occupational problems as stress:
- Mental harassment
- Sexual harassment:
- Discrimination at Workplace:
- Lack of Family Support:
- Insufficient Maternity Leaves:
- Job insecurity:
- No Safety of Working Women While Traveling:

**Conclusion:**

Now a day's women workers are improved and promote in their workplace and in technological work. Trade Union should try to improve the conditions for woman's workers in many parts for example maternity leave is easily give to women and help the woman for achieve higher post actually women's nature is promotion to gain high quality in every field but if the condition is not ready then the reduction of promotion and optimization in work
will be occur and etc. Women workers are often subject to sexual harassment then the Government should put strict rules for these types of crimes, also public transport system sometimes danger for woman and Government should put more Inspection. Traditionally people think that men should only work and gain money and women should work as house hold, but the financial demands on the Indian families. The scenario only can be changed with the government intervention, by implementing the policies strictly. Strict action has to be taken against all those who harass the employees. It is very necessary to all workers to know about Government Schemes. The status of the women only can be improved when major transition in the society occurs and that can be achieved by mind set transition. More research is required in this area to suggest solutions to existing problems and on issues like social security and positive impact of unions and labour Acts on the workers.

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