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Founder
S. S. Shashi

Chief Editor
Dharam Vir

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Contents

Contents (Continued)

1

Globalization and Security : The Becoming of an Insecure Nation

Rahul Singhal*

There are no two opinions on the fact that security is highly contested and politicized phenomenon and concept. The contemporary times have an unsavory knack of abusing almost everything under the sun, be it globalization (marred by blatant capitalism), facts (creating alternate facts), human beings (gender differences, sexual exploitation), language (truth and post-truth), nature (pollution and exploitation), and the list goes on; and the whole notion of 'security' also stands in the same territory. The paper intends towards an analysis of the argument that the yearning, and need for being far more secure (in social, economic and cultural context) than before has actually made us much more vulnerable. The failure of 'globalization from below', the success of 'globalization from above', navigation without reference to a fixed point, a North star and the absence of critical thinking and improved education policies and system, have coerced us in favour of fascist regimes, protectionism, extreme form of nationalism, walling of borders and creation of delusionary 'threat' and the 'threatened' - two major elements of 'security'. In the light of aforementioned argument, the paper plans towards fleshing out of the recent unfortunate incidents in India, where 'cow' is far more 'threatened' than the human beings and in order to protect it human beings must be lynched, the silencing of independent and questioning voices of journalists, the disappearance and suicide of students from university campuses, suicides of farmers in the absence of emancipatory policies, and lastly, manufacturing of mob who is ready to brand you as an anti-national and lynch you - all in the false sense of becoming 'secure'. This study in the wake of analysis of abovementioned incidents and

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happenings aims towards an understanding of the meaning of being 'secure' - is it arms versus policies, nationalism versus accommodation, power versus modesty, fascism versus democracy?

[**Keywords :** Globalization, Security, Nationalism, Fascism, Policies, Abuse]

1. Introduction

Much ink has been spilt historically and even in the present times the 'spillage', and 'slippage' continues, to chronicle, explain, critically examine, and to include different perspectives related to various unfortunate incidents, and pogroms all around the globe. Neither the unfortunate has ceased to exist nor the piling up of empty ink bottles as a resultant. Though one can certainly not question the 'ink-spillage' and make policies for sustainable use of ink, but one can surely ask the question - ''Do we as human beings have failed ourselves and continue to do so almost religiously every morning, evening and night? Additionally, this question gains much more pungency especially in the context of banalities like, good morning, evening and night where there is an incessant refusal to examine the good in 'good' ''?

On the surface level the question, for few or many, may seem like a cliché and a classic example of ink spillage, but by rendering any statement, an idea, a fact, a thought or for that matter any response as cliché, does that objective or subjective musing cease to exist and evaporate on the pretext of being called as cliché? The answer is certainly no; it does not; it remains there, staring in our face asking to be understood, interpreted, and critically opened. It is in this drawn framework or context which establishes the validity of the aforementioned question this discussion will aim towards -'why' this question, which in a larger context is also the main argument of this question.

The answer to the 'why' of this question can easily be understood from the oppressive, dominating and hegemonic power structures of rule and relationships which has lead to unimaginable and unheard atrocities and violence in almost every part of the world to the effect that whenever there is a sense of peace in the world, there is a joke which starts going around which can be summed up best in one line - that the world is witnessing an outbreak of peace. The creation of Salwa Judum by the Indian state in order to butcher the resistance movements in Chattisgarh, India, inserting of stones in the vagina of a school teacher, Soni Sori, in Bastar, India (Roy, 2011) and at the world level, the bombing of Iraq, Syria, Yemen and Palestine are few such examples of violence. Additionally, this discussion apart from aiming towards the critical description of the incidents of the above mentioned nature and questioning the dying spirit of human and moral values, will also look into the questioning of the collective response of the fellow humans who rendered themselves as bystanders in various parts of the worlds while the painful and gut-wrenching screams of these mutilated humans echoed in the chambers of the heart of humanity.

2. Globalization and its Role in 'War in Nations'

Moving further towards the central argument of this paper which attempts not only to study the reasons for recent multifarious incidents of violence on minorities in India but also tries to comprehend the role of globalization in giving an unabated impetus to the variables responsible for such violence. Post the fall of Berlin wall in 1989 globalization gained unprecedented currency, and after the 9/11 attacks, this currency has exponentially increased even though there were unsubstantiated calls for the end of the global after 9/11. But to the surprise of the social scientists and the denizens of this world globalization proved much more resilient a process, a phenomenon and a concept that anyone could ever theorize or imagine. The newness inherent in the globalization is almost beyond the chains of language or for that matter any particular definition.

The 9/11 attacks apart from bringing in the questions pertaining to the end of globalization also gave world a shock with regard to the perils of free trade, deep economic integration and faster capital flows and raised a paradoxical question as to why even after open markets, free-flowing capital and liberal ideas, spread of democracy and strengthening of democratic institutions, there is a considerable increase in the attacks on minorities or for that matter in the incidents of violence? Why there is an inclination of the voters towards leaders who are openly fascist? Why there is a blurring of lines between 'wars of the nation and wars in the nation'? (Appadurai, 2006 : 15)

The answers to the aforementioned questions lie in the inequalities and exclusions which are generated because of the globalization. Globalization as a form is certainly not at fault but the contents with which the form of globalization is filled are problematic thus leading to 'globalization from above', that is, corporate globalization, ideology of financial community based on predatory capitalism, soft capital, market fundamentalism, environmental degradation, neoliberalism, unsustainable and uneven development, globalization of war, inequality of power, wealth and knowledge, lack of transparency, un-accountability and discriminatory policies of IMF, World Bank, World Economic Forum and the G8. Joseph Stiglitz paints the picture rather much more clearly:

> "..a society more divided between the haves and the have-nots,..the rich live in gated communities, send their children to expensive schools, and have access to first-rate medical care. Meanwhile, the rest live in a world marked by insecurity, at best mediocre education, and in effect rationed health care?they hope and pray they don't get seriously sick. At the bottom are millions of young people alienated and without hope. I have seen that picture in many developing countries; economists have given it a name, a dual economy, two societies living side by side, but hardly knowing each other, hardly imagining what life is like for the other. Whether we will fall to the depths of some countries, where the gates grow higher, and the societies split

> farther and farther apart, I do not know. It is, however, the nightmare towards which we are slowly marching" (2012 : 229).

The above explanation leads us to the question of uncertainty, failed promises, broken dreams, and fallen desires thus leading to anxiety regarding the future. A future of which no leader, no nation is ready to take hold to prevent it from breaking into million pieces and as Rakesh Sood remarks :

> Navigation requires reference to a fixed point, a North Star, but in today's policy world with all the major powers playing a hedging game, even as the existing institutions fall short of coping with the challenges posed by the world in transition, there is no pole. Every major power is dissatisfied with the status quo, but no major power or even a coalition of major powers is able to define, let alone seek to establish a new status quo (The Hindu).

Thus the world is witnessing the failure of anti-globalization movements and globalization from below which includes participatory democracy, grassroots partaking, protecting cultural diversity and global social justice, reduction of poverty, globalization of knowledge, improved health, globalized civil society and most importantly globalized protest movements among many others. The working middle class who was promised greater social and economic opportunities, like equality, financial security, progress, global citizenship and better lifestyle now finds itself in complete disarray leading to the growing disenchantment and resentment with the unregulated globalization and with the idea of liberal modernity. Moreover, none of the global leader or world organization is ready to take the responsibility of failure of globalization from below, rather they want to kick away the ladder of globalization after reaping its benefits, it is in this context that the global leaders who failed to regulate globalization and now in order to hide their inefficiency and to run away from accountability do not miss a single opportunity of blaming globalization (except Chinese President Xi Jinping) for all the ills of modern society - from Syrian refuge crisis to 2008 global financial crisis and resort towards use of'..misplaced xenophobia to find a scapegoat for economic woes' as said by Dr. Brian Klaas, Professor of politics at the LSE (Ram, The Hindu).

Furthermore, there has been a significant failure from the denizens of this world who failed themselves by not resorting to the use of reasoned critical thinking which is best explained in the words of Tabish Khair :

> "Reasoned thinking is not the same as Cartesian Reason. For Descartes and Enlightenment thinkers influenced by him, Reason - best written with a capital R - was an unconscious or conscious substitute for God. That is why it was so easy for Christian Evangelicals to combine Reason with Christianity in the 18th and 19th centuries…But this God-like Reason is not the same as reasoned critical thinking, though its instruments are similar. God-like Reason is unchanging, universal, all-seeing, absolute, (and) singular. Reasoned thinking is situational, historical, dialogically objective, and it can

> offer more than one conclusion. It is not relativist, but is always contextual. What reasoned thinking requires is an equal discourse in language, despite the slipperiness of language, about a world that is mutually experienced, despite the subjectivity of experience" (The Hindu).

The desperation, uncertainty and anxiety generated because of the failure of globalization from below, the inability to exercise reasoned critical thinking coupled with the rise in voices of protectionism and nationalism lead the citizens towards a situation where there was no exit other than choosing fascist regimes for their nations. But then the question is- are there any alternatives other than taking the support of the crutches of nationalism, and protectionism? Is there any line of thinking which can stand 'without the crutch of ideology'? (Mishra, The Hindu) What if, say after a decade the current political order harping on nationalism and localism is not able to produce the result as desired by the masses? What will be the alternative then?

'Genocide, after all, is an exercise in community-building.'

Philip Gourevitch (1998 : 95)

Though the analysis of globalization provides us with quite many reference points still, it doesn't provide us with the reasons for violent attacks on minorities in India. Henceforth, in order to understand the unholy link between globalization and the urge to massacre minorities can be understood from the theoretical model given by Arjun Appadurai's in his seminal work titled, Fear of Small Numbers: an Essay on the Geography of Anger (2006).

According to the arguments propounded by Appadurai, modern nation-state and the idea of national sovereignty is built around the concept of singular 'national ethnos' or in other words, around 'some sort of ethnic genius' (2006: 3). And this ethnic singularity is cultivated, produced and spread around with a lot of efforts by political parties, warfare, and 'further through punishing disciplines of educational and linguistic uniformity, and through the subordination of myriad local and regional traditions to produce Indians or Frenchmen or Britons'. Globalization, as it results in uncontrollable and untraceable flow of capital, wealth generation, movement of human population and flow of ideas because of the revolution in information technologies creates a very difficult challenge to this idea of modern nation-state and to the fundamental sociological concepts of class, power, nation-state and shakes the foundations of these stable categories of social sciences. Thus the loss of 'the idea of a sovereign and stable territory, the idea of a containable and countable population, the idea of a reliable census, and the idea of stable and transparent categories countable population' (2006: 6) creates a kind of surge in the already existing 'social uncertainty' and also results in the loss of the 'illusion of national economic sovereignty'. The already existing categories of uncertainty include - uncertainty about the nature and behaviour of a particular community, which also includes their history, and about the sharing of resources and goods which are provided by the state and this depends upon the relationship of 'we' and 'they' categories with the state. Thus in the words of Appadurai :

> The virtually complete loss of even the fiction of a national economy, which had some evidence for its existence in the eras of strong socialist states and central planning, now leaves the cultural field as the main one in which fantasies of purity, authenticity, borders, and security can be enacted. It is no surprise that throughout the developing world, the death or implosion of national economies has been accompanied by the rise of various new fundamentalisms, majoritarianisms, and indigenisms, frequently with a marked ethmoidal edge. The nation-state has been steadily reduced to the fiction of its ethnos as the last cultural resource over which it may exercise full dominion (2006 : 23).

Therefore when the ethnos becomes the only sight to complete the unfinished project of national purity and quench the 'anxiety of incompleteness', the attacks on minorities in a nation starts. This anxiety exponentially increases on the face of the argument that majorities and minorities can exchange their places, if within time a necessary action is not taken, and without a doubt, the census plays an important role in it. The anxiety of incompleteness, further intensified by the globalization as the nation-states starts to feel as minorities in themselves because of the 'few megastates, of unruly economic flows and compromised sovereignty' (2006: 43) thus, transforms into an uncontrollable rage as minorities remind majorities 'of the small gap which lies between their condition as majorities and the horizon of an unsullied national whole, a pure and untainted national ethnos'. And since globalization cannot be killed or can become an object of ethnocide as it doesn't have a face, the minorities become the soft target (2006 : 8). As summarized by Appadurai :

> . . the very idea of being a majority is a frustration since it implies some sort of ethnic diffusion of the national peoplehood. Minorities, being a reminder of this small but frustrating deficit, thus unleash the urge to purify. This is one basic element of an answer to the question: why can small numbers excite rage? Small numbers represent a tiny obstacle between majority and totality or total purity. In a sense, the smaller the number and the weaker the minority, the deeper the rage about its capacity to make a majority feel like a mere majority than like a whole and uncontested ethnos (2006 : 53).

Furthermore, minorities become the recipient of wrath also because they remind the ruling class of the failures of globalization, of development and welfare, of their own failures thus it becomes necessary for them to purge minorities. As Appadurai explains :

> They [minorities] are produced in the specific circumstances of every nation and every nationalism. They are often the carriers of the unwanted memories of the acts of violence that produced existing states, of forced conscription, or

> of violent extrusion as new states were formed. They are also reminders of the failures of various state projects (socialist, developmentalist, and capitalist). They are marks of failure and coercion. They are embarrassments to any state-sponsored image of national purity and state fairness. They are thus scapegoats in the classical sense (2006 : 42).

But the paradoxical fact of the matter is that minorities are also desired by the state, and by the people who rule as they are also minorities in a numerical sense. The reasons for the need of minorities in the case of India comprise creating cheap labour and work force by programmes like 'Skill India', to win elections by polarizing the majorities against minorities, and it is also required by the 'numerical minority upper caste, landed Hindu castes who have much more to fear from the rise of the lower castes than they have to fear from Muslims in their own localities' (2006 : 74), thus they create Muslims as perfect 'other' to create a unified Hindu caste front; a point highlighted by Amrita Basu (1994).

Consequently, the points of conflicts which are generated by minorities encompass their language, their lifestyle which become a danger to the so-called 'national culture coherence', their financial transactions which are viewed with suspicion and are always under scrutiny, their movements which not only challenges the movements along borders but also within a territory, their legally ambiguous status which tests the constitution and legal orders, and lastly their politics which presents as a threat to the security of the state (Appadurai: 2006). Thus the whole body of a minority comes under suspicion and is dismembered from time to time when the majority 'predatory identities' are mobilized by the fascist leaders.

3. An Insecure Nation

Henceforth, it is in this aforementioned framework we can see and understand the dismembering of Mohammad Akhlaq because of eating beef, the brutal murder of Junaid Khan on a moving train days before the festival of Eid, lynching of Pehlu Khan by cow vigilante groups, the killing of Gauri Lankesh where she was shot thrice from a point blank range, the suicide of Rohit Vemula because he was of lower caste, the disappearance of Najeeb from Jawahar Lal Nehru University, where he is yet to be found even after more than a year of his disappearance, the suicides and murders of farmers across India and the list is endless. In all these attacks the saffron-clad and Rashtriya Sawaym Sevak Sangh (RSS) believers who think of themselves as majority try to quench their anxiety of incompleteness, they try to purge their rage which is in surplus because of no employment opportunities, because of above-mentioned perils of globalization, because of loss of their idea of national purity and lastly because of their fear that majorities can become minorities and vice-versa. The desire to cull 'M' is significant because in the culling of 'M' there is an incessant effort to erase the very idea of plurality, and to give rise to the idea of pure nation (Bharat Rashtra) based on ethnic singularity as propounded by Savarkar and Golwalkar which finds further amplifications in the writings of Savitri Devi. Thus because of the incessant desire, the yearning, and need for being far more secure (in social, economic and cultural context) than before has made us much more vulnerable and insecure.

Furthermore, the insecure nation India is also witnessing the manifestation of the fear in the form of creation of 'mob', who is ready to spread and socialize fear in the Indian society so that the voices which asks difficult questions are muted. The mob, according to Ravish Kumar, an Indian journalist :

> . . . is based upon the foundation of fear. Responding to external fears, many people started becoming part of the mob. These individuals first feared their own fellow citizens because of their religion; then, once they joined the mob, they learnt fear from the masters and controllers of the mob. The reason for their silence was simple. They understood, 'If the mob can do this to these people, it can do the same to me'. People joined the mob to silence others; what they did not realize was that they had also learnt to become and remain silent (2018 : 17).

Thus a nation which once took pride in calling itself as the most diverse nation, a nation which celebrated Eid, Diwali and Christmas with alike happiness, a nation whose social fabric was unbreakable and a nation which took immense pride in its 'Innocence' in Blakenian (2014) terms is now witnessing the blasting of 'Innocence' and the dawn of the age of 'Experience' thus rendering it as one of the most insecure nations and that too for forever as once 'Experience' has gained control there cannot be any irreversible action.

Globalization also creates insecurities because of the development model which it carries on its shoulders. The development model which globalization carries first took its shape after World War II, traces of which can be located in President Truman's inaugural address delivered on January 20, 1949. Since then the 'development' has been an issue of study, critique and analysis from modernization theorists to dependency theorists to world system theorists. One can certainly discuss at length about globalization and development but that's the matter of a future study and beyond the scope of this paper.

4. The Solution

There can be an answer to the above questions and problems which may border around the need for globalization with a human face as propagated by various globalization theorists from David Held, to Anthony McGrew to Joseph Stiglitz and many others. But this study will not propose the calls for globalization with a human face as it has failed to bring in any substantial and concrete change worldwide. Rather this study will aim towards the solutions which will bring in the cultivation of reasoned critical thinking in human beings, and this can be achieved by protecting, nurturing, and enriching our higher education institutions which have come under serious attack from global capitalist organizations after the 2008-09 global financial crises. The call for the cultivation of critical thinking becomes important because it's the critical thinking which can help us in understanding a concept, a phenomenon, a statement, an incident, an occurrence from multifarious perspectives. Thus it can enable us in peeling of hidden layers, agendas, propaganda, and motives behind any rendering. It's the critical thinking which can help us in making an informed choice and can lead us to 'Higher Innocence' which comes after the age of 'Experience'.

More importantly, we the human beings need to realise that there is no particular point in human history which we can hold as responsible for the evil in human psyche or human civilization. Further, if we take refuge in the explanations given by religious texts for the evil in human society than in one way or other we are legitimizing the presence of evil in human society, thus there can also be calls to just sit back and watch the world burn in front of your eyes. This argument leads to another premise that the evil is inherent in human beings and in order to control, suppress and guard the evil we need reasoned critical thinking, which can help us in differentiating between the 'good' and the 'bad'. Additionally, the solutions to the aforementioned problems can also be located in the ceasing of mourning over the death of the 'intellectual'. The time is ripe for the revival of the 'Intellectual' which can be ascertained by the reading and re-reading of Edward Said's 'Representations of the Intellectual' (1996). And for a starting point one can read this definition of an 'intellectual' by Said :

> The central fact for me is, I think, that the intellectual is an individual endowed with a faculty for representing, embodying, articulating a message, a view, an attitude, philosophy or opinion to, as well for, a public. And this role has an edge to it, and cannot be played without a sense of being someone whose place it is publicly to raise embarrassing questions, to confront orthodoxy and dogma (rather than to produce them), to be someone who cannot easily be co-opted by governments or corporations, and whose raison d'être is to represent all those people and issues that are routinely forgotten or swept under the rug (1996 : 12).

In addition, this particular rendering by Allama Iqbal can seriously embalm and embolden our spirits as it calls for human beings to be true to their respective self's :

> Apne man mein doob kar paa ja surag-e-Zindagi
>
> tu agar mera nahi banta na ban, apna to ban.
>
> Delve into your soul and there seek our life's buried tracks;
>
> Will you not be mine? Then be not mine, be your own right!

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2

Role of Extension Education in achieving Sustainable Development Goals

Lalita Vatta and Shally Jindal***

India's national Millennium Development Goal (MDG) Report released in 2015 reveals much work remains to be done in reducing hunger, improving maternal mortality rates and enabling greater access to water and sanitation targets, as well as reducing social and geographic inequalities in achieving these targets. However, progress made during the MDGs period has proven that, with sound strategies and targeted interventions, global action can work. India is poised to carry forward this momentum into the 2030 agenda for Sustainable Development, for 'transforming our world' and ensuring that the most vulnerable are not left behind and it can be achieved by awareness, dedicating ourselves to a human-centric, rights-based approach, right mix of policies and incentives, gender equality, accelerating technology, partnership models improving finances, transparency in institutes, e-governance etc. Human being are the base of all these strategies. Whereas extension education is an applied behavioural science, the knowledge of which is applied to bring about desirable changes in the behavioural complex of human beings usually through various strategies & programmes of change & by applying the latest scientific & technological innovations. The present concept paper is an attempt to identify the role of extension education in the journey of achieving sustainable development goals.

[**Keywords :** Extension Education, Sustainable development, Strategies]

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1. Introduction

India has, over the past years, directed its development pathway to meet its priorities of employment, economic growth, food, water and energy security, disaster resilience and poverty alleviation. India has also aimed to restore its natural capital and adopt transparent and robust governance along democratic lines. However, emerging challenges of climate change impacts, increasing inequities, and lagging human development indices are well recognized by both the citizens as well as the government. The post 2015 UN Sustainable Development Agenda framework provides an opportunity to renew and integrate efforts in order to meet, to a significant degree, national and global aspirations in a defined time frame. The SDGs will be more ambitious than the MDGs, covering a broad range of interconnected issues, from economic growth to social issues to global public goods. To realize this vision, a just-as-ambitious plan for financing and implementation is needed. The magnitude of the SDG financing challenge far exceeds the capacity of any one organization and demands a strong partnership among governments, the private sector, and development organizations

NITI Aayog has been entrusted with the role to co-ordinate 'Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development' (called as SDGs). Moving ahead from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), SDGs have been evolved through a long inclusive process for achievement during 2016-2030. The SDGs have been developed through an unprecedented consultative process that brought national governments and millions of citizens from across the globe together to negotiate and adopt the ambitious agenda. It cover 17 goals and 169 related targets resolved in the UN Summit meet 25-27 September 2015, in which India was represented at the level of Hon'ble Prime Minister. These SDGs will stimulate, align and accomplish action over the 15-year period in areas of critical importance for the humanity and the planet.

The task at hand for NITI Aayog is not merely to periodically collect data on SDGs but to act pro-actively fructify the goals and targets not only quantitatively but also maintaining high standards of quality. Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation (MoSPI) has already undertaken a parallel exercise of interaction with the ministries to evolve indicators reflecting the SDG goals and targets.

To achieve these tasks, the draft mapping of the goals and targets as an initial step on proposed Nodal and other Ministries has been carried out in consultation with MoSPI. Further, as an illustration, the Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSSs),including the 'core of the core', 'core' and 'optional' Schemes being implemented by the States have been mapped along with some of the recent initiatives undertaken by the Central Government. In addition, Ministries are implementing Central Sector Schemes and States are also implementing various State Schemes aligned with one or more SDGs.

The SDGs have been developed through an unprecedented consultative process that brought national governments and millions of citizens from across the globe together to negotiate and adopt the ambitious agenda . As Prime Minister Narendra Modi has stated, "These goals reflect our evolving understanding of the social, economic and environmental linkages that define our lives." India's development mantra "Sabka Saath Sabka Vikas" (Collective Effort, Inclusive Development) and the associated national programs closely track the SDGs.

2. Five P's of Sustainable Development

- **People :** to end poverty and hunger, in all their forms and dimensions, and to ensure that all human beings can fulfil their potential in dignity and equality and in a healthy environment.
- **Planet :** to protect the planet from degradation, including through sustainable consumption and production, sustainably managing its natural resources and taking urgent action on climate change, so that it can support the needs of the present and future generations.
- **Prosperity :** to ensure that all human beings can enjoy prosperous and fulfilling lives and that economic, social and technological progress occurs in harmony with nature.
- **Peace :** to foster peaceful, just and inclusive societies free from fear and violence. There can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development.
- **Partnership :** to mobilize the means required to implement this agenda through a revitalized global partnership for sustainable development, based on a spirit of strengthened global solidarity, focused in particular on the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable and with the participation of all countries, all stakeholders and all people.

3. Sustainable Development Goals

3·1 End Poverty in all its Forms Everywhere

1. By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than $1.25 a day.
2. By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions.
3. Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.
4. By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic

services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including micro-finance.

5. By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.
   - Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions
   - Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Rural Development **Centrally Sponsored Schemes :** National Urban Livelihood Mission ***(Core)***, National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGA) (Core of the Core), National Rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM) ***(Core)***, National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP) (M/o RD/M/o Finance) ***(Core of the Core)***, National Land Record Management Programme (NLRMP). **Related Interventions :** Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana, Pradhan Mantri Jeevan Jyoti Bima Yojana , Atal Pension Yojana (APY).

3·2 End Hunger, Achieve Food Security and Improved Nutrition and Promote Sustainable Agriculture

1. By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round.
2. By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons.
3. By 2030, double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, in particular women, indigenous peoples, family farmers, pastoralists and fishers, including through secure and equal access to land, other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.
4. By 2030, ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate

change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality.

5. By 2020, maintain the genetic diversity of seeds, cultivated plants and farmed and domesticated animals and their related wild species, including through soundly managed and diversified seed and plant banks at the national, regional and international levels, and promote access to and fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge, as internationally agreed.
   - Increase investment, including through enhanced international cooperation, in rural infrastructure, agricultural research and extension services, technology development and plant and livestock gene banks in order to enhance agricultural productive capacity in developing countries, in particular least developed countries.
   - Correct and prevent trade restrictions and distortions in world agricultural markets, including through the parallel elimination of all forms of agricultural export subsidies and all export measures with equivalent effect, in accordance with the mandate of the Doha Development Round.
   - Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, in order to help limit extreme food price volatility.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Agriculture & Farmers Welfare **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** National Food Security Mission ***(Core)***, Mission for integrated Development of Horticulture, National Mission on Sustainable Agriculture, National Oilseed and Oil Palm Mission, National Mission on Agriculture Extension and Technology, Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana (RKVY) (ACA) ***(Core)***, National Livestock Mission (Core), Livestock Health and Disease Control ***(Core)***, National Programme for Bovine Breeding and Dairy Development. **Related Interventions :** Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) , National Nutrition Mission (NNM) ***(Core)***, National Food Security Act (NFSA), passed in 2013 , Mid-Day Meal Scheme.

3·3 Ensure Healthy Lives and Promote Well-being for All at All Ages

Working with the States

1. By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.
2. By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births.

3. By 2030, end the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases.
4. By 2030, reduce by one third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being.
5. Strengthen the prevention and treatment of substance abuse, including narcotic drug abuse and harmful use of alcohol.
6. By 2020, halve the number of global deaths and injuries from road traffic accidents.
7. By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.
8. Achieve universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health-care services and access to safe, effective quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all.
9. By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution and contamination.
   - Strengthen the implementation of the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control in all countries, as appropriate.
   - Support the research and development of vaccines and medicines for the communicable and non communicable diseases that primarily affect developing countries, provide access to affordable essential medicines and vaccines, in accordance with the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health, which affirms the right of developing countries to use to the full the provisions in the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights regarding flexibilities to protect public health, and, in particular, provide access to medicines for all.
   - Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce in developing countries, especially in least developed countries and small island developing States.
   - Strengthen the capacity of all countries, in particular developing ones, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Health & Family Welfare **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** National Health Mission including NRHM ***(Core)***, Human Resource in Health and Medical Education ***(Core)***, National Mission on Ayush including Mission on Medical Plants ***(Core)***, National AIDS &STD Control Programme, Integrated Child Development Service (ICDS) ***(Core).*** **Related Interventions :** Pradhan Mantri Swasthya Suraksha Yojana (2006) ***(Core)***.

3·4 Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all

1. By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.
2. By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education.
3. By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.
4. By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.
5. By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations.
6. By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy.
7. By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and nonviolence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture‘s contribution to sustainable development.
   - Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.
   - By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries.
   - By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : HRD

Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) : Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan ***(Core)***, National Programme Nutritional Support to Primary Education (MDM) ***(Core)***, Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan (RMSA) ***(Core)***, Support for Educational Development including Teachers Training & Adult Education ***(Core)***, Scheme for providing education to Madrasas, Minorities and Disabled ***(Core of the Core)***, Rashtriya Uchhtar Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA) ***(Core)***,Umbrella scheme for Education of ST students ***(Core of the Core)***.
Related Interventions : Padhe Bharat Badhe Bharat.

3·5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

1. End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.
2. Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.
3. Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.
4. Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.
5. Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.
6. Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.
   - Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.
   - Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.
   - Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : WCD
Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) : National Mission for Empowerment of Women including Indira Gandhi Mattritav Sahyog Yojana ***(Core)***, Rajiv Gandhi Scheme for Empowerment of Adolescent Girls (SABLA) ***(Core).***

Related Interventions : Beti Bachao Beti Padhao, Sukanya Samridhi Yojana (Girl Child Prosperity Scheme), Support to Training And Employment Programme For Women (STEP) 2014, Janani Suraksha Yojana (JSY) , SWADHAR 2011 (A scheme for women in difficult circumstances) , Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalay (KGBV).

3·6 Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

1. By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access tosafe and affordable drinking water for all.
2. By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.
3. By 2030, improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and minimizing release of hazardous chemicals and materials,halving the proportion of untreated wastewater and substantially increasing recycling and safe reuse globally.
4. By 2030, substantially increase water-use efficiency across all sectors and ensure sustainable withdrawals and supply of freshwater to address water scarcity and substantially reduce the number of people suffering from water scarcity.
5. By 2030, implement integrated water resources management at all levels, including through trans-boundary cooperation as appropriate.
6. By 2020, protect and restore water-related ecosystems, including mountains, forests, wetlands, rivers, aquifers and lakes.
   - By 2030, expand international cooperation and capacity-building support to developing countries in water- and sanitation-related activities and programmes, including water harvesting, desalination, water efficiency, wastewater treatment, recycling and reuse technologies.
   - Support and strengthen the participation of local communities in improving water and sanitation management.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Ministry of Water Resources, River Development & Ganga Rejuvenation (MoWR,RD&GR). **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** National Rural Drinking water Programme ***(Core)***, Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan ***(Core)***, Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchayee Yojana, National River Conservation Programme (NRCP). **Related Interventions :** Namami Gange - Integrated Ganga Conservation Mission, Inter-linking of rivers.

3·7 Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all

1. By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services.
2. By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix.
3. By 2030, double the global rate of improvement in energy efficiency.
   - By 2030, enhance international cooperation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology, including renewable energy, energy efficiency and advanced and cleaner fossil-fuel technology, and promote investment in energy infrastructure and clean energy technology.
   - By 2030, expand infrastructure and upgrade technology for supplying modern and sustainable energy services for all in developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their respective programmes of support.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Power **Related Interventions :** Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Gram Jyoti Yojana , National Solar Mission - providing continuous power supply to rural India, India Energy Policy, Power (2015)- Electrificiation of the remaining 20,000 villages including off-grid, Solar Power by 2020, Five new Ultra Mega Power Projects, each of 4000 MW to be installed.

3·8 Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

1. Sustain per capita economic growth in accordance with national circumstances and, in particular, at least 7 per cent gross domestic product growth per annum in the least developed countries.
2. Achieve higher levels of economic productivity through diversification, technological upgrading and innovation, including through a focus on high value added and labour-intensive sectors.
3. Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation,entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services.
4. Improve progressively, through 2030, global resource efficiency in consumption and production and endeavour to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation, in accordance with the10-year framework of programmes on sustainable consumption and production, with developed countries taking the lead.

5. By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value.
6. By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training.
7. Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.
8. Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants,and those in precarious employment.
9. By 2030, devise and implement policies to promote sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.
10. Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.
    - Increase Aid for Trade support for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, including through the Enhanced Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries.
    - By 2020, develop and operationalize a global strategy for youth employment and implement the Global Jobs Pact of the International Labour Organization.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Labour & Employment **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** National Service Scheme (NSS), Skill Development Mission, Social Security for Unorganized Workers including Rashtriya Swastya Bima Yojana ***(Core)***. **Related Interventions :** Deendayal Upadhyaya Antodaya Yojana, National Urban Development Mission.

3·9 Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

1. Develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure, including regional and trans-border infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all.
2. Promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and, by 2030, significantly raise industry's share of employment and gross domestic

product, in line with national circumstances, and double its share in least developed countries.

3. Increase the access of small-scale industrial and other enterprises, in particular in developing countries, to financial services, including affordable credit, and their integration into value chains and markets.
4. By 2030, upgrade infrastructure and retrofit industries to make them sustainable, with increased resource-use efficiency and greater adoption of clean and environmentally sound technologies and industrial processes, with all countries taking action in accordance with their respective capabilities.
5. Enhance scientific research, upgrade the technological capabilities of industrial sectors in all countries, in particular developing countries, including, by 2030, encouraging innovation and substantially increasing the number of research and development workers per 1 million people and public and private research and development spending.
   - Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development in developing countries through enhanced financial, technological and technical support to African countries, least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.
   - Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities.
   - Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the Internet in least developed countries by 2020.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Commerce & Industry **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Border Area Development Programme (BADP) (ACA) (MHA/M/o Finance), National Handloom Development Programme, Catalytic Development Programme under Sericulture, Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) ***(Core).*** **Related Interventions :** Pt. Deendayal Upadhyaya Shramev Jayate Karyakram, Minimum Government Maximum Governance, Make in India, Start Up India , Ease of doing business initiative, FDI Policy.

3·10 Reduce inequality within and among countries

1. By 2030, progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40 per cent of the population at a rate higher than the national average.
2. By 2030, empower and promote the social,economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin,religion or economic or other status.

3. Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.
4. Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater equality.
5. Improve the regulation and monitoring of global financial markets and institutions and strengthen the implementation of such regulations.
6. Ensure enhanced representation and voice for developing countries in decision-making in global international economic and financial institutions in order to deliver more effective, credible, accountable and legitimate institutions.
7. Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through.
   - Implement the principle of special and differential treatment for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, in accordance with World Trade Organization agreements.
   - Encourage official development assistance and financial flows, including foreign direct investment, to States where the need is greatest, in particular least developed countries, African countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their national plans and programmes.
   - By 2030, reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Social Justice & Empowerment **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Multi Sectoral Development Programme for Minorities, Backward Regions Grant Fund (District Component) (ACA) (M/o PR/M/o Finance), Scheme for Development of Scheduled Castes ***(Core of the Core)***, Scheme for Development of Other Backward Classes and Denotified, Nomadic and Semi-nomadic Tribes ***(Core of the Core)***, Scheme for development of Economically Backward Classes (EBCs), Grant Fund (BRGF) (State Component) (ACA). **Related Interventions :** Grants from Central Pool of Resources for North Eastern Region and Sikkim, Udaan Scheme for youth of Jammu & Kashmir , PAHAL- Direct Benefits Transfer for LPG(DBTL) consumers scheme , Give it Up Campaign (for LPG subsidy), Mudra Yojana.

3·11 Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

1. By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums.

2. By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable,accessible and sustainable transport systems for all,improving road safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations, women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons.
3. By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries.
4. Strengthen efforts to protect and safeguard the world's cultural and natural heritage.
5. By 2030, significantly reduce the number of deaths and the number of people affected and substantially decrease the direct economic losses relative to global gross domestic product caused by disasters,including water-related disasters, with a focus on protecting the poor and people in vulnerable situations.
6. By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to air quality and municipal and other waste management.
7. By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities.
   - Support positive economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas by strengthening national and regional development planning
   - By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels.
   - Support least developed countries, including through financial and technical assistance, in building sustainable and resilient buildings utilizing local materials.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal ministry : Urban Development **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Rajiv Awas Yojana (including BSUP & IHSDP), Indira Awas Yojana (IAY), Pradhan Mantri Adarsh Gram Yojana (PMAGY), National Programme for Persons with Disabilities, Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) (ACA). **Related Interventions :** Smart Cities Mission (Core), Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojana (Housing for All-2022) ***(Core)***, Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) ***(Core)***,Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY).

3·12 Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

1. Implement the 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns, all countries taking action, with developed countries taking the lead, taking into account the development and capabilities of developing countries.
2. By 2030, achieve the sustainable management and efficient use of natural resources.
3. By 2030, halve per capita global food waste at there tail and consumer levels and reduce food losses along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses.
4. By 2020, achieve the environmentally sound management of chemicals and all wastes throughout their life cycle, in accordance with agreed international frameworks, and significantly reduce their release to air, water and soil in order to minimize their adverse impacts on human health and the environment.
5. By 2030, substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling and reuse.
6. Encourage companies, especially large and transnational companies, to adopt sustainable practices and to integrate sustainability information into their reporting cycle.
7. Promote public procurement practices that are sustainable, in accordance with national policies and priorities.
8. By 2030, ensure that people everywhere have the relevant information and awareness for sustainable development and lifestyles in harmony with nature.
   - Support developing countries to strengthen their scientific and technological capacity to move towards more sustainable patterns of consumption and production.
   - Develop and implement tools to monitor sustainable development impacts for sustainable tourism that creates jobs and promotes local culture and products.
   - Rationalize inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies that encourage wasteful consumption by removing market distortions, in accordance with national circumstances, including by restructuring taxation and phasing out those harmful subsidies, where they exist, to reflect their environmental impacts, taking fully into account the specific needs and conditions of developing countries and minimizing the possible adverse impacts on their development in a manner that protects the poor and the affected communities.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : MoEF&CC **Related Interventions :** National Action Plan on Climate Change, National Mission for a Green India, National Solar Mission, National Mission for Enhanced Energy Efficiency, National Mission for Sustainable Habitat, National Water Mission, National Mission for Sustaining the Himalayan Ecosystem, National Mission for Sustainable Agriculture and National Mission on Strategic Knowledge for Climate Change.

3·13 Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

1. Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries.
2. Integrate climate change measures into national policies, strategies and planning.
3. Improve education, awareness-raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning.
   - Implement the commitment undertaken by developed-country parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to a goal of mobilizing jointly $100 billion annually by 2020 from all sources to address the needs of developing countries in the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation and fully operationalize the Green Climate Fund through its capitalization as soon as possible.
   - Promote mechanisms for raising capacity for effective climate change-related planning and management in least developed countries and small island developing States, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities.

   India's challenge with terrestrial biodiversity are :

   - 2.4% of world's land area, 7-8% of recorded species, 18% of human and cattle population.
   - Tremendous biotic pressure, high population density.
   - Over 46,000 species of plants and 96,000 species of animals recorded so far - mega diverse.
   - Acknowledged centre of crop diversity.
   - Diversity of ecosystems - 10 biogeographic zones.

3·14 Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development

1. By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution.

2. By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration in order to achieve healthy and productive oceans.
3. Minimize and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels.
4. By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end over-fishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans, in order to restore fish stocks in the shortest time feasible, at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as determined by their biological characteristics.
5. By 2020, conserve at least 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information.
6. By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity and over-fishing, eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and refrain from introducing new such subsidies, recognizing that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of the World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation.
7. By 2030, increase the economic benefits to small island developing States and least developed countries from the sustainable use of marine resources, including through sustainable management of fisheries, aqua-culture and tourism.
   - Increase scientific knowledge, develop research capacity and transfer marine technology, taking into account the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission Criteria and Guidelines on the Transfer of Marine Technology, in order to improve ocean health and to enhance the contribution of marine biodiversity to the development of developing countries, in particular small island developing States and least developed countries.
   - Provide access for small-scale artisanal fishers to marine resources and markets.
   - Enhance the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources by implementing international law as reflected in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, which provides the legal framework for the conservation and sustainable use of oceans and their resources, as recalled in paragraph 158 of "The future we want".

India's marine and freshwater biodiversity With over 200 diatom species (smaller than plankton), 90 dinoflagellates (floating microorganisms), 844 marine algae and 39 mangrove species, the marine floral biodiversity of India is remarkable 23 marine Protected Areas (PAs) in peninsular India and 106 in the islands. The global value of ecosystem services of wetlands $ 4.9 trillion/year.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Earth Sciences **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Conservation of Natural Resources & Eco Systems. **Related Interventions :** National Plan for Conservation of Aquatic Eco-System, Sagarmala Project (Blue Revolution).

3·15 Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

1. By 2020, ensure the conservation, restoration and sustainable use of terrestrial and inland freshwater ecosystems and their services, in particular forests, wetlands, mountains and drylands, in line with obligations under international agreements.
2. By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests and substantially increase afforestation and reforestation globally.
3. By 2030, combat desertification, restore degraded land and soil, including land affected by desertification, drought and floods, and strive to achieve a land degradation-neutral world.
4. By 2030, ensure the conservation of mountain ecosystems, including their biodiversity, in order to enhance their capacity to provide benefits that are essential for sustainable development.
5. Take urgent and significant action to reduce the degradation of natural habitats, halt the loss of biodiversity and, by 2020, protect and prevent the extinction of threatened species.
6. Promote fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the utilization of genetic resources and promote appropriate access to such resources, as internationally agreed.
7. Take urgent action to end poaching and trafficking of protected species of flora and fauna and address both demand and supply of illegal wildlife products.
8. By 2020, introduce measures to prevent the introduction and significantly reduce the impact of invasive alien species on land and water ecosystems and control or eradicate the priority species.

9. By 2020, integrate ecosystem and biodiversity values into national and local planning, development processes, poverty reduction strategies and accounts.
   - Mobilize and significantly increase financial resources from all sources to conserve and sustainably use biodiversity and ecosystems.
   - Mobilize significant resources from all sources and at all levels to finance sustainable forest management and provide adequate incentives to developing countries to advance such management, including for conservation and reforestation.
   - Enhance global support for efforts to combat poaching and trafficking of protected species, including by increasing the capacity of local communities to pursue sustainable livelihood opportunities.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : MoEF&CC
Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) : National Afforestation Programme (National Mission for a Green India) ***(Core)***, Integrated Development of Wild Life Habitats ***(Core)***. Project Tiger ***(Core)***.
Related Interventions : Project Elephant, National Environmental Policy 2006, National Agroforestry Policy (2014) , National Action Programme to Combat Desertification (2001).

Climate Change-Biodiversity linkages :

- Healthy ecosystems and rich biodiversity are fundamental to our life - food, fibre, raw materials, clean air and fresh water. Even small changes in average temperatures can have a significant effect upon species and ecosystems.
- The inter-connectedness of nature means climate change has a knock-on effects upon a range of ecosystem functions.

3·16 Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

1. Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere.
2. End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children.
3. Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all.
4. By 2030, significantly reduce illicit financial and arms flows, strengthen the recovery and return of stolen assets and combat all forms of organized crime.
5. Substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms.
6. Develop effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels.

7. Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels.
8. Broaden and strengthen the participation of developing countries in the institutions of global governance.
9. By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration.
10. Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements.
    - Strengthen relevant national institutions, including through international cooperation, for building capacity at all levels, in particular in developing countries, to prevent violence and combat terrorism and crime.
    - Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Home Affairs **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Panchayat Yuva Krida aur Khel Abhiyan (PYKKA), Development of Infrastructure Facilities for Judiciary including Gram Nyayalayas ***(Core)***, Integrated Child Protection Scheme (ICPS) ***(Core)***. **Related Interventions :** Digital India, Pragati Platform (Public Grievance Redressal System), RTI (Right to Information Act).

3·17 Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development

Finance

1. Strengthen domestic resource mobilization,including through international support to developing countries, to improve domestic capacity for tax and other revenue collection.
2. Developed countries to implement fully their official development assistance commitments, including the commitment by many developed countries toachieve the target of 0.7 per cent of gross national income for official development assistance(ODA/GNI) to developing countries and 0.15 to 0.20per cent of ODA/GNI to least developed countries; ODA providers are encouraged to consider setting a target to provide at least 0.20 per cent of ODA/GNI to least developed countries.
3. Mobilize additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources.
4. Assist developing countries in attaining long-term debt sustainability through coordinated policies aimed at fostering debt financing, debt relief and debt restructuring, as appropriate, and address the external debt of highly indebted poor countries to reduce debt distress.

5. Adopt and implement investment promotion regimes for least developed countries.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Finance **Centrally Sponsored Schemes (CSS) :** Support for Statistical Strengthening **Related Interventions :** South-South Cooperation, India Africa Summit, SCO (Shanghai Cooperation Organisation), BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa), NDB (New Development Bank - BRICS), SAARC Satellite(South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation).

Technology

6. Enhance North-South, South-South and triangular regional and international cooperation on and access to science, technology and innovation and enhance knowledge sharing on mutually agreed terms, including through improved coordination among existing mechanisms, in particular at the United Nations level, and through a global technology facilitation mechanism.
7. Promote the development, transfer, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound technologies to developing countries on favourable terms, including on concessional and preferential terms, as mutually agreed.
8. Fully operationalize the technology bank and science, technology and innovation capacity building mechanism for least developed countries by 2017 and enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Science and Technology

Capacity-building

9. Enhance international support for implementing effective and targeted capacity-building in developing countries to support national plans to implement all the Sustainable Development Goals, including through North-South, South-South and triangular cooperation.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : MEA

Trade

10. Promote a universal, rules-based, open, nondiscriminatory and equitable multilateral trading system under the World Trade Organization, including through the conclusion of negotiations under its Doha Development Agenda.

11. Significantly increase the exports of developing countries, in particular with a view to doubling the least developed countries' share of global exports by 2020.
12. Realize timely implementation of duty-free and quota-free market access on a lasting basis for all least developed countries, consistent with World Trade Organization decisions, including by ensuring that preferential rules of origin applicable to imports from least developed countries are transparent and simple, and contribute to facilitating market access.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Commerce and Industry

Systemic issues :

Policy and institutional coherence

13. Enhance global macroeconomic stability, including through policy coordination and policy coherence.
14. Enhance policy coherence for sustainable development.
15. Respect each country's policy space and leadership to establish and implement policies for poverty eradication and sustainable development.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : Finance

Multi-stakeholder partnerships

16. Enhance the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals in all countries, in particular developing countries.
17. Encourage and promote effective public, public private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : MOEF&CC

Data, monitoring and accountability

18. By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing States, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data dis-aggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

19. By 2030, build on existing initiatives to develop measurements of progress on sustainable development that complement gross domestic product, and support statistical capacity-building in developing countries.

Initiatives of Government of India
Nodal Ministry : MOSPI

4. Linking SDG's and Extension Education

4·1 Concept of Extension Education

Leagans (1961) conceptualized extension education as an applied science consisting of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural sciences synthesized with useful technology into a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focused on the problems of out-of-school education for adults and youth.

The National Commission on Agriculture (1976) refers to extension as an out-of-school education and services for the members of the farm family and others directly or indirectly engaged in farm production, to enable them to adopt improved practices in production, management, conservation and marketing.

Education is a necessity for the development initiatives and extension of education through building capacity of the people who cannot be the part of formal education system is the second most important initiative for development. Extension worked from people to partnership: among local people and local bodies, local bodies with higher bodies and institutes, higher bodies to national and international organizations and vice-versa.

4·2 Linking extension education with SDG's

1. Linkages development between beneficiaries and service providers and host institutes should be the prime focus for an extension education institute.
2. Follow up studies regarding impact of development programmes and related interventions.
3. People can be assisted to discover and analyze their problems and identify the felt needs so that they can avail the benefit of government initiatives.
4. Sustainable Goals like :
   - eradication of poverty is directly and indirectly associated with extension education. If an extension student be and can make people more aware and educate about the schemes and interventions of Government of India and respective states, develop skill in people which may end to an entrepreneur activities, building capacity regarding assertion on their rights , it would a really a big contribution to the nation.
   - End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture is the very critical goal and the objective of

extension education. Home Science and Agriculture extension both are directly associated with promotion of sustainable agriculture and utilization of food in proper manner to get maximum nutrition potentials. The students are employed in the most of government initiatives.

- Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages is a direct concern for Home Science. Creating awareness for epidermis, non communicable disease, involving students into road safety measures, capacity building of front line workers and developing links for students internship programmes in various programmes can be the contributing measures.
- Life long learning educations in already a part of syllabi. Life skill education, entrepreneurship, vocational education are being taught at various level. The need is to make education more skill based.
- Goal - 5 is related with gender equality , which can be achieved through making society aware about social evils through various communication technologies. Developing leadership and making society economic and socially empower and designing information capsules which can be helpful in building attitude.
- Climate change is not a short term event so cannot be controlled is short span. Simple things like climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning can be included in our educational and capacity building programmes.
- Research information can be disseminated to people which are of economic and practical importance in a way that it would be in understandable form and can be used by them.

5. Helping people in mobilizing and utilizing the resources which they have and which they need from outside.
6. Collection and transition of feedback information for solving management problems.

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Strategic Trade Policy and Migration : The Case of Different Size Countries

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With an imperfect competition model of trade we analyze the impact of migration on a source and receiving migration country. We assume both countries are different in size and the flow of migrants may run in both senses. There is a two way trade in a homogenous good produced in a cournot competition framework in each country. A tariff is set previously in both countries as a strategic trade policy. Once the tariffs have been set, we analyze the impact of two-way migration on welfare in both countries. We found that countries benefit from incoming migrants and harm from leaving migrants independently of the size of the countries.

[**Keywords :** Migration, trade policies, welfare]

1. Introduction

It is naïve to say that migration is a complex phenomenon. According to the Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD) migration is determined not only by economics incentives like higher rate of returns and better conditions of life, but also by wars, discrimination, illness, social insecurity, climate change and even religious concerns. In 2013 more than 247 million people live outside their countries of birth. It is the 3.4% of the total world population and migrants is expected to be more than 260 million people for 2017 which is just above the 3% of the total world population, and this tendency has been so since the last 15 years (KNOMAD, 2016).

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Independently of the reasons to migrate, in which we are not going to deepen on, the impact of migration is quite relevant and analyzed from vary multi-disciplinary approaches. There are social, political, anthropological and economic consequences. For instance Western European countries are more racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse that in any other time of their history (Castles, de Haas and Miller, 2003); the European migrant crisis, the United Kingdom's vote to leave the European Union (EU), and the American elections are other examples just from 2016 (Eger and Breznau, 2017). In general migration is a burning issue for most policy makers in both recipient and sending countries because of the social, political and economic disturbances.

However the economic consequences of migration are the most analyzed issue by the current economic literature. Coppel, Dumont and Visco. (2001) identify four major consequences of international migration. Firstly, there is an impact of migration on the host country's labor market. Secondly, international migration affects the budgetary position of the recipient country with unexpected spending in the welfare system but an increase in tax revenue. Thirdly, immigration may be the solution to the ageing population problem faced by many OECD countries. Fourthly, from the point of view of source country there is a positive impact given by remittances and a negative impact given by brain drain.

The overall balance of these effects determines the migration policies set by host and source countries. The question driving this balance can be expressed as: is migration good for the economy? The literature on this issue is quite abundant and thus difficult to follow closely . The literature about incoming migrants talks on the labor market and productivity analysis of immigration as a negative relation as in Borjas (2014) or a positive relation as in Card (2001) and Peri (2012). In this case the most of the studies are empirical and focus on the analysis of migration into a host country rather the source country. In the case of a source migrant country, it is generally assumed that emigration has a positive impact given by remittances although some works talk about the negative impact of emigration in the form of brain drain mainly in emerging economies (Schiff, 2008).

In this paper we intend to analyze the impact of migration from a different point of view : Following an imperfect competitive approach we analyze migration in two countries with a different size. Generally it is an omitted feature in the theoretical literature and we try to consider this difference. The empirical evidence suggests that migration may occur in many cases between small and large regions: Mexico-USA, Russia-Ukraine and India-Bangladesh are some sound examples.

Our intention is to develop a simple model of trade with an imperfect competition-exporting sector and strategic trade policies. Different to the previous literature we analyze the welfare's impact of migration flowing into a host country and migration flowing out a source country once tariff has been set by both countries. Migration may occur from the small to the large country or vice versa.

This migration changes the amount of labor endowment in each country: Immigration increases the amount of labor endowment and emigration reduces the amount of labor endowment.

We analyze welfare in each country considering the exporting-importing sectors where a specific number of firms face Cournot competition. The firms in each country produce a tradable good in a two-way trade. There is not free trade as tariffs are set in both countries. But once the strategic trade policies are set, we focus on welfare's changes in the presence of migration. We can see that receiving/emitting migration is always welfare increasing/decreasing for the any country independently of the size of the countries.

The theoretical model is set in the next section. In the section 3 we describe the comparative static of tariffs. In the section 4 we determine the optimal tariffs for both countries. In section 5 we describe the comparative static of labor migration. In section 6 and 7 we analyze the impact of migration once the optimal policies have been set. In this case we have two cases : when countries converge and diverge. Finally in the last section we conclude.

2. The Model

We assume that there are two countries having a two way trade, country *A* and country *B*. Each country contains firms from an imperfectly competitive industry producing and trading a homogeneous good. We consider a partial equilibrium model of an oligopolistic industry in which there are *n* identical firms in *A*, and m identical firms in *B*. Each firm has a Cournot perception: Each firm takes the output of other firms as given while maximizing its products. The homogeneous output produced by firms located in *A* and *B* are *X* and *Y* respectively where $X \quad X^A \quad X^B$ and $Y \quad Y^A Y^B$, such that X^A is consumed in country *A* and X^B is exported to country *B*. Similarly, Y^B is for local consumption in *B* and Y^A is exported to *A*.

The marginal costs of firms located in *A* and *B* are c_x and c_y respectively. These costs are taken to be constant, and therefore equal the average variable costs. There is transport cost *t* incurred in exporting goods from one country to the other that is borne by producers.

Following closely to Markusen and Venables (1988) labor is the only factor of production in each country. We are assuming, without loss of generality, that labor endowment in country *B* (l^B) is larger in than that in country *A* (l^A), so we can define country *B* as the larger country and country *A* as the smaller country $l^A \quad l^B$. Total amount of labor in the world is normalized as $l^A \quad l^B \quad 1$. This factor may be used to produce a tradable composite commodity under perfect competition, and with identical constant returns to scale technologies in each country. Units are chosen such that the factor of production and the composite may be taken as numeraire.

We have segmented markets with homogeneous goods, and the inverse demand functions are[3]

$$D_A \quad l^A(\quad - \quad P_A) \qquad \ldots(1)$$

$$D_B \quad l^B(\quad - \quad P_B) \qquad \ldots(2)$$

Where

$$D_A \quad nX^A \quad mY^A \qquad \ldots(3)$$

$$D_B \quad nX^B \quad mY^B \qquad \ldots(4)$$

The profits of each firm located in A and B are given by

$$_A \quad (P_a - c_x)X^A \quad (P_B - c_x - t - T^B)X^B \qquad \ldots(5)$$

$$_B \quad (P_B - c_y)Y^B \quad (P_A - c_y - t - T^A)Y^A \qquad \ldots(6)$$

Where P_A and P_B are the prices of demands, T^A and T^B are the tariff levied by country *A* and *B* respectively. Each firm decides what proportion of the commodity is produced for domestic consumption and for export. Under Cournot-Nash assumptions the first order maximization conditions are:

$$a - c_x \quad \frac{b}{l^A}(n \quad 1)X^A - \frac{b}{l^A}mY^A \qquad \ldots(7)$$

$$a - c_x - t - T^B \quad \frac{b}{t^B}(n \quad 1)X^B - \frac{b}{t^B}mY^B \qquad \ldots(8)$$

$$a - c_y \quad \frac{b}{l^B}(m \quad 1)Y^B - \frac{b}{l^B}nX^B \qquad \ldots(9)$$

$$a - c_y - t - T^A \quad \frac{b}{t^A}(m \quad 1)Y^A - \frac{b}{t^A}nX^A \qquad \ldots(10)$$

such that $b \quad 1/$ and $a \quad\quad /$. We have a separable system where (7) is solved with (10) and (8) with (9). Positive solutions to this system give us the equilibrium where two-way trade arises and, given the linearity of demand functions, the second order conditions are satisfied. The closed form solutions for the following variables are obtained as :—

$$_A \quad \frac{b}{l^A}(X^A)^2 \quad \frac{b}{l^B}(X^B)^2 \qquad \ldots(11)$$

$$_B \quad \frac{b}{l^A}(Y^B)^2 \quad \frac{b}{l^A}(Y^A)^2 \qquad \ldots(12)$$

$$X^A \quad l^A x^A \qquad \ldots(13)$$

$$X^B \quad l^B x^B \qquad \ldots(14)$$

$$Y^A \quad l^A y^A \qquad \ldots(15)$$

$$Y^B \quad l^B y^B \qquad \ldots(16)$$

where

$$x^A \quad \frac{1}{b}[(m \quad 1)(a - c_x) - m(a - c_Y - t - T^A)]$$

$$x^B \quad \frac{1}{b}[(m \quad 1)(a - c_x - t - T^B) - m(a - c_Y)]$$

$$y^A \quad \frac{1}{b}[(n \quad 1)(a - c_y - t - T^A) - n(a - c_x)]$$

$$y^B \quad \frac{1}{b}[(n \quad 1)(a - c_y) - n(a - c_x - t - T^B)]$$

$$m \quad n \quad 1$$

Finally, the welfare functions for both countries can be given by:

$$W_A \quad n \quad {}_A \quad CS_A \quad mY^A T^A \qquad \ldots(17)$$

$$W_B \quad m \quad {}_B \quad CS_B \quad nX^B T^B \qquad \ldots(18)$$

Where the first, second and third term at the right hand in (17) and (18) are the producer surplus, consumer surplus and tariff revenue respectively. Taking into account the linear demands (1) and (2), the consumer surplus in each country can be represented respectively as

$$CS_A \quad \frac{bD_A^2}{l^A 2} \qquad \ldots(19)$$

$$CS_B \quad \frac{bD_B^2}{l^B 2} \qquad \ldots(20)$$

The equations (1) - (6) and (11)-(20) form the backbone for the following analysis.

3. Comparative Static of Tariffs

Having described the properties of the model, we shall analyze the comparative statics of tariffs respect to key variables. After setting the model, we are going to consider the effect of tariffs on output, consumer surplus, producer surplus and tariff revenue.

Because we have a segmented market and a separable system to solve, from (13) to (16) we have :

$$\frac{dX^A}{dT^A} \quad \frac{ml^A}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(21)$$

$$\frac{dY^A}{dT^A} \quad -\frac{(n \quad 1)l^A}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(22)$$

$$\frac{dX^B}{dT^B} \quad -\frac{(m \quad 1)l^B}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(23)$$

$$\frac{dY^B}{dT^B} \quad \frac{nl^B}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(24)$$

$$\frac{dX^B}{dT^A} \quad \frac{dY^B}{dT^A} \quad \frac{dX^A}{dT^B} \quad \frac{dY^A}{dT^B} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(25)$$

We can see from the above equations that an increase in the tariff levied by country *A* increases the amount of output produced by domestic firms for local consumption and reduces the amount of import goods from the country *B*. The tariff gives a competitive advantage to produce X^A over the imported good Y^A. It can be seen in (21) and (22). The same intuition applies with the tariff levied by country *B* on local production Y^B and imports goods X^B showed in (23) and (24) respectively.

On the other hand, and given by the assumption of segmented markets, an increase in T^A does not affect the demand of the country *B*. There is not impact for setting T^A on X^B and Y^B according to (25). The intuition is similar in the case in which a tariff is levied by country *B* where the demand of country *A* is unaffected. There is not impact for setting T^B on X^A and Y^A according to (25).

From (3), (4), (19) and (20) we can get the change in the demand and consumer surplus given by the change in the tariffs levied by government in country *A* and *B*. Taking (3), (4), (19) and (20) and using (21) to (25) we have :—

$$\frac{dD_A}{dT^A} \quad \frac{ml^A}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(26)$$

$$\frac{dD_B}{dT^B} \quad -\frac{nl^B}{b} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(27)$$

$$\frac{dD_A}{dT^B} \quad \frac{dD_B}{dT^A} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(28)$$

$$\frac{dCS_B}{dT^B} \quad -D_B \frac{n}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(29)$$

$$\frac{dCS_A}{dT^A} \quad -D_A \frac{m}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(30)$$

$$\frac{dCS_A}{dT^B} \quad \frac{dCS_B}{dT^A} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(31)$$

From (26), (28), (30) and (31) we can see that an increase in T^A will reduce the demand of the country *A* because of an increase in the price of goods. This higher price is given by the fall in the imports, which is larger than the increase in the output produced for local consumption. Therefore consumer surplus in country *A* is reduced. On the other hand, an increase in T^B will not affect the demand in country *A* since it is a tariff imposed by the foreign country and it is not affecting the domestic price, and consequently the consumer surplus is unaffected.

Similar to the previous case, from (27), (28), (29) and (31) an increase in T^A will not affect the demand in country *B* since it is a tariff imposed by the domestic country. On the other hand, an increase in T^B will reduce the demand of the country *B* because of an increase in the price of goods. This higher price is given by the fall in the imports, which is larger than the increase in the output produced for local consumption. Therefore consumer surplus in country *B* is reduced.

The impact of a change in a tariff on the profit of each firm located in both countries can be seen from the derivation of (11) and (12) with respect to both tariffs. Using again (21) to (25) we can get the following results :—

$$\frac{d \quad _A}{dT^A} \quad \frac{2mX^A}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(32)$$

$$\frac{d \quad _A}{dT^B} \quad -\frac{(2m \quad 1)X^B}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(33)$$

$$\frac{d \quad _B}{dT^A} \quad -\frac{2(n \quad 1)Y^A}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(34)$$

$$\frac{d \quad _B}{dT^B} \quad \frac{2nY^B}{} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(35)$$

Once a tariff is set by a country is straightforward to see that local firms get competitive advantage over foreign firms given by a larger cost of imported goods. Thus, with a tariff the producer surplus increases because of the increase in the local production. It can be seen in (32) and (35). On the other hand, a larger cost of imported goods given by the setting of a tariff discourages the amount of exported output produced by firms. Thus a tariff set by a foreign country reduces the producer surplus of local firms. It can be seen in (33) and (34).

Finally, the derivation of the last term in (17) and (18) give us the effect of a tariff on tariff revenue, such that using (21) to (25) we can get

$$\frac{d(mT^A Y^A)}{dT^A} \quad mY^A - \frac{m(n \quad 1)T^A l^A}{b} \qquad \ldots(36)$$

$$\frac{d(nT^B X^B)}{dT^A} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(37)$$

$$\frac{d(mT^A Y^A)}{dT^B} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(38)$$

$$\frac{d(nT^B X^B)}{dT^B} \quad nX^B - \frac{n(m \quad 1)T^B l^B}{b} \qquad \ldots(39)$$

Intuitively speaking the setting of a tariff levied by the country A or B will produce an ambiguous impact on the tariff revenue in each country since there is a positive direct effect given by the increase of the tariff itself, but there is a negative indirect effect given by the reduction of the imported output caused by the loss of competitiveness of the exporter firms. It can be seen in (36) and (39). Since the tariff is levied for imports, this tariff is not affecting the tariff revenue of the other country according to (37) and (38). Once we have set the comparative static, we shall analyze the determination of the optimal tariff in both countries.

4. Optimal Policies

In order to determine the optimal tariffs in both countries we will take into account the impact of the setting of tariffs on welfare in both countries. From total differentiation of (17) and (18) with respect to both tariffs and using (29)-(39) we get the following implicit results :—

$$dW_A \quad \frac{m}{} \; 2nX^A - D_A \qquad Y^A - \frac{(n \quad 1)T^A l^A}{b} \; dT^A - \frac{2n(m \quad 1)X^B}{} \; dT^B \qquad \ldots(40)$$

$$dW_B \quad \frac{n}{} \; 2mY^B - D_B \qquad X^B - \frac{(m \quad 1)T^B l^B}{b} \; dT^B - \frac{2m(n \quad 1)Y^A}{} \; dT^A \qquad \ldots(41)$$

The first term at the right hand in (40) and (41) shows the impact of the local tariff on the local welfare. Inside the square brackets are the producer surplus, consumer surplus and tariff revenue as shown in the comparative static section. The second term at the right hand of (40) and (41) shows the impact of foreign tariff on the local welfare. Inside the square brackets is only the producer surplus effect of a foreign tariff since there is not impact of foreign tariff on consumer surplus and tariff revenue. The optimal Nash policies can be obtained from the coefficient of dT^A and dT^Bequal to zero such that

$$T^{A*} \quad \frac{b(nX^A \quad (n \quad 1)y^A)}{n \quad 1} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(42)$$

$$T^{B*} \quad \frac{b(my^B \quad (m \quad 1)x^B)}{m \quad 1} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(43)$$

Both policies are unequivocally positive.[5] Intuitively speaking the benefit obtained by setting a tariff on imported goods on producer surplus and tariff revenue is larger than the loss in consumer surplus. The government in each country is willing to set a tariff in order to encourage the competitive advantage of local producers and the income received by taxing foreign imports.

Until now it is a clear result: Both tariffs are positive independently of the size of each country. However we may wonder how the optimal policy may change with a change in the economy's share of the world endowment of labor or, in simply words, a change in the economies size.

In a two-world country this change in the economies size may be seen as a migration of labor from one country to the other. The optimal policies depend basically on the amount of labor endowment because the workers are consumers as well, and this movement affects consumer surplus, producer surplus and tariff revenue in both countries.

5. Labor Migration

Many reasons can be argued in order to explain why labor could move from one country to another. The literature is full of arguments about this movement: Wage differentials, social discrimination, wars, illness, crime, political conflicts, better living conditions, etc. Independently of the reasons argued for such a movement, the fact is that this migration of labor is a very common issue nowadays

(Brettell and Hollifield, 2014). In this paper we are considering that labor migration occurs for some reasons and we are omitting for the moment any specification on this model .

Once the optimal policy has been set, we consider the impact of labor migration from one country to the other on welfare in each country. For this to be the case, we consider the optimal tariff as given. In order to consider the impact of the change in the size between the countries we should consider the impact of the change in l^A and l^B on the optimal outputs, consumer surplus, producer surplus and tariff revenue in each country. Differentiating implicitly from (13) to (16) we have :

$$\frac{dX^A}{dl^A} \quad X^A \quad 0, \quad \frac{dY^A}{dl^A} \quad y^A \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(44)$$

$$\frac{dX^B}{dl^B} \quad X^B \quad 0, \quad \frac{dY^B}{dl^B} \quad y^B \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(45)$$

$$\frac{dX^A}{dl^B} \quad \frac{dY^A}{dl^B} \quad \frac{dX^B}{dl^A} \quad \frac{dY^B}{dl^A} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(46)$$

A larger local country means a larger amount of output produced per firm in order to satisfy the local consumers' demand (output produced locally and imported). From the point of view of a local country, a change in the size of the other foreign country does not affect the production made for local consumption. From above we define the producer surplus. From the differentiation of (11) and (12) and using (44) to (46) we can define the effect of labor migration on producer surplus as

$$\frac{d \quad_A}{dl^A} \quad bx^{A^2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(47)$$

$$\frac{d \quad_A}{dl^B} \quad bx^{B^2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(48)$$

$$\frac{d \quad_B}{dl^A} \quad by^{A^2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(49)$$

$$\frac{d \quad_B}{dl^B} \quad by^{B^2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(50)$$

Following the last intuition, a larger country increases the producer surplus since more goods are demanded and produced either for local consumption and/or for export. With the differentiation of (19) and (20) using (44) to (46) we get the effect on consumer surplus such that

$$\frac{dCS_A}{dl^A} \quad \frac{bl^A (nx^A \quad my^A)^2}{2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(51)$$

$$\frac{dCS_B}{dl^B} \quad \frac{bl^B (nx^B \quad my^B)^2}{2} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(52)$$

$$\frac{dCS_A}{dl^B} \quad \frac{dCS_B}{dl^A} \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(53)$$

With a larger local country, larger is the local consumers' demand. So the amount of output produced by firms is larger, then the price is going down and the consumer surplus in each country increases. A larger foreign country does not have any direct effect on the local consumer surplus. The effect of labor migration on tariff revenue, once the optimal tariff has been set, is given by the differentiation of the third term in (17) and (18) using (44) to (46) such that

$$\frac{d(mY^A T^A)}{dl^A} \quad m\overline{T^A}\, y^A \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(54)$$

$$\frac{d(nX^B T^B)}{dl^B} \quad n\overline{T^B}\, x^B \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(55)$$

$$\frac{d(mY^A T^A)}{dl^B} \quad \frac{d(nX^B T^B)}{dl^A} \qquad \ldots(56)$$

A larger importing country implies a larger amount of importing goods. Given as fixed the amount of exporting firms and the tariff levied by the importing country, an increase in imports means an increase in tariff revenue received by the importing country. On the other hand, the increase in the size of the exporting country is not affecting directly the tariff revenue of the importing country.

The overall impact of labor migration on welfare is given by the total differentiation of (17) and (18) with respect to both tariffs, and using (44)-(56) we get :

$$dW_A \quad \frac{1}{2}[2nbx^{A^2} \quad bl^A(nx^A \quad my^A)^2 \quad 2m\overline{T^A}\, y^A]dl^A \quad [nbx^{B^2}]dl^B \qquad \ldots(57)$$

$$dW_B \quad \frac{1}{2}[2mby^{B^2} \quad bl^B(nx^B \quad my^B)^2 \quad 2n\overline{T^B}\, x^B]dl^B \quad [mby^{A^2}]dl^A \qquad \ldots(58)$$

However, the net effect of labor migration has been defined only partially since the change in the flow of labor migration in one country corresponds to an inverse change in the flow of labor migration in the other country in the same proportion. In a two country world, this labor migration imply that the amount of labor going out from one country is the same that the amount of labor coming into the other country.

In our model given that the country B is larger than the country A, we can consider two scenarios: First, the convergence between the large and small country; and second, a greater divergence between the small and large country.

5·1 Convergence in size between the large and small country (l^A l^B)

In this case we have migration from the large to the small country. We can have the following condition :

$$dl^A \qquad \text{and} \quad dl^B \quad -$$

Where is a small, entire and positive number. Applying this condition to (57) and (58) we have the impact of migration from the small to the large country as :

$$dW_A \quad \frac{}{2}[2nb(x^{A^2} - x^{B^2}) \quad bl^A(nx^A \quad my^A)^2 \quad m\overline{T^A}y^A] \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(59)$$

$$dW_A \quad \frac{}{2}[2mb(y^{B^2} - Y^{A^2}) \quad bl^B(nx^B \quad my^B)^2 \quad m\overline{T^B}x^B] \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(60)$$

Where by definition $x^A \quad x^B$ and $y^B \quad y^A$.

First of all, the labor migration from country *B* to country *A* always harms country *B*. The impact of labor migration on country *A* is going to be positive. Intuitively speaking the flow of labor from the large country to the small country harms the large country because the exit of labor reduces the consumer surplus, the producer surplus and the tariff revenue. A smaller country means less consumption and therefore less production. There is a reduction in producer surplus and consumer surplus as well as in the amount of imported goods and so tariff revenue. So the welfare of the large country is reduced. In the case of the small country we have the opposite intuition as presented in the case of the large country. So the welfare of the small country increases.

5·2 Divergence in size between the large and small country ($l^A \quad l^B$)

In the second scenario, there is labor migration from the small to the large country. On this case the condition should be written as :

$$dl^A \quad - \quad \text{and} \quad dl^B$$

Applying this condition to (57) and (58) we have the impact of labor migration from the small to the large country as :

$$dW_A \quad \frac{}{2}[2nb(x^{A^2} - x^{B^2}) \quad bl^A(nx^A \quad my^A)^2 \quad m\overline{T^A}y^A] \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(61)$$

$$dW_B \quad \frac{}{2}[2mb(y^{B^2} - Y^{A^2}) \quad bl^B(nx^B \quad my^B)^2 \quad m\overline{T^B}x^B] \quad 0 \qquad \ldots(62)$$

Where by definition $x^A \quad x^B$ and $y^B \quad y^A$.

First of all, the labor migration from country *A* to country *B* always benefits country *B*. The impact of labor migration on country *A* is negative. The intuition in this case is the opposite of that in the last section. Intuitively speaking the flow of labor from the small country to the large country benefits the large country because the entry of labor increases the consumption and production. There is an increase in consumer surplus, producer surplus and tariff revenue. For the country *A* we have the opposite intuition as presented in the large country. The flow of labor from the small country to the large country harms the small country because there is reduction in consumption and production. There is a decrease in consumer surplus, producer surplus and tariff revenue.

6. Strategic Policy Response

Once the optimal policy has been determined and migration occurs, Governments in both countries may apply a strategic trade policy in order to compensate the decrease in welfare given by migration. In this model leaving migrants is seen as a negative externality because is not policy induced. When the exit of labor reduces the welfare in either the large or the small country, the government may try to correct this negative externality using the policy instrument. In this case, when the government pursues a tariff to imports, how should the country government respond to an exit of labor? In order to solve this question, we obtain the comparative static of a reduction in the labor endowment on the optimal tariff in the welfare decreasing country.

In the case of convergence or divergence between the large and small country, it is clear the country with leaving migrants is always negatively affected, and a strategic trade policy may be required. However, from (42) and (43) we can see that both policies are positive independently of the size of the countries and they are not depending of the amount of labor endowment. In other words, the optimal polices are not affected by any change in the labor endowment. The best policy response is doing nothing.

The intuition behind is quite straightforward. Once the optimal policy has been set by both governments, evaluating not only the impact on consumer surplus and the total profits of firms but also the benefit on tariff revenue, the emigration/immigration affects the consumer surplus directly by changing the amount of consumption in a similar proportion that those in producer surplus and tariff revenue. Any changes in the optimal policy in order to compensate any lost in welfare will be compensate in the same magnitude by changes in the opposite sense given by producer surplus and tariff revenue. The change in the patter of consumption given by migration is the endogenous mechanism of compensation in all welfare.

7. Conclusions

Migration is a complex problem involving not only economic difference but also political, social and cultural reasons. Certainly income differences among countries may be considered the most common reasons why migration may occur. The majority of the literature on migration's determinants argues that difference between the personal income levels, and consequently a better life's conditions, is on of the main reason to explain migration.

However, violence, insecurity, discrimination and professional opportunities are important emerging reasons to explain why people may find a new place to live in. On this paper we assume that migration arises from external reasons different to income or rate of returns among countries. Even when this assumption seems to be strong, it was helpful to analyze the impact of migration on welfare as we provide a model to analyze in a simple way a stylized fact.

Apart from the media opinion about the impact of migration in a specific society with tricky relations between migration and crime, migration and lack of job opportunities for local workers, social conflicts given by cultural diversity, etcetera, there are some relevant impacts on welfare mainly on the long term. Once the migrants have been adopted in the economic system, the impact of migration on welfare is relevant as they become consumers, formal workers and in many cases producers. In other words migration becomes to increase/decrease the size of labor market.

As a general result we can argue that a country always benefits with the entry of labor and always harms with the exit of labor. This result applies independently of the size of the country. The labor recipient country benefits from a larger amount of consumption and production. Even the tariff revenue may increase. For countries, the entry of labor benefits and the exit of labor harms.

Of course, this work seems to confirm the valuable aspect of immigration, but in a partial equilibrium model we can consider the cost of emigration in the source countries focusing in a specific sector. The increase in the foreign demand of the large country may be caused not only by migration and not only specifically by migration of the small country, but in two-world model the migration is linearly related to the other country. An interesting extension of the model could be produced by the outside migration.

Footnotes

1. A good survey is Drinkwater, Levine, Lotti and Pearlman (2002) and they focus on European migration.
2. See Constant and Zimmermann (2013).
3. We assume that the utility functions, in each country, can be approximated by $U_A \quad u(X^A, Y^A) \quad {}_A$ and $U_B \quad u(X^B, Y^B) \quad {}_B$ where X and Y are the goods under consideration and ${}_A$ and ${}_B$ are the expenditure on the numeraire goods. The use of this approximation removes a number of theoretical difficulties, including income effects. For simplicity, we consider identical preferences and therefore the demand parameters are identical in both countries.
4. They can be considered separately given the assumption of constant marginal costs.
5. The second order condition hold in both cases :
$$\frac{d^2W_A}{dT^{A^2}} \quad \frac{l^A}{b \quad ^2}[m(2n \quad 1) - 2 \quad (n \quad 1)] \quad 0$$
$$\frac{d^2W_B}{dT^{B^2}} \quad \frac{l^B}{b \quad ^2}[n(2m \quad 1) - 2 \quad (m \quad 1)] \quad 0$$
6. Arguments like crime, political instability or even some cultural discrimination may be considered. We may consider wage differentials between countries as one of the most used argument in literature in favor of movement of labor across borders. However our interest is to consider that migration occurs.

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4

An Analytical Study of Agrarian Crisis and Women Empowerment : Essential Aspects, Barriers & Schemes

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The main objectives of the paper are to explore the essential aspects, challenges and schemes of Women Empowerment. Women Empowerment means to growing and improving the social, economic, political and legal strengths of the women so that she may be able to get the equal- right, confident enough and claim their rights in society. There are various aspects of women empowerment such as freely live their life, a sense of self-worth, respect and dignity. Complete control of their life, both within and outside of their home and workplace. She may be able to make their own choices and decisions, equal rights to participate in social, religious and public activities, equal social status in the society. She may be able to have equal rights for social and economic justice. Besides these aspects she may be able to get equal opportunity for education, employment opportunity without any gender bias, safe and comfortable working environment. The Government of India has started the various schemes such as Beti Bachao Beti Padhao, Women Helpline Scheme, UJJAWALA Yojna, SWADHAR Greh, NARI SHAKTI PURASKAR, Stree Shakti Puruskar, Nari Shakti Puruskar, Rajya Mahila Samman & Zila Mahila Samman, Mahila police Volunteers, Mahila E-Haat and Mahila Shakti Kendras (MSK). There are various barriers in the empowerment such as Illiteracy, Poverty, Decline of household industries, Competition from factories and Technological changes. So, there is a great need to remove the barriers and challenges in front of the empowerment.

[**Keywords :** Women Empowerment, Empowerment Schemes, Barriers in Women Empowerment, Women Rights]

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1. Introduction

The agrarian crisis engulfing the country is bankrupting the farming communities. It began with the green revolution, making India self-sufficient in food grains and increasing the incomes of farmers across the board, was eroded within a matter of decades, so plunging the agrarian economy into deep gloom. Facing low yields, spiraling costs of cultivation, a near stagnant technology and dipping incomes, farmers are now struggling for survival. Their heavy borrowing to meet their day-to-day expenditure on subsistence and farming, coupled with their inability to repay back loans, have brought them to a stage where they are choosing death rather than debt.

The state‘s efforts, and the failure of institutions to provide adequate, timely and cheap credit, has aggravated the problem. Punjab‘s economy is no exception. If we find main factors responsible for decline in income for agriculture are due increasing cost of capital equipment such as tractors, thresher etc. For daily expensive like kids fees, medical expensive, etc. they need money so to cover this problem two solution. 1 they diversified their agricultural crops and 2 is to empower the farmer‘s wives (women empowerment).

The main objectives of the paper are to explore the essential aspects, challenges and schemes of Women Empowerment. A strong patriarchal society with deep- rooted socio-cultural values continues to affect the progress of women‘s empowerment in the country. The need of the hour is an egalitarian society, where there should be no place for gender superiority. According to Nabanita Dutta, Kaushik Bhakta (2017) concluded that empowerment of women involves the building up of a society wherein in may breathe without the fear of oppression, exploitation, a la apprehension and discrimination. Paula Kantor (2013) examined the extent to which home based production serves to empower its female participants. The study highlights why access to resources may not lead so directly to improvements in women‘s position in the household in the Indian context. It was found that understanding of the potential of home based work to offer women in urban India a source of economic activity. D. Srinivasa, Y. S. Siddegowda (2015) explained that empowerment of women is a multi-dimensional aspect. The term women empowerment consists of educational empowerment, physical empowerment, social empowerment, economic empowerment, legal empowerment, political empowerment and the spiritual empowerment of women. Dhruba Hazarika (2011) explained that the women empowerment is a debatable subject. At earlier time they were getting equal status with men.

After independence of India, the constitutional makers and national leaders strongly demand equal social position of women with men yet they have not absolutely free from some discrimination and harassment of the society. A few numbers of women have been able to establish their potentialities. P. Suresh (2017) explained that empowerment of women is essentially the process of upliftment of economic, social and political status of women, the traditionally underprivileged ones, in the society. It is the process of guarding them against all forms of violence. Ram S. Samant (2015) explained that the government as well as non-government organization should strive hard to bring some positive change in the women who indeed really need the help, the downtrodden section of our society.

2. Meaning & Aspects of Women Empowerment

Women Empowerment means to growing and improving the social, economic, political and legal strengths of the women so that she may be able to get the equal-right, confident enough and claim their rights in society. Women Empowerment refers to the creation of an environment for women where they can make decisions of their own for their personal benefits as well as for the society. There are various aspects of Women Empowerment such as social, economic, political and legal strength of the women, to ensure equal-right to women, and to make them confident enough to claim their rights. There are various aspects of women empowerment such as freely live their life, a sense of self-worth, respect and dignity. Complete control of their life, both within and outside of their home and workplace. She may be able to make their own choices and decisions, equal rights to participate in social, religious and public activities, equal social status in the society. She may be able to have equal rights for social and economic justice. Besides these aspects she may be able to get equal opportunity for education, employment opportunity without any gender bias, safe and comfortable working environment. Women empowerment in its actuality is synonymous with complete development of the society. An educated woman, with knowledge about health, hygiene, cleanliness is capable of creating a better disease-free environment for her family. A self employed woman is capable of contributing not only to her family's finances, but also contributes towards increment of the country's overall GDP. A shared source of income is much more likely to uplift the quality of life than a single income household and more often than not helps the family come out of poverty trap. Women aware of their legal rights are less likely to be victims of domestic violence or other forms of exploitations. Their inherent aptitude towards organization and well-rounded maintenance of home makes them uniquely suited for political and civil leadership roles. Participation of women in political and social positions of power has seen marked reduction in corruption in those specific areas which adds another advantageous point in favor of women empowerment.

3. Objectives of the Study

Main objectives of this study are as follows :

1. To know the need of Women Empowerment.
2. To explore the essential aspects, challenges and schemes of Women Empowerment.

3. To analyze the Factors influencing the Economic Empowerment of Women.
4. To study the Government Schemes For Women Empowerment.
5. To identify the Hindrances in the Path of Women Empowerment.
6. To explore Women empowerment in its actuality is synonymous with complete development.

4. Research Methodology

The present paper is designed as descriptive and analytical study in area of concern. In this paper an attempt has been made to analyze the women empowerment program of in India.

5. Why Women Empowerment?

In general women is considered as a weak part of the social life in modern times, but it is not true and it will reflected in our ancient literature . Indian culture is based on Vedas and puranas . it is due to the agricultural base of Indian society. It reflects our ethos and practices towards the management of society by women only.

Reflecting into the "Vedas Purana" of Indian culture, women is being worshiped such as LAXMI MAA, goddess of wealth; SARSWATI MAA, for wisdom; DURGA MAA for power. The status of women in India particularly in rural areas needs to address the issue of empowering women. About 66% of the female population in rural area is unutilized. This is mainly due to existing social customs. In agriculture and Animal care the women contribute 90% of the total workforce. Women constitute almost half of the population, perform nearly 2/3 of its work hours, receive $1/10^{th}$ of the world's income and own less than $1/ 100^{th}$ the world property. Among the world's 900 million illiterate people, women out number men two to one. 70% of people living in poverty are women. Lower sex ratio i.e. 933, The existing studies show that the women are relatively less healthy than men though belong to same class. They constitute less than $1/7^{th}$ of the administrators and mangers in developing countries. Only 10% seats in World Parliament and 6% in National Cabinet are held by women.

6. Ways to Empower Women

- Changes in women's mobility and social interaction.
- Changes in women's labour patterns.
- Changes in women's access to and control over resources and changes in women's control over decision making.
- Providing education.
- Self employment and self help group.

- Providing minimum needs like Nutrition, Health, Sanitation, Housing.
- Other than these, society should change the mentality towards the world women.
- Encouraging women to develop in their fields they are good at and make a carrier.

7. Schemes for Women Empowerment

The Government of India has started the various schemes such as Beti Bachao Beti Padhao, Women Helpline Scheme, UJJAWALA Yojna, SWADHAR Greh, NARI SHAKTI PURASKAR, Stree Shakti Puruskar, Nari Shakti Puruskar, Rajya Mahila Samman & Zila Mahila Samman, Mahila police Volunteers, Mahila E-Haat and Mahila Shakti Kendras (MSK). The name of some important schemes is as follow :

- Beti Bachao Beti Padhao Scheme One Stop Centre Scheme.
- Women Helpline Scheme Working Women Hostel.
- SWADHAR Greh (A Scheme for Women in Difficult Circumstances).
- Support to Training and Employment Programme for Women (STEP).
- NARI SHAKTI PURASKAR.
- Awardees of Stree Shakti Puruskar, 2014 & Awardees of Nari Shakti Puruskar.
- Awardees of Rajya Mahila Samman & Zila Mahila Samman.
- Mahila Shakti Kendras (MSK).

8. Barriers and Challenges in Women Empowerment

The main Problems that were faced by women in past days and still today up to some extent. There are various barriers in the empowerment such as Illiteracy, Poverty, Decline of household industries, Competition from factories and Technological changes. So, there is a great need to remove the barriers and challenges in front of the empowerment. There are some barriers and challenges in women empowerment as follows :

1. **Under-employed and unemployed :** Women population constitutes around 50% of the world population. A large number of women around the world are unemployed. The world economy suffers a lot because of the unequal opportunity for women at workplaces. (Also read: Paragraph on Women Employment).
2. **Equally competent and intelligent :** Women are equally competent. Now-a-days, women are even ahead of men in many socio-economic activities. Education: While the country has grown from leaps and bounds since independence where education is concerned. the gap between women and men is severe. While 82.14% of adult men are educated, only 65.46% of adult

women are known to be literate in India. The gender bias is in higher education, specialized professional trainings which hit women very hard in employment and attaining top leadership in any field.

3. **Poverty :** Poverty is considered the greatest threat to peace in the world, and eradication of poverty should be a national goal as important as the eradication of illiteracy. Due to this, women are exploited as domestic helps.
4. **Health and Safety :** The health and safety concerns of women are paramount for the well-being of a country and is an important factor in gauging the empowerment of women in a country. However there are alarming concerns where maternal healthcare is concerned.
5. **Talented :** Women are as talented as men. Previously, women were not allowed higher education like men and hence their talents were wasted. But nowadays, they are also allowed to go for higher studies and it encourages women to show their talents which will not only benefit her individually but to the whole world at large.
6. **Overall development of society :** The main advantage of Women Empowerment is that there will be an overall development of the society. The money that women earn does not only help them and or their family, but it also help develop the society.
7. **Reduction in domestic violence :** Women Empowerment leads to decrease in domestic violence. Uneducated women are at higher risk for domestic violence than educated women.

9. Findings of the Study

1. Globalization, Liberalization and other socio-economic forces have given some respite to a large proportion of the population. However, there are still quite a few areas where women empowerment in India is largely lacking.
2. There needs to be a sea-change in the mind set of the people in the country. Not just the women themselves, but the men have to wake up to wake up to a world that is moving towards equality and equity. It is better that this is embraced earlier than later for our own good.
3. There are several Government programmes and NGOs in the Country, there is still a wide gap that exists between those under protection and those not.
4. Poverty and illiteracy add to these complications, The Empowerment of Women begins with a guarantee of their health and safety.
5. Empowerment of Women could only be achieved if their economic and social status is improved. This could be possible only by adopting definite social and economic policies with a view of total development of women and to make them realize that they have the potential to be strong human beings.
6. In order to create a sustainable world, we must begin to Empower Women.

10. Conclusion

In conclusion it can be said that empowering women socially, economically, educationally, politically and legally is going to be a Herculean task. It will not be easy changing the deep- rooted perception that women are inferior, dependent and dispensable, resulting in a culture of disregard for women in Indian society. But it does not mean that change is implausible. Time is needed to eradicate the perception. But with the push towards the right direction and a lot of effort directed, this task might just be achievable. All we need is an organized approach from the Government and law enforcement agencies of the country focused in the right direction that would rest only with the liberation of women from all forms of evil.

11. Suggestions

1. The first and foremost priority should be given to the education of women, which is the grassroots problem. Hence, education for women has to be paid special attention.
2. Awareness programmes need to be organized for creating awareness among women especially belonging to weaker sections about their rights.
3. Women should be allowed to work and should be provided enough safety and support to work. They should be provided with proper wages and work at par with men so that their status can be elevated in the society.
4. Strict implementation of Programmes and Acts should be there to curb the mal-practices prevalent in the society.

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5

Democratic Institutions and Empowerment of Women : An Analytical Study

Abhay Vikram Singh* and Mohiuddin Khairoowala**

Gender inequalities are still deep-rooted in every society. Women suffer from lack of access to decent work and face occupational segregation and gender wage gaps. In many situations, they are denied access to basic education and health care and are victims of violence and discrimination. They are under-represented in political and economic decision-making processes. "Empowerment of Women" is considered as the way out for women development and gender equality world over. The involvement of women in the development process and political decision-making process has always been advocated by social and political thinkers. The present paper is an attempt to analyze factors responsible for success/failure related to political participation of the people specially women in democratic institutions, to examine the impact of democratic institutions on empowerment of women and To suggest measures for further strengthening democratic institutions and empowerment of women. It has been shown that that there is greater need to increase the participation of women in politics. It will be impossible to create any change to policies without increasing the representation of women in the various levels of the political power structure.

[**Keywords :** Democratic institutions, Empowerment of women, Political power structure, Development process]

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1. Introduction

Democratic institutions are in essence a set of arrangements for organizing political competition, legitimating rules and implementing rule. In the modern world they generally involve some form of popular participation, typically through free elections to determine the composition of the legislature and of the government (i.e. representative rather than direct democracy). A further essential component is constitutionalism and the rule of law, which both establish the basic rules of rule and ensure that the political and civil rights and freedom of individual citizen are protected, at least in liberal democracies.

State bureaucracies have been resistant or indifferent to gender equality concerns in many polities, not least because of men‘s extended domination of public institutions. Women‘s limited impact on these institutions, even when included in greater number as public servants, demonstrates that sexism is institutionalized in the norms and practices of public administration. Some measures to challenge this include the creation of specialized institutions to monitor public policy-making from gender equity perspective - such as gender equity commissions or women‘s desks within key government sectors. The effectiveness of these measures depends upon their resources to persuade government functionaries to comply with gender equity goals. In terms of personnel, finances and veto power, bureaucratic units dedicated to gender equity are rarely able to challenge more central and powerful government units such as finance or defence.

The involvement of women in the development process and political decision making process has always been advocated by social and political thinkers. The Report of the committee on status of women in India (CSWI, 1974), which is considered as a significant document on the socio-economic conditions of Indian women says, "though women‘s participation in the political process has increased, their ability to procedure an impact on the political process has been negligible because of the inadequate attention paid to their political education and mobilization by both political parties and women organizations. Parties have tended to see women voters as appendages of the males. Among women, the leadership has become diffused and diverse having sharp contradictions with regard to inequalities that affect the status of women in every sphere - social, economic and political."

The Indian political system cannot be said to be non-receptive to the emergence and dominance of women leaders even though the political representation of women has not particularly registered a significant increase over the last 14 general elections. While on the one hand most women politicians have found it difficult to rise within male dominated party hierarchies, on the other hand some women have managed to become leaders when they have set up parties of their own. Once they have established themselves as leaders, there has been an unquestioning acceptance of their leadership and decisions by the party rank and file, even if it is largely male.

Women in Parliament or Legislatures do not necessarily confine themselves to women issues only. In the absence of a specific mandate for representing women issues, most of them feel that they represent both men and women of their Constituencies. Like men they are drawn into the game of power with all its ruthlessness even though women‘s approach to politics may not be identical to that of men. In fact even the women‘s wings or organizations of parties are not necessarily marked by kind of feminist perspective or sensitivity. Also, the patriarchal articulations whether by male politicians and leaders or internalized by women candidates in Presenting themselves as ‘bahus‘ and ‘betis‘ relying on traditional patriarchal notions of femininity are not absent in Indian politics. Many times women public figures do adapt to and adopt male priorities predominating in public life in order to be acceptable. Many women internalize the norms and roles of patriarchal political structures and merely replicate them instead of questioning them, resulting in reinforcing existing hierarchies of power.

Women became considerably visible in Local Governments and politics. The argument ‘where are the women?‘ got clearly refuted with the entry of nearly 10 million women into the political arena and one million became Members and Chairpersons of Local Governance Bodies. These local level institutions provide a critical link between the power structure and the citizen. Further, the Government of India declared the year 2001 as the ‘Year for the Empowerment of Women‘ to give a fillip to women‘s socio-economic and political status. With all these formal efforts, there is a sea change in the attitude of women. Women are exercising their voting power. They are articulating their concerns and conveying their support to specific political issues and groups. They are participating in decision-making within the family and community. This type of transformational behavior of women has led most of the Indian women groups to mobilize and agitate against a variety of pressing issues ranging from inequality in the workplace to political assertion. Yet, the data relating to the National Chief Executives, Members of the Central and Provincial Legislatures and political parties indicate that women‘s participation in them is insignificant.

Women have demonstrated considerable leadership in community and informal organizations, as well as in public office. However, socialization and negative stereotyping of women and men, including stereotyping through the media, reinforces the tendency for political decision-making to remain the domain of men. Likewise, the under-representation of women in decision-making positions in the areas of art, culture, sports, the media, education, religion and the law have prevented women from having a significant impact on many key institutions.

India has democratic system since independence there are three main elements of democratic system like executive, legislative and judiciary, further, the constitution of India has guaranteed equality, liberty and dignity to all the people. The fundamental rights and directive principle of state policy are expected to take care of the implementation of justice, liberty and equality. An all these provisions special attention has been given to protect and participation to women in all democratic institutions so that in changing developing society women play a catalytic role to participate in political affairs in order to become more empower. Keeping in view these issues and dimensions in the present study, an attempt has been made to analyze the role of democratic institutions for upliftment of women in India.

2. Various Approaches

The apathetic tendencies found among the rural Garhwali women are also indicated by this fact that none of the female respondents reported membership of a political party. Also, women as a self-imposed rule keep away from such organizations which they suspect creating 'factionalism' or 'partisan involvement'. Therefore, political participation in Garhwal is mostly limited to voting. Citizens' participation in other political activities is very low. Females and lower castes are the minimally involved sections of the Garhwali community and their overall participation is not very significant (Ghildial, Avaneet Kumar, 1994).

The Indian example shows that there is no simple correlation between an enhanced visibility of women in political institutions and a sense of empowerment of 'women' in the polity in general. In short, the question of empowerment cannot be disassociated from the question of relations of power within different socio-political systems. In order to challenge structural impediments to greater participation of women in political institutions, we need to have regard to the multi-faceted power relations which contextualize that challenge. In this regard, the debates on empowerment need to be opened up to the questions raised above. Seductive as the language of empowerment is, it needs to and can be much more (Rai, M. Shirin, 1999).

The results, however, suggest that women face an uphill battle in politics. This may explain why they rarely win elections even though they appear to be at least as effective leaders along observable dimensions, and are less corrupt. This may also help explain why women are not reelected once their seats are no longer reserved. In Udaipur district in Rajasthan, Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2004) found that none of the women who had been elected on a reserved seat in 1995 were reelected in 2000. The results also indicate that some caution is warranted when user-satisfaction reports are used as a policy tool. "Citizen report cards" have increasingly been advocated as a means of improving the quality of governance in developing countries. Reports by the general public are used to pressure the state to improve the delivery of public services, or even to fire officials implicated in wrongdoing. This in particular was a dominant theme in the last World Bank Development Report on social services delivery (World Bank, 2004)). Yet the data show that citizens' opinions may be influenced by factors other than the quality of the public services they are supposed to be evaluating. (Duflo, Esther & Topalova Petia, 2004).

This updated edition of Women in Parliament: Beyond Numbers Handbook covers the ground of women's access to the legislature in three steps: It looks into the obstacles women confront when entering Parliament - be they political, socio-economic or ideological and psychological. It presents solutions to overcome these obstacles, such as changing electoral systems and introducing quotas, and it details strategies for women to influence politics once they are elected to parliament, an institution that is traditionally male dominated. The handbook includes case studies from Argentina, Burkina Faso, Ecuador, France, Indonesia, Rwanda, South Africa and Sweden, as well as regional overviews from the Arab World, Latin America, South Asia and a case study on the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) (Kristin Haffert, Shannon O'Connell, 2010).

There is still need to achieve a more balanced representation of men and women in politics and try to solve the problem of the 'democratic deficit' resulting in the low representation of women as well as in the decision-making positions. Besides demanding quotas/one-third reservation for women in the legislative bodies, women need demand sufficient quota in ministerial positions or real seats of power. Women need to get into decision-making positions by any means possible. Without adequate decision - making power and control at all levels, the gains women have made are too easily ignored and eroded. All major economic and political decisions in India are being made without the input of women. Women should wield political power in decision-making positions too. A strong group of women in politics can make a difference by bringing women's perspective to all issues on the political agenda: foreign affairs, economic, trade, justice, military, peace etc. Women should advocate for a polity based on gender parity in decision-making bodies and process (N. Sushma, 2011).

There is greater need to increase the participation of Women in Politics. It will be impossible to create any change to politics without increasing the representation of women in the various levels of the political power structure. Women need to learn about politics, its impacts and its positive consequences. They must understand the importance of their vote. Everyone must realize that women are essential parts of a political system that is free from corruption and exploitation. The voices of women strengthen democracy and will lead to a peaceful, development and equal society. Political parties should encourage more women to enter into politics. They should not be used only as votes but to help bring about change to the present political structure (Syamala, N. Devi & N. Kedareswari, 2011).

Panchayati Raj Institutions have great potential for promoting development of the masses. But this potential has not been fully exploited. Most of the SC women Panchayat leaders were facing the problem of non cooperation from officials and the dominant sections of Gram Panchayats. So the elected members and the grass roots level people together uphold the grass roots democracy for the empowerment of voiceless and powerless vulnerable community. For the success of the grass roots democracy and for the empowerment of the people, local NGOs and Panchayat Raj Institutions should work together on a commonly agreed agenda of strengthening the voiceless and the vulnerable (R. L. Rosario : 2012).

Increasing levels of democratic freedoms should, in theory, improve women‘s access to political positions. Yet studies demonstrate that democracy does little to improve women‘s legislative representation. To resolve this paradox, we investigate how variations in the democratization process-including pre-transition legacies, historical experiences with elections, the global context of transition, and post-transition democratic freedoms and quotas-affect women‘s representation in developing nations. We find that democratization‘s effect is curvilinear. Women in non-democratic regimes often have high levels of legislative representation but little real political power. When democratization occurs, women‘s representation initially drops, but with increasing democratic freedoms and additional elections, it increases again. Our results, based on pooled time series analysis from 1975 to 2009, demonstrate that it is not democracy-as measured by a nation‘s level of democratic freedoms at a particular moment in time-but rather the democratization process that matters for women‘s legislative representation (Kathleen, M. Fallon; Swiss, Liam & Viterna, Jocelyn: 2012).

Rather, different institutional changes are advised to increase women‘s presence in national governments. Study findings indicate that a ‘one size fits all‘ policy to increase the proportion of women occupying seats in national governments does not make sense. Rather, the transition to a PR electoral system considerably helps women in the average developed country, but it does less to aid women in less developed countries. On the other hand, women in developing and least-developed countries generally experience substantial gains through the adoption of gender quota legislation, while this use of time and/or resources may be ill-advised in developed countries (Rosen, Jennifer : 2013).

However, examine whether socio-political movements provide opportunities for women to use certain strategies that might be able to subvert the gender hierarchy in politics. And also affirmative action to happen-be it quotas in parliament or in political parties-mobilization of women around an integrated development agenda is critical. The formation of a caucus of women political leaders across party lines to enhance women‘s participation within political parties and to advocate for the Women‘s Reservation Bill as a collective voice. Urgent action is needed on the long pending Women‘s Reservation Bill. We need to give up the social norms and deeply entrenched patriarchal mind-sets which are backing women from entering politics. More diverse participation in politics is not only good for women but is key for society and a strong democracy. Institutions and programs are needed but men leaders have to give a chance to women and put them on top it will take much longer to have up stream flow of women leaders from grassroots to the top (Barki, Shreedhar, 2013).

Despite what seems to be a deep commitment to ignorance on the part of mainstream scholars, it seems obvious that women's political participation should be a required dimension of all case study and comparative research on democratization. It is not enough to generalize about women; we need to understand more about the political dynamics of gender at every level to understand how political options will evolve. The experiences of women's groups provide an important window on state/society relations, how interest groups influence the state, and how the state tries control group access and manipulate group support. Finally, it think that looking at women's participation will show that issues of inequality and redistribution-which were virtually banished from public debate by the assumptions of political and economic "liberalization"-are beginning to re-emerge, framed in new ways. Women's political attitudes and participation may not be globally predictable, at least not from what we have seen to date. But they will certainly be of central importance to the future of democracies and therefore to the future of the international system and the long-term prospects for peace (Jane S. Jaquette, 2014).

Thus, number of issues, dimensions and aspects related to democracy and women has been studied by various social scientists at all levels. Very few studies have been conducted related to democratic institutions and empowerment of women and another such studies by their very nature do not touch the core of reality. Therefore, in the present developmental context in India, rapid changes are taking place on the economic scene, which bring in their trial, far reaching changes in the social, cultural, and political aspects of life. Thus, on its own, the necessity of a new study remains evergreen.

3. Conceptual Framework

Its different dimensions and to what extent the conceptual frame of reference is virtually operative in the Indian Democracy will be focused upon and they will mainly be object of investigation in the context of democratic institutions and its impact on upliftment/empowerment of women. The central concepts of the present investigation are democracy, political mobilization, political participation, leadership and women empowerment. These concepts will be stated one by one.

Democracy : Democracy is a form of government in which all eligible citizens participate equally-either directly or indirectly through elected representatives-in the proposal, development, and creation of laws. It encompasses social, economic and cultural conditions that enable the free and equal practice of political self-determination.

Political Mobilization : Political mobilization refers to structured and patterned transaction, flows of influence, support claims and information between allied and interdependent political components. In simple terms, political mobilization is taken here as who is attached to and influenced by whom and why? These are based on counter obligations and pressures, the type and nature of obligation and pressures may be multi-dimensional, political mobilization-politics works as an operational milieu for political institutions.

Political Participation : The general level of participation in a society is the extent to which the people as a whole are active in politics, the number of active people multiplied by the amount of their action to put it arithmetically. But the question of what it is to take part in politics is massively complex and ultimately ambiguous.

Leadership : The concept of "Leadership" is different from that of 'leader' but a few authors have used them interchangeably. Leadership is a process and not a person, involving followers and their situation. As far as the definition of leadership is concerned, there is no unanimity on the precise meaning of the term "Leadership". The concept of leadership has been variously defined by social scientists. For example, Fairchild defines leadership as : "the act of organizing and directing the interests and activities of a group of persons, as associated in some project or enterprise by a person who develops the cooperation through securing and maintaining their more or less voluntary approval of the ends and methods proposed and adopted in the association".

There are two essential aspects of leadership firstly, the ability to influence others to cooperate, and secondly, the identification of a common purpose or goal. Read defined leadership in these words : "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate towards some which they come to find desirable". The leader-led relationship may be looked at from the typology developed by Max Weber : (1) traditional source; (2) rational-legal source; and (3) charismatic source. A traditional leader like the head of a village, or a caste or a religion derives influence and legitimacy because of his respect for the old established patterns of order. An emerging leader (members of the Panchayati Raj System) is a professional (village officials), deriving authority from the legally established position or an office that he holds.

Women Empowerment : Empowerment means individuals acquiring the power to think and act freely, exercise choice, and to fulfill their potential as full and equal members of society. The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) includes the following factors in its definition of women's empowerment : (i) acquiring knowledge and understanding of gender relations and the ways in which these relations may be changed; (ii) developing a sense of self-worth, a belief in one's ability to secure desired changes and the right to control one's life; (iii) gaining the ability to generate choices and exercise bargaining power; (iv) developing the ability to organize and influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationality and internationally.

4. Objectives of the Study

1. To analyze factors responsible for success/failure related to political participation of the people specially women in democratic institutions.
2. To examine the impact of democratic institutions on empowerment of women.
3. To suggest measures for further strengthening democratic institutions and empowerment of women.

5. Representation of Women in Electoral Politics at Various Levels

Political empowerment of women implies the degree of equality and freedom enjoyed by women in the shaping and sharing of power and the value given by the society to political role of women. The Indian Constitution guarantees political equality through adult franchise. However, actual working of the Indian Constitution over the past six decades reflects that women, who roughly constitute 50 per cent of Indian electorate, have not been able to participate effectively in various walks of lives including the political fields. There performance both quantitatively and qualitatively has been rather insignificant with a few exceptions; women have remained outside the domain of power and political authority. Experiences show that women have rarely occupied leading position with few exceptions. Women have not made much progress in spite of laws that guarantee equality of opportunities. Thus such a situation necessitated empowering of women. In this section, we examine political representation of women in India at various level i.e. Centre, State and Grass roots.

Table-1 observed that in the Second Lok Sabha (1957) there were only 22 women constituting that was (4.49 per cent) of the house. The per cent of women in the second Lok Sabha in relation to the total number of seats has been very low i.e., 4.4 per cent, it increased slightly in third Lok Sabha (1962) (6.16 per cent). In fourth Lok Sabha (1967) and percentage of women representation once again fell to (5.54 per cent), in fifth Lok Sabha (1971) there was a sharp decline when Indira Gandhi was at the peak of her career and only 21 (4.03 per cent) women were elected.

The Janta Party came to power in 1977 and there was a further decline in the sixth Lok Sabha (3.29 per cent). There was a small increase in seventh Lok Sabha (1980) with their figures going up 28 (5.15 per cent). With the advent of Rajeev Gandhi in 1984, the situation improved somewhat and the figure went up to 42 (7.72 per cent). There was declined in the ninth Lok Sabha (1989) to 29 (5.6 per cent) when the Janta Dal formed the government. There has been a slight improvement also in tenth Lok Sabha (1996), eleventh Lok Sabha (1996) and twelfth Lok Sabha (1998). In thirteen Lok Sabha there were 49 (9.02) women members and which was the highest percentage in Lok Sabha election. In the fourteen Lok Sabha, again the strength of women members has come down to 45 (8.28 per cent). However, in the fifteen Lok Sabha, the situation improved somewhat and the figure went up to 58 (10.7 percent). In sixteenth Lok Sabha election out of the 543 MPs elected, 66 are women. This is the highest number of women MPs elected to the Lok Sabha in the history of the country. Therefore, the total number of women members in Lok Sabha has increased from (4.4 per cent) in 1957 to (12.2 per cent) in 2014 election.

Table-1 : Women's Representation in LokSabha

Year	Seats	Women MPs	Percentage of Women MPs
1952	499	-	4.4
1957	500	22	4.4
1962	503	31	6.16
1967	523	29	5.54
1971	521	21	4.03
1977	544	19	3.29
1980	544	28	5.15
1984	517	42	7.72
1989	544	29	5.6
1991	543	37	6.8
1996	543	40	7.36
1998	543	43	7.92
1999	543	49	9.02
2004	543	45	8.28
2009	543	58	10.7
2014	543	66	12.2

Source : Election commission of India, 2014

Table-2 shows that a cursory look at table makes it apparent that very few women are actually participating in the elections. In the second (1957) General Election out of the total contestants of 1519 only 45 candidates were women and in the sixteen (2014) election, out of the total number of contestants of 8251 only 668 were women. On an average, 5 per cent of the total strength of all the sixteen Lok Sabhas comprised of women members. The sixteenth Lok Sabha had the maximum and the Six Lok Sabha had the minimum representation of women members. This is true in absolute numbers as well as proportionately. Though the number of women participating in the elections may be increasing gradually they continue to constitute a very small percentage of the total number of contestants.

Table-2 : Contestants to Lok Sabha in General Elections

Gender-wise break-up of contestants to Lok Sabha in General Elections			
Year	**Total Contestants**	**Men contestants**	**Women contestants**
1952	1874	NA	NA
1957	1519	1474 (97.03%)	45 (2.96%)
1962	1985	1919 (96.67%)	66 (3.32%)
1967	2369	2302 (97.17%)	67 (2.82%)
1971	2737	2698 (98.57%)	86 (3.14%)
1977	2439	2369 (97.13%)	70 (2.87%)
1980	4629	4486 (96.91%)	143 (3.09%)
1984	5312	5150 (96.95%)	162 (2.95%)
1989	6160	5962 (96.79%)	198 (3.21%)
1991	8658	8342 (96.35%)	326 (3.76%)
1996	13952	13353 (95.71%)	599 (4.29%)
1998	4750	4476 (94.23%)	274 (5.77%)
1999	4648	4364 (93.89%)	284 (6.11%)
2004	5435	5080 (93.46%)	355 (6.53%)
2009	5110	4668 (91.35%)	442 (8.65%)
2014	8251	7583 (91.90%)	668 (8.09%)

Source : Election Commission of India

NA : Not Applicable

The participation of women contested in the various State Legislatures equally dismal. It is less than the proportion of women contestants for the various parliamentary elections held so far.

Table-3 presents the actual picture about the position of women contestants in various state Assemblies elections and their success ratio so far. The position relating to the extent of participation of women in the Legislative Assemblies of different states in India is worse when compared with that of the parliament. The data presented in the table-3 revealed the actual trends of women participation in the State Legislative Assemblies. The overall average participation of women Member of Legislative Assemblies (MLAs) in the debates and discussions across all states legislative during the last 55 year's stand at mere 5 per cent. During the period between 1952 and 1977, the strength of the women legislatures in the various States Assemblies without any exception is extremely depressing. At any period in any State Legislature their percentage did not exceed 12 per cent of the total strength.

Table-3 : Women MLA's in State Legislature

Proportion of Women MLA's in State Legislative Assemblies, 1952-2007							
State/UTs	**1952**	**1957**	**1960-65**	**1967-69**	**1970-75**	**1977-78**	**1979-83**
Andhra Pradesh	2.9	3.7	3.3	3.8	9.1	3.4	4.1
Arunachal Pradesh	***	***	***	***	***	0.0	3.3
Assam	0.5	4.6	3.8	4.0	7.0	0.8	0.8
Bihar	3.6	9.4	7.9	2.2	3.8	4.0	3.7
Chhattisgarh	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Goa	***	***	***	6.7	3.3	3.3	0.0
Gujarat	***	***	8.4	4.8	3.2	***	2.7
Haryana	***	***	***	7.4*	6.2	4.4	7.8
Himachal Pradesh	0.0	***	***	0.0	5.9	1.5	4.4
Jammu & Kashmir	***	***	0.0	0.0	5.3	1.3	0.0
Jharkhand	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Karnataka	2.0	8.7	8.7	3.2	5.1	4.0	0.9
Kerala	0.0	4.8	3.9	0.8	1.5	0.7	3.2
Madhya Pradesh	2.1	10.8	4.9	3.4	5.4	3.1	5.6
Maharashtra	1.9	6.3	4.9	3.3	9.3	2.8	6.6
Manipur	***	***	***	***	0.0*	***	0.0
Meghalaya	***	***	***	***	1.7	1.7	0.0
Mizoram	***	***	***	***	0.0	3.3	3.3

Nagaland	***	***	***	0.0	***	***	0.0
Orissa	9.6	3.6	1.4	3.6	1.4*	4.8	3.4
Punjab	2.2	5.8	5.2	1.0*	5.8	2.6	5.1
Rajasthan	0.0	5.1	4.5	3.3	7.1	4.0	5.0
Sikkim	***	***	***	***	***	***	0.0
Tamil Nadu	0.3	5.9	3.9	1.7	2.1	0.9	2.1
Tripura	***	***	***	0	3.3	1.7	6.7
Uttar Pradesh	1.2	5.8	4.4	2.8*	5.9	2.6	5.6
Uttarakhand	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
West Bengal	0.8	3.6	4.8	2.9*	1.6*	1.4	2.4
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Chandigarh	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Daman & Diu	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
NCT of Delhi	4.2	***	***	***	7.1	7.1	7.1
Lakshadweep	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Pondicherry	***	***	***	***	0.0	0.0	3.3
Total	**1.8**	**6.3**	**4.9**	**2.9**	**4.4**	**2.8**	**3.8**

Table-3 : Continued

Proportion of Women MLA's in State Legislative Assemblies, 1952-2007						
State/UTs	**1984-88**	**1989-92**	**1993-97**	**1998-99**	**2000-03**	**2004-07**
Andhra Pradesh	3.4	3.7	2.7	9.5	***	10.3
Arunachal Pradesh	6.7	3.3	3.3	1.7	***	***
Assam	4.0	4.0	4.8	***	7.9	10.3
Bihar	4.6	2.8	3.4	***	NA	10.3
Chhattisgarh	***	***	***	***	NA	***
Goa	0.0	5.0	10	5.0	2.5	2.5
Gujarat	8.8	2.2	1.1	2.2	6.5	8.8
Haryana	5.6	6.7	4.4	***	***	12.2
Himachal Pradesh	4.4	5.9	4.4	8.8	5.8	7.3
Jammu & Kashmir	1.3	***	2.3	***	2.2	***
Jharkhand	***	***	***	***	NA	3.7
Karnataka	3.6	4.5	3.1	2.7	***	2.6
Kerala	5.7	5.7	9.3	***	5.6	5.0

Madhya Pradesh	9.7	3.4	3.8	8.1	5.9	***
Maharashtra	5.6	2.1	3.8	4.2	***	***
Manipur	0.0	1.7	0.0	***	1.6	***
Meghalaya	3.3	***	1.7	5.0	3.3	***
Mizoram	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	***
Nagaland	1.7	***	0.0	***	0.0	***
Orissa	6.1	4.8	5.4	***	***	4.1
Punjab	3.4	5.1	6.0	***	6.8	6.0
Rajasthan	8.0	5.5	4.5	7.0	6.0	***
Sikkim	0.0	6.3	3.1	3.1	***	9.3
Tamil Nadu	3.4	9.0	3.8	***	10.6	***
Tripura	3.3	***	1.7	***	3.3	***
Uttar Pradesh	7.3	3.3	4.0	***	6.1	5.7
Uttarakhand	***	***	***	***	NA	5.8
West Bengal	4.4	7.1	6.8	***	9.5	12.6
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	***	***	***	***	***	***
Chandigarh	***	***	***	***	***	***
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	***	***	***	***	***	
Daman & Diu	***	***	***	***	***	***
NCT of Delhi	***	***	4.3	12.9	10.0	***
Lakshadweep	***	***	***	***	***	***
Pondicherry	3.3	1.7	3.3	***	0.0	0.0
Total	**5.3**	**4.5**	**4.0**	**6.0**	**6.0**	**7.3**

Source : Election Commission of India

The data further shows that the variation in representation across the State Assemblies does not reveal any definite pattern, but one thing is fairly clear. The states like Kerala, Bengal, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu with high literacy rate or comparatively high female literacy fare worse than average on this score. Surprisingly, Haryana and Madhya Pradesh, marked by a poor record on female literacy, have shown in better than average representation of women. In general, the lack of representation of women is evenly spread across at all the States.

As can be seen the preparation of women contestants is even lower then who got elected to the Parliament and State Legislatures. In the Lok Sabha elections of 1996, there was on an average almost one women candidate for every seat. In the case of State Assemblies the figure is still less than 0.5 but even that is several times higher than the past. However, it is necessary to keep in mind that rise is sheer number of contesting candidates does not necessarily mean greater participation of women in the Legislative bodies.

This rise can be explained by an overall increase in the number of candidates, men as well as women. Views from the proportion of total number of candidates who contested the elections in the Parliament and State Legislative Assemblies and the share of women have not registered any significant increase for the Lok Sabha elections. At the level of State Assemblies elections, there has been a very slight though steady increase in the share of women contestants in different elections held to the Lok Sabha and State Assemblies. This increase in the number and the proportion of women contestants has not resulted in an increase in their presence either in the Parliament or State Legislative, the success ratio of women contestants has steadily throughout the period right from the independence.

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment has created space for women in political participation and decision making at grass roots level by reserving one-third of the seats all over the country. It provides reservations for women in PRIs in two ways; for the office of the members and for that of the chairpersons. As per clauses (2) and (3) of Article 243 (d), not less than one-third of the seats meant for direct election of members at each tier of the Panchayats are to be reserved for women. Although the percentage of women at various levels of political activity has risen considerably, women are still under-represented in governance and decision-making process.

Table-4 depicted that women in Gram Panchayats represented highest in Bihar (54.6 per cent), followed by Manipur (43.5 percent), Karnataka (43.0 per cent), Sikkim (39.9 per cent), Arunachal Pradesh (39.4 per cent), Dadra & Nagar Haveli (39.4 per cent), Assam (39.2 per cent), Himachal Pradesh (39.1 per cent) and least in Kerala (30.3 per cent). Women in Panchayat Samities represented highest in Bihar (49.1 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (37.5 per cent), Andaman & Nicobar Islands (37.3 per cent) and Pondicherry (37.0 per cent). Women at District Panchayats reported highest in Bihar (49.8 per cent) followed by Manipur (45.9 per cent), Uttar Pradesh (41.5 per cent), Goa (40.0 per cent), Sikkim (40.0 per cent), Rajasthan (37.4 per cent) and Karnataka (37.1 per cent). In Uttar Pradesh, the representation of women in Gram Panchayats, Panchayat Samities and District Panchayats was (38.8 per cent), (37.5 per cent) and (41.5 per cent) respectively.

Further table revealed that the representation of women in Panchayati Raj level has shown an increasing trend in many states. This shows the numerical rise of women in the political field. Before 1985 whereas only two women in each of the status of Gujarat, Punjab, West Bengal, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh participated in panchayats their representation after 2013 has increased to 33.0 per cent, 34.9 per cent, 38.4 per cent, 50.0 per cent and 50.5 per cent respectively.

The above analysis shows that representation of women in Panchayati Raj Institution has shown an increasing trend in quantitative terms. These achievements, however does not mean that rural women have no problems and are treated equally. Although there are many changes yet still certain socio-economic and political barriers are present which obstruct women towards performing their task and in participating actively in public life.

Table-4 : State wise number of Elected Representation of Women in Panchayats in 2009

State/UTs	Gram Panchayat			Intermediate Panchayat		
	Total	Women	%	Total	Women	%
Andhra Pradesh	208291	68736	33.0	14617	4919	33.6
Arunachal Pradesh	6485	2561	39.4	1639	577	35.2
Assam	22898	8977	39.2	2148	791	36.8
Bihar	117397	64152	54.6	11537	5671	49.1
Chattisgarh	157250	53045	33.7	2977	1005	33.7
Goa (b)	1509	514	34.0	0	NA	NA
Gujarat	109209	36400	33.3	4161	1394	33.5
Haryana	66588	24406	36.6	2833	962	33.9
Himachal Pradesh	22654	8864	39.1	1676	596	35.5
Jammu & Kashmir	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Jahrkhand	0	0	0	0	0	0
Karnataka	91402	39318	43.0	3683	1519	41.2
Kerala	16139	4904	30.3	2004	609	30.3
Madhya Pradesh	388829	133508	34.3	6851	2378	34.7
Maharashtra	223857	74620	33.3	3922	1307	33.3
Manipur (b)	1675	730	43.5	0	0	0
Maghalaya (d)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Nagaland (d)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Orissa	85367	31121	36.4	6233	2208	35.4
Punjab	88132	30875	35.2	2622	866	33.0
Rajasthan	113710	40043	39.9	5257	2014	38.3
Sikkim	891	356	33.6	0	0	0
Tamil Nadu	109308	36824	34.6	6524	2313	35.4
Tripura	5352	1852	38.8	299	106	35.4
Uttar Pradesh	703294	273229	37.6	65669	24674	37.4
Uttarakhand	53988	20319	36.6	3152	1079	37.5
West Bengal	49545	18150	34.3	8563	2953	34.2
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	759	261	32.7	67	25	34.4
Chandigarh	162	53	39.4	15	6	37.3
Dadra & Nagar Havali	114	45	38.8	0	0	40.0
Daman & Diu	77	30	38.9	00	0	0
NCT of Delhi	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Lakshdweep	85	32	37.6	0	0	0
Pandicharry	913	330	36.1	108	40	37.0

Table-3 : Continued

State/UTs	Zila Parishad			Representation at all levels as on 1 March, 2013		
	Total	Women	%	Total	Women (No.)	%
Andhra Pradesh	1095	364	33.2	254487	85154	33.5
Arunachal Pradesh	136	45	33.0	9336	3889	41.6
Assam	390	135	34.6	26844	9903	36.9
Bihar	1157	577	49.8	136130	68065	50.0
Chattisgarh	321	109	33.9	158776	86538	54.5
Goa (b)	50	20	40.0	1559	504	32.3
Gujarat	817	274	33.5	118751	39206	33.0
Haryana	384	135	35.1	68152	24876	36.5
Himachal Pradesh	251	92	36.6	27832	13947	50.1
Jammu & Kashmir	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Jahrkhand	0	0	0	53207	31157	58.6
Karnataka	1005	373	37.1	95307	41577	43.6
Kerala	339	119	35.1	19107	9907	51.9
Madhya Pradesh	836	310	37.0	393209	198459	50.5
Maharashtra	1961	654	33.3	203203	101466	49.9
Manipur (b)	61	28	45.9	1723	836	48.5
Maghalaya (d)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Nagaland (d)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Orissa	854	301	35.2	100863	NA	50.0
Punjab	209	68	32.5	84138	29389	34.9
Rajasthan	1008	377	37.4	109345	54673	50.0
Sikkim	95	38	40.0	1099	NA	50.0
Tamil Nadu	656	227	34.6	119399	41790	35.0
Tripura	82	28	34.1	5676	2044	36.0
Uttar Pradesh	2698	1122	41.5	773980	309511	40.0
Uttarakhand	360	119	33.0	61452	34494	56.1
West Bengal	720	248	34.4	51423	19762	38.4
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	30	10	33.3	NA	-	-
Chandigarh	10	3	30.0	NA	-	-

Dadra & Nagar Havali	11	4	36.3	NA	-	-
Daman & Diu	20	7	35	NA	-	-
NCT of Delhi	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-
Lakshdweep	25	9	36	NA	-	-
Pandicharry	NA	NA	NA	NA	-	-

Women : Combined SC, ST and General Categories.

Sources : Strengthening of Panchayats in India: Comparing Devolution across States, Empirical Assessment: 2012-13, Indian Institute of Public Administration and Ministry of Panchayati Raj website (http://www.iipa.org.in/upload/Panchatat_devolution_Index_Report_2012-13.pdf, Environment at Sub-National Level [2012], Ministry of Panchayati Raj and Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi).

6. Conclusions

In conclusion we can say that there is greater need to increase the participation of women in politics. It will be impossible to create any change to policies without increasing the representation of women in the various levels of the political power structure. Present study concluded that the participation of women in the election as contesting candidate and as winners at different elections held to both Parliament and State Assemblies from the beginning of Independence.

In the case of Parliamentary elections, as the present study reflects that a very dismal trend regarding the share of women members in the total number of members of Parliament at any given period of time. It can be seen from the study that the number of women members in the Parliament varied between 4 and 12.2 per cent of the total numbers of the total numbers of the Parliament during 1952-2014. Most of the time there number was less than 5 per cent of the total numbers of Parliament. The highest number of women members can be found in the Lok Sabha which was constituted in 2014, even though; they constituted only 12.2 per cent of the total membership of this Lok Sabha. This indicates that women continued to be marginalized in the electoral politics. Since they were extremely negligible minority in all the Parliaments without any exceptions, notwithstanding the fact that they constitute exactly half of the total population of the country, still their share in the highest law making body in the country is found to be very minute.

The study further concluded that the state legislative during any period, their strength did not exceed 9 per cent of the total strength of the House. The highest percentage of women members can be found in the West Bengal State Assembly followed by Haryana in 2004-07. In these two Assemblies the women, constitute about 12.6 and 12.2 per cent respectively. It can be noted that the average of women contestants was merely 7.3 per cent in 2004-07. The study also points the same trend regarding the women contestants in the various elections held to the State Assemblies in the Country. Thus, the present study revealed that the participation of women in the State Assemblies is much lower than that of in the Lok Sabha. However, few encouraging trends have also emerged from the present study regarding the participation of women in the electoral politics.

However, poor record of participation even where women's human capital development is on a par with men has lead feminists to insist that the apparently fundamentally gendered conditions for political participation are not just 'deficits' of democracies, they are 'intrinsic to politics, not an extraneous, additional concern. The feminist critique of democracy illuminates some of the deepest tensions in democratic theory and practice. For instance, it demonstrates that democratic politics is not just about monitoring the exercise of power by the state, but also monitoring powerful private interests, including the power wielded by domestic patriarchs. This challenges basic conceptions about appropriate arenas for political competition and policy intervention. The feminists critique of democracy also provokes an assessment of the utility of formal liberal civil and political rights in contexts of democratic institutions which do not permit the equal participation of women. It focuses attention on the importance of an expanded conception of rights- including reproductive and sexual rights - if women are to promote their interests in the public sphere.

Although women's empowerment must be the short-term agenda, long term goals must also be considered. There can be no empowerment without gender gaps in the development duly supported by the statistics and empirical evidences. These gaps are largely due to the absence of women from decision making bodies. The women remain outsiders in the deciding the directions of development resulting in injustifiable disparities. The policy makers are relevant in meeting the needs of the people. What is difficult to understand is why the other half feels that they know the people's needs better what earthly justification is there for assuming that women cannot speak for themselves?

7. Suggestions

Political training of women should begin at the school stage and should be spread on the local, provincial, national and international levels. Women participation in decision making must be at every level of social, economic and political spheres and shall ensure regular and fair elections at every level, without taking the patronage of political dons and to create awareness amongst women through mass media about the electoral process and also the candidates contesting for election, thereby eliminating powerful men taking advantage of the ignorance of women and controlling their decisions in exercising their right to vote.

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6

Global Citizenship of Secondary School Students in Bangkok, Thailand

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The purposes of this research were to study Global Citizenship of Secondary Students in Bangkok Thailand and to compare their levels of Global Citizenship by classifying their sex, private school and government school, year/class and family occupation. The sample in this research were 577 Secondary Students in Bangkok, Thailand. The instrument used in this research were Global Citizenship of Secondary Students in Bangkok, Thailand questionnaires by classifying such as 1) self - discipline 2) social interaction 3) compliance roles and 4) awareness of the situation of environmental resources and public health. The scale consisted of 48 questions, has reliability at 0.857. The data were statistically analyzed with Descriptive statistics: mean, standard Deviation and inferential statistic was t-test independent. The results of this research revealed that: Overall, the students displayed a slightly high level of Global Citizenship (mean = 3.74). When considering each aspect, it was found that with all aspects, the level were high was found that the aspect relating to self - discipline shoed the high level (mean = 3.89). The second highest was the aspect relating to the awareness of the situation of environmental resources and public health and to social interaction (mean = 3.76) and the aspect relating to compliance roles (mean = 3.54). The overall Global Citizenship of Secondary Students in Bangkok indicated statistically significant different in these areas (sig = .05): sex, private school and government

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school. It is suggested that Social Studies course should have activities concerning Global Citizenship for Secondary Students all class especially compliance roles and awareness of the situation of environmental resources and public health and secondly, secondary students all class should be given service learning programs in order to develop Global Citizenship skill.

[**Keywords :** Global Citizenship, Student, self-discipline, social interaction, compliance roles, awareness of the situation of environmental resources and public health]

1. Background/ Objectives and Goals

Nowadays there are huge changes and competition in society such as in economic, social, cultural, technological aspects etc. So there is a need to adjust paradigms in order to improve and develop country to stand firm in this age. One of the basics in developing country is education as it is a tool to develop thinking and wisdom of citizens, the vital key to make the country driven. When society is changed, the paradigm of education must be adjusted to fit to the era and correspondent with actual situation of society. Due to boundless communication system, the developed countries have expanded their cultures, impacts on culture and powers on economy into other countries until global culture becomes global village (Kriengsak Charoenwongsak, 2003).

Therefore there is an educational reform with aims and principles to develop Thais to be perfectly human by understanding differences among individuals, developing necessary skills for life of the 21st century learners, integrating knowledge and ethics, training learners to live happily with others both in local and world society (Office of the National Education Commission, 2002:3) Thus operation in the 21st century must be integrated in both ethics and knowledge in order to show that developing must be done in both intellectual and mental aspects, without separation. The key point to achieve the set goal is to cooperate all parties in developing learners to be able to discern differences of people (Suwimon Wongwanit, 2003). Education is an essential tool to develop knowledge, thinking, behaviour, attitude, value and moral of persons to be a quality and effective citizen ready for changes of globalization. There are two dimensions of education. The first dimension is to develop all knowledges and capabilities. The second dimension is to develop person or learner to have thinking, behaviour, attitude, value and moral. Thailand has the 12th national education plan (2017-2022). The main idea of the plan is to develop learners to have knowledge along with good ethics, quality life, live joyfully in society. In order to make Thailand stability, prosperity and sustainability in the future, we must prioritize to strengthen and empower the existing resources to drive the country. The most important matters of developing process, in both intermediate and long terms, to be ready for the changes of the world in 21st century, especially “in developing human resources”, are learning and social skills as well as to strengthen other surroundings factors in developing quality person and educational management for making quality citizen (Office of the National Education Commission, 2016 : 10).

An essential foundation of developing person to be ready for world changes in global level is to make citizenship in people. It is an issue that almost all countries around the world are pushing through and prioritizing. Because they recognize its need and value as a very good tool to help them survive and step out of all crisis. When people become quality citizens, it will make society more qualitative and lead to social development with firm foundation which is considered as a true stabilizing development. There are many developed countries acknowledge this issue so they value developing people since they are youths and let education make citizenship especially in compulsory education. Many countries in both Europe and Asia could perform well successful and accepted education. Although developing process of educational management in making citizenship seems to occur long ago and there are many studies on this topic, it is still in the trend and interested by political scientists and educators. Its scopes also extend to related factors of education and development of innovation on teaching widely due to fluctuations of changes on society. Therefore education for preparing readiness for youths is on-going matter (Lertporn Udompong, 2014 : 1).

Features of Thai citizenship in the past occurred from shaping Thais to be in Thai way of life by using formal education system together with teaching knowledge through various mass communications such as Thai literature, art, and manner. It makes Thai citizens to accept hierarchy in society and Thai ways of changes which gives value on good leaders with abilities. Citizens under this current way of life not only must obey and function good citizenship the best with sacrifices, unities but also not to intervene duties of the leaders. It is a top-down relationship and also has centralized structure of the government which makes to inequality in power and property and leads to conflicts and violence (Saichon Sattayanurak, 2015). In family level, it also determines to make good children for parents or Thai society by being well obedient and imitating adults. From the above characteristics, Thai society seems to have traditional culture to sharpen people in society since they are young. Thai culture does not accept other people's opinions and it is a culture with authoritarianism to mole people as receivers and followers which is totally contrast to global culture that encourages expression, reasoning, initiation, participation, patient to listen to other opinions, respect other opinions, not to dominate over thought, accepting different idea, non-violence behaviour and sharing responsibility. As the same time the Committee of policy for reforming education in 2nd decade who is developing education for citizenship has analyzed weaknesses of citizens in Thai society and determined characteristics of citizenship for common goal of citizenship development as following 1) Self-reliance and responsible 2) Respect others 3) Respect in differences 4) Respect in equality 5) Respect in regulations and 6) Responsible toward society (Berea of

Academic Affairs and Educational Standards, 2014 : 55-56) The aforementioned characteristics are essential characteristics for developing Thai citizenship.

Moreover, the researcher has studied researched documents related to characteristics of global citizenship of Pajaree Rattananuson (2013) who studied on "Development of Indicators of Global Citizen Characteristics of Secondary School Students" by synthesizing theories related to global citizenship from Cogan and Derricott (2000), Walai Itsarangkul Na Ayuthaya, Sumon Amornwiwat, Kriengsak Charoenwongsak (2003), Office of the Education Commission (2000), Office of the Education Council (2005), Siripen Buranasiri (1989), Siriwan Sripahol (2004), Learning and Teaching Scotland (2011), Oxfam (2006), Atlantic Council for International Cooperation and Canadian International Development Agency: ACIC-CIDA (2010), The Education Development: Hong Kong (1996) and Shirley Engle and Anna Ochoa (1998). Global citizenship consists of 4 elements with 12 indicators which are : 1. Element on self-behaviour : self-responsible, judgmental thinking and adjustment according to variety of cultures; 2. Element on social interaction : ability to co-operate with others, accepting different views in politics and respect right and freedom; 3. Element on performing roles and responsibility : ability to think creatively, promote peace and equality and participation in politics in different levels; 4. Element on recognizing situation of resources, environments and healthcare : using natural resources for stability, recognizing and participating in environmental problems and recognizing on importance of basic healthcare.

Aforementioned situation, the researcher is interested to study on citizenship and global citizenship of secondary school students in Bangkok area in order to take the result of the study in consideration of overview on global citizenship in youths which will lead to have clear determining goal and direction of administrating global citizenship in all levels. Moreover it will help to manage resources in human development effectively which will make Thai have quality of life as well as global society and be able to develop the country and global society progressively.

1·1 Objectives

1. To study characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area.
2. To compare characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area, by gender and types of school.

1·2 Framework

To study global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area, the researcher has studied researched document related to characteristics of global citizenship of Pajaree Rattananuson (2013) who studied on "Development of Indicators of Global Citizen Characteristics of Secondary School Students" by synthesizing theories related to global citizenship of Cogan and Derricott (2000), Walai Itsarangkul Na Ayuthaya, Sumon Amornwiwat, Kriengsak Charoenwongsak (2003), Office of the Education Commission (2000), Office of the Education Council (2005), Siripen Buranasiri (1989), Siriwan Sripahol (2004), Learning and Teaching Scotland (2011), Oxfam (2006), Atlantic Council for International Cooperation and Canadian International Development Agency: ACIC-CIDA (2010), The Education Development: Hong Kong (1996) and Shirley Engle and Anna Ochoa (1998). The result of synthesizing found that global citizenship consists of 4 main elements with 12 indicators which are : 1. Element on self-behaviour : self-responsible, judgmental thinking and adjustment according to variety of cultures; 2. Element on social interaction : ability to co-operate with others, accepting different views in politics and respect right and freedom; 3. Element on performing roles and responsibility : ability to think creatively, promote peace and equality and participation in politics in different levels; 4. Element on recognizing situation of resources, environments and healthcare : using natural resources for stability, recognizing and participating in environmental problems and recognizing on importance of basic healthcare.

2. Methods

2·1 Populations and Samplings

Population : Secondary school students in the first semester of academic year 2017 in 119 schools under the Bangkok Regional Education Office: 53,268 students from the Secondary Educational Service Area Office 1 and 55,210 students from the Secondary Educational Service Area Office 2, subtotal 108,478 students (The Bangkok Regional Education Office, 2017) and 39,757 students from 176 ordinary private schools under the Office of the Private Education Commission (Office of the Private Education Commission, 2017) in total 148,235 populations.

Sampling : Sample constitutes 557 students in secondary school 1-6 in the first semester of academic year 2017 under the Bangkok Regional Education Office and ordinary private schools under the Office of the Private Education Commission by using Multi - Stage Random Sampling.

2·2 Research Instrument

Research instrument in this research are characteristic test of citizenship for secondary school students which consists of 5 sections: the first section is primary information while the second to the fifth section are self-evaluation on global citizenship, altogether 48 questions as following :

Section 1 : Primary information of respondent in check list form in order to examine background of respondent which are gender, education level, types of school, occupations of parents.

Section 2 : Self-evaluation on global citizenship on self-behaviour with 5 rating scales for 12 questions which covered all 3 indicators (self-responsible, judgmental thinking and adjustment toward variety of cultures). The confidence level is 0.82.

Section 3 : Self-evaluation on global citizenship on social interaction with 5 rating scales for 12 questions covered all 3 indicators (ability to co-operate with others, accepting different views in politics, and respect right and freedom). The confidence level is 0.76.

Section 4 : Self-evaluation on global citizenship on performing roles and responsibilities with 5 rating scales for 12 questions covered all 3 indicators (ability to think creatively, promoting peace and equality and participation in politics on different level). The confidence level is 0.81.

Section 5 : Self-evaluation on global citizenship on recognizing situation of resources, environments, and healthcare with 5 rating scales for 12 questions covered all 3 indicators (using natural resources for stability, recognizing and participating on environmental problems and recognizing on importance of basic healthcare). The confidence level is 0.82.

The quality of the instrument in overall has confidence level at 0.857.

2·3 Data Analyzing

The researcher analyze data with these procedures :

1. Analysis basic information of samplings by using descriptive statistics which are frequency and percent.
2. Analysis global citizenship characteristics of the secondary school students by using Mean, Standard Deviation, and Coefficient of Variation.
3. Analysis to test quality of the instrument by finding Reliability of the instrument through Cronbach's Alpha.
4. Analysis characteristics of global citizenship of the secondary school student in each aspect though Mean, Standard Deviation and Coefficient of Variation.
5. Analysis comparison characteristics of global citizenship in the secondary school students in Bangkok area through t-test independent and ANOVA.

3. Results

There are two parts of the research result :

3·1 Basic Information of Respondents

From 577 samplings of the research on characteristics of global citizenship of secondary school students in Bangkok area, most of the samplings are female (336 respondents: 58.2 %). Majority are studying in level 4 of secondary school (106 respondents: 18.4 %). For occupation of parents mostly are employees (178 respondents: 30.8 %). Types of school, most samplings are from schools under the Secondary Educational Service Area Office 2 (263 respondents: 45.6 %).

3·2 Analysis of Characteristics of Global Citizenship in Secondary School Students in Bangkok Area

Table-1 represents mean of characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in each element, and overall on next page.

Table-1 : Mean of characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in each element, and overall.

Element of characteristics of global citizenship	Mean ($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	Interpretation
Self-behaviour	3.89	.421	Most
Social interaction	3.76	.453	Most
Performing roles and responsibilities	3.54	.432	Most
Recognizing situation on resources, environment and healthcare	3.76	.535	Most
Overall	**3.74**	**.364**	**Most**

From the table, all samplings has characteristics of global citizenship in most level (Mean = 3.74). It shows that all elements of characteristics on global citizenship in the secondary school students in Bangkok area are in most level with the highest score in self-behaviour element (Mean = 3.89) while social interaction element and recognizing situation of resources, environment and healthcare element shared the same mean (Mean = 3.76). Performing roles and responsibilities element is the least (Mean = 3.54).

Table-2 : Comparison characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in genders and elements

Gender	No.	Self-Behaviour & Global Citizenship				
		($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	*t*	df	Sig
Male	241	3.85	.433	–1.938	575	.053
Female	336	3.91	.410			

Gender	No.	Social Interaction & Global Citizenship				
		($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	*t*	df	Sig
Male	241	3.70	.456	–2.787*	575	.005
Female	336	3.80	.446			

Gender	No.	Performing Roles, Responsibility & Global Citizenship				
		($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	*t*	df	Sig
Male	241	3.48	.436	–3.248*	575	.001
Female	336	3.59	.424			

Gender	No.	Recognizing on Situation of Resources, Environment, Healthcare & Global Citizenship				
		($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	*t*	df	Sig
Male	241	3.78	.521	.564	575	.573
Female	336	3.75	.546			

Gender	No.	Overall Characteristics & Global Citizenship				
		($\bar{X}$)	S.D.	*t*	df	Sig
Male	241	3.70	.360	–2.180*	575	.030
Female	336	3.77	.364			

From the table on gender of sampling, in overall male and female secondary school students have different characteristics of global citizenship significantly at .05 (t = -2.180, Sig = .030). Mean of characteristics of global citizenship in female is higher than male ($\bar{X}_{female}$ = 3.77, $\bar{X}_{male}$ = 3.70). To consider in elements found that male and female have different characteristics on global citizenship on social interaction element significantly at .05 (t = -2.787, Sig = .005) by female has higher mean on characteristics of citizenship than male ($\bar{X}_{female}$ = 3.80, $\bar{X}_{male}$ = 3.70) and both gender have different mean on performing roles and responsibilities significantly at.05 (t = 3.248, Sig = .001) by female has mean of characteristics of global citizenship higher than male ($\bar{X}_{female}$ = 3.59, $\bar{X}_{male}$ = 3.48).

Table- 3 : Mean of characteristics on global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in types of school and elements

Elements of Characteristics of Global Citizenship	Types of School	Number	Mean ($\bar{X}$)	S.D
Self-behaviour	SESAO 1	194	3.851	.410
	SESAO 2	263	3.888	.446
	OPEC	120	3.961	.375
	Total	577	3.891	.421
Social interaction	SESAO 1	194	3.672	.436
	SESAO 2	263	3.722	.465
	OPEC	120	3.970	.388
	Total	577	3.757	.453
Performing roles and responsibilities	SESAO 1	194	3.531	.372
	SESAO 2	263	3.510	.467
	OPEC	120	3.643	.433
	Total	577	3.545	.432

Recognizing on situation of resources, environments, and healthcare	SESAO 1	194	3.764	.491
	SESAO 2	263	3.746	.571
	OPEC	120	3.815	.525
	Total	577	3.760	.535
Overall	SESAO 1	194	3.700	.318
	SESAO 2	263	3.716	.396
	OPEC	120	3.847	.340
	Total	577	3.738	.364

SESAO 1 : The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 1, Bangkok, Thailand
SESAO 2 : The Secondary Educational Service Area Office 2, Bangkok, Thailand
OPEC : Office of the Private Education Commission, Bangkok, Thailand.

Table-4 : Comparison characteristics of global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in types of school and elements

Elements of Characteristics of Global Citizenship		SS	MS	F	Sig.
Self-behaviour	Between Groups	.904	.452	2.559	.078
	Within Groups	101.345	.177		
	Total	102.249			
Social interaction	Between Groups	7.159	3.580	18.499*	.000
	Within Groups	111.069	.194		
	Total	118.228			
Performing roles and responsibilities	Between Groups	1.521	.761	4.110*	.017
	Within Groups	106.226	.185		
	Total	107.747			
Recognizing situation of resources, environment and healthcare	Between Groups	.456	.228	.795	.452
	Within Groups	164.690	.287		
	Total	165.146			
Overall	Between Groups	1.836	.918	7.089*	.001
	Within Groups	74.344	.130		
	Total	76.180			

Table-5 : Comparison each elements of characteristics of global citizenship in pair in secondary school students in Bangkok area in types of school

Element of Characteristics of Global Citizenship	Type of School		Mean Difference	Sig.
Social interaction	SESAO 1	SESAO 2	-.0502	.229
		OPEC	-.2979*	.000
	SESAO 2	SESAO 1	.0502	.229
		OPEC	-.2477*	.000
	OPEC	SESAO 1	.2979*	.000
		SESAO 2	.2477	.000
Performing roles and responsibilities	SESAO 1	SESAO 2	.0219	.592
		OPEC	-.1117*	.026
	SESAO 2	SESAO 1	-.0219	.592
		OPEC	-.1335*	.005
	OPEC	SESAO 1	.1117*	.026
		SESAO 2	.1335*	.005
Overall	SESAO 1	SESAO 2	-.0162	.634
		OPEC	-.1472*	.000
	SESAO 2	SESAO 1	.0162	.634
		OPEC	-.1310*	.000
	OPEC	SESAO 1	.1472*	.634
		SESAO 2	.1310*	.000

From table 3, 4 and 5 the researcher has analyzed type of school and found that in overall 3 types of school have different characteristics of global citizenship significantly at .05 (F = 7.890, Sig = .001). The schools under SESAO 1 and OPEC have different characteristics of global citizenship significantly at.05 (MD = -.1472, Sig = .000) and the schools under SESAO 2 and OPEC have different characteristics of global citizenship significantly at .05 (MD = -.1310, Sig = .001).

To consider in each elements found that the schools in different umbrellas have different characteristics on global citizenship on social interaction significantly at .05 (F = 18.499, Sig = .000). The schools under SESAO 1 and OPEC have different characteristics of global citizenship on social interaction significantly at.05 (MD = -.2979, Sig = .000) and the schools under SESAO 2 and OPEC have different characteristics on global citizenship on social interaction significantly at.05 (MD = -.2477, Sig = .000).

The schools under different umbrellas have different characteristics on global citizenship on performing roles and responsibilities significantly at .05 (F = 4.110, Sig = .017). The school under SESAO 1 and OPEC have different characteristics on global citizenship on performing roles and responsibilities significantly at.05 (MD = -.1117, Sig = .026) and the school under SESAO 2 and OPEC have different characteristics of global citizenship on performing roles and responsibilities significantly at .05 (MD = -.1335, Sig = .005).

4. Discussion and Suggestion

4.1 Discussion

The result of the study on characteristics on global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in each element shows that in overall the students have level of being global citizenship in most level (mean = 3.74). When focus on element, the element on self-behaviour (3 indicators: self-responsible, judgmental thinking, and adjustment on variety of culture), the students have this characteristics in most level (mean = 3.89), the students have element on social interaction (3indicators: ability to co-operate with others, accepting different view of politics and respect in right and freedom) and the element on recognizing situation on resources, environments and healthcare (3 indicators: using natural resources with stability, recognizing and participating in environmental problem and recognizing on importance of healthcare in most level (mean = 3.76) and students have element on performing roles and responsibilities (3indicators: ability to think creatively, promoting peace and equality and participating in politics in all levels) in most level as well (mean = 3.5). These results agrees with Cogan and Derricot (2000) on dimensional concept of global citizenship for promoting and developing that students must have characteristics in order to face 21st century as well as Bernie Trilling and Charles Fadel (2009) on learning skills in 21st century which require students to be trained to have characteristics and other skills ready for becoming effective people and schools should prepare and equip and train students on these matters.

The result on comparison characteristics of being global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area in genders found that there is difference among female and male students. The female students have mean on characteristics on global citizenship higher than male ($\overline{X}$ female = 3.77, $\overline{X}$ male= 3.70). When look at each element found that male and female students have characteristics of global citizenship on social interaction and performing roles and responsibilities differently. It is probably because the stage of changing and developing to teenager and adult which each stage has various aspects of change such as thinking, self-developing on ethics, self-conceptualization, relationship with surrounding people etc. that effect differently on behaviours and characteristics in each gender (Witayakorn Chiangkul , 2009: Phanom Ketman, 2009; Department of Mental Health, Ministry of Public Health, 2004). It agrees with the survey conducted in youths between 15-25 years old on participating in

American citizenship activity (Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, 2008) shown that gender is a main factor that effect on participation of political activities and citizenship in teenagers. Female will have more participation more than male and female also cares, be sensitive and trends to be more responsible toward society than male. (Department of Mental Health, Ministry of Public Health, 2004). It is similar to the research of Paphatsorn Paiboonthitipornchai (2010) found that female students have more characteristic of citizenship than male.

The result of the comparison of characteristics of global citizenship on secondary school students in Bangkok area in types of school found that all three types of school have different characteristics of being global citizenship because of competitive condition among private intuitions and between private schools and government school. This is a vital factor for self-developing in order to survive in private schools. Therefore the private schools must adjust curriculum to international standard, improve process of teaching and administration etc. (Jamlong Suriwong and Nuntiya Noichun, 2016).

4·2 Suggestions

Further research should study on factors or reasons that effect on characteristics of being global citizenship in secondary school students in Bangkok area. It is an interesting topic for developing teachers and instructors on teaching management, parents on bringing up children and learners on self-development in order to get ready to be mature human resources for Thai and global society.

It should have data collection of population across the country in order to have more variety information to support this kind of research.

It should take the result of the study into consideration of overall of being global citizenship in youths which will make goal setting and direction of practices related to developing global citizenship in all areas clearer. It will also make quality of Thai and global society better as well as making country and global society develop progressively.

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Poverty and Structural Inequality in India : Understanding from Policy Perspective

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Poverty and structural disparity go hand in hand in India. The country like India with a huge economy and an impressive growth rate has not been able to scuttle poverty at an equally matching speed. No doubt there have been policies and programmes to counter poverty, there has been less visible effect. This paper argues that although the poverty is at a decline in India, the pace of the decline is not impressive compared to other countries. Hence, this paper suggests that there have to be efforts on a war scale to eliminate poverty and transform the humongous population of poor from a liability to a worthful and a contributing lot.

[**Keywords :** Poverty, Structural disparity, Policy perspective, Poverty alleviation programmes]

I. Introduction

Poverty is not a uniquely Indian phenomenon. Every state, developed and developing alike, is grappling with the issues of poverty with a difference of degrees. In a state like India that has been a subject of colonialism and with a history of profound drain of wealth the issue is not a surprising one. The reduction of poverty has been a major goal of the governments since independence. The

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governments have strived to achieve a minimum standard of living for all through the initiation of five-year plans. Many policies and programmes like food-for-work, land reforms etc sought to curb the proportion of poor. However, till 1970s there was little decline in poverty with more than fifty per cent of people living below the poverty line. Thereafter, the poverty started to show a declining trend and continues to be so with some minor yearly fluctuations.

This paper is divided into five broad sections - in the first section we have tried to situate the concepts of poverty and structural inequality in the broad theoretical debates in the scholarly literature. In the second section we discuss the poverty in the Indian context and try to evolve an understanding of the reasons behind the perpetual problem of poverty in India. The next section discusses the efforts to alleviate poverty in India. The pre-reform as well as the post-reform period programmes and policies have been analysed. The next section critically evaluates the poverty alleviation programmes and policies by the successive governments. Lastly, the section that follows concludes and succinctly provides the findings of the paper.

2. Poverty : A Conceptual Analysis

Poverty is a multifaceted concept having socio-economic and political dimensions. Gender, literacy, land ownership, employment status and caste are closely related with poverty. Thus, an illiterate rural woman, a member of schedule tribe or caste, a person who lives in a landless household or is dependent on wage earnings all face a significantly higher than average risk of poverty.[1]

Gupta (1984) argues that the term poverty and its adjective 'poor' represent an ancient concept which expresses social difference between man and man. It was coined long before the social science came up with the notion of social stratification. According to him poverty is a vague and value-loaded term which differs in denotation in accordance with culture and economic development.[2]

The state of being poor is different in India compared to United Kingdom or USA. The condition of Poverty is not what it was at the eve of independence. It is a matter of debate whether poverty is absolute or relative, whether poverty is subjective or objective; Gupta talks about two approaches for the conceptualization of poverty. One is absolute approach comprising two versions: bourgeois theory which defines poverty in relation to human physiology and in terms of subsistence level of nutrition and other is Marxist theory which includes both natural and necessary wants. The other approach is relative approach according to which poverty is a relative phenomenon. It defines poverty as position of the individual vis-à-vis his society primarily in terms of distance between the poor and average or medium standard of living in the society concerned. Thus, making poverty one aspect of inequality.[3]

Poverty makes people incapable to realize human right in a full manner. Pogge (2008) holds poverty responsible for the massive under-fulfilment of human rights. The connection is direct in the case of social and economic human rights such as right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of oneself and one's family including food, clothing, housing and medical care. In case of civil and political human rights, the condition is more indirect. Poor people are often illiterate and perpetually fending for subsistence, which makes them incapable to resist their rulers who rule them oppressively.[4]

Spicker (1999) analyses poverty from three dimensions. Firstly, poverty as a material concept: people are poor because of lack of resources to fulfil the need. Not every need can be said to be equivalent to poverty therefore there are several interpretations of what makes up poverty. Secondly, poverty as economic circumstances which can be understood in economic perspective in terms of income, standard of living etc. Thirdly, poverty as social circumstances which means that social exclusion due to income, health, access to services, housing and debt affects individual, group of people or geographical area.[5]

Poverty in Indian context is a controversial issue especially after the creation of first poverty line by the erstwhile planning commission in mid 1970s which was based on minimum daily requirement of 2,400 calories for an adult for rural areas and 2.100 calories for an adult in urban areas. Later, some modifications were made adding other basic requirements such as housing, clothing, health, education, sanitation etc. Thus, the estimation of poverty line has been very controversial.

Structural Inequality: Structural inequality generally implies the condition where one category of people is attributed an unequal status in relation to other categories of people. However, in this paper structural inequality refers to the disparity among states or within states, disparity among people in terms of income, growth rate, literacy, employment, living standard in Indian context. Here, the term structural inequality is used to show the difference between periphery and core. Some states stand at core and are moving towards development and others in periphery suffer from underdevelopment, backwardness and so on. Government policies and programmes are not symmetrically implemented in every state. As a result, in some states people live in extreme poverty condition. The table below shows us the percentage of poverty in some states.

Table-1 : Percentage of rural population living extreme poverty condition, 2011-2012

State	Percentage of Poverty
Chhattisgarh	15.32
Madhya Pradesh	15.04
Odisha	11.46
Bihar	10.45
Jharkhand	9.23

3. Poverty : The Scenario in Indian Context

India is a country which is still in the path of development. Since independence, policy-makers of India continuously have been trying to eradicate poverty but a large number of people still striving for basic needs such as food, clothing and shelter remains a constant question requiring scholarly attention that why India has not been able to eradicate poverty even after seven decades of Independence. In 1951, 47% of people in rural India were below poverty line. In the year 1954-55, the percentage rose up to 64% and came down to 45% during the year 1960-61. However, in the year 1977-78, the poverty arose to 51% and declined significantly during mid 1970s and 1980s. The reduction is more noticeable between 1977-78 and 1986-87 declining from 51 to 39%. By 1989-90 the ratio interestingly went down to 34%. In regards of urban poverty which went down from 41 to 34% from 1971-78 to 1986-87. And further 33% in 1989-90. However, the post economic reforms periods have seen both ups and downs. Rural economy went up from 34 to 43% from 1989-90 to 1992 and came down to 37% in 1993-94. In 1989-1990 the urban poverty was 33.4 to 33.7 from 1989-90 to 1992 and declined to 31% in 1993-94.[6]

As per Suresh Tendulkar Committee report the poverty ratio in India was 29.6% (2009-2010) and in 2011-12 this went down to 21.9%.[7] In 2014, as per Rangarajan Committee Report, the estimate of poverty was 38.2% for the year 2009-10 and for 2011-12 the estimate stands at 29.5%.[8] In 2015 this went further down to 12.4%.[9]

4. Poverty Alleviation Programmes in India

According to World Bank's Global Economic Prospects Report 2018, India is the fourth fastest growing economy in the world with a projected growth rate of 7.3% in 2018-19.[10] However, poverty is still a significant issue in India. Poverty alleviation programmes in India can be categorised into two parts - pre-reform period and post-reform period.

4·1 Pre-reform Period

After independence Five Year Plan was the most innovative initiative to tackle poverty for a fledgling country like India. Major poverty alleviation plans taken between 1950 and 1990 are Community Development Programme-1952, Drought-Prone Area Programme-1972, Marginal Farmer and Agriculture labour agency-1973, Small Farmer Development Agency-1974, Twenty Point Programme -1975, Food for Work Programme- 1977, Integrated, Rural Development Programme- 1980, National Rural Employment Programme- 1980, Jawahar Rozgar Yojana- 1989, Nehru Rozgar Yojana-1989 etc.

These were some poverty alleviation programmes funded by central government but actual responsibility for implementation was laid on State governments. But all those programmes failed to cover the whole country comprehensively.

4·2 Post-reform Period

In 1991, after the economic reform in India some more poverty alleviation programmes were taken by the government to eradicate poverty and with this old programme reviewed, new schemes implemented and more innovative initiatives are being taken by the government. Some major initiatives in the path of poverty eradication are as follows :

Employment Assurance Schemes : In 1993, the employment assurance scheme was introduced in rural areas which covers 1778 blocks, 261 districts to operate public distribution system with a new zeal. The blocks selected under this scheme were drought prone areas, desert areas, tribal areas and hill areas. And in 1994-95 this scheme was extended to 409 blocks under DPAP and Modified Area Development Approach (MADA) blocks having larger concentration of tribal. In 1995 the scheme was extended to 256 blocks and out of which 233 blocks were flood prone area. Later in 1996 Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was merged with Employment assurance scheme.

Prime Minister Rozgar Yojana : In 1993 the PMRY was lunched to assist poor and less educated youth to operate micro level self-employment ventures. This scheme was introduced only in urban areas but later in 1994 and 1995, this was introduced both in rural and urban areas of India.

Swarnajanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana : This scheme was launched in 1999 to provide sustainable income to poorest of the poor people living in rural & urban areas of the country.

Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojana : In the year 2000 the Government of India launched the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana to provide good all-weather road connectivity to unconnected villages.

Antodaya Anna Yojana : The Government of India launched this scheme in the year 2000 to provide highly subsidised food to Millions of the poorest families. This scheme was first implemented in the State of Rajasthan.

Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana : the objective of Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojana is to provide shelter and upgrade the existing shelter for people living below poverty line in urban slums. The aim of this scheme is 'shelter for all'. This was launched in 2001 by the central government.

Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana : In 1999 the Government of India launched the Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana with the objective to achieve the objective of providing gainful employment for the rural poor.

Besides these, there are many programmes taken by the Government. These programmes are taken to address the issue of poverty. But even after seven decades of independence poverty in India remains a burning issue, and a constant reminder that these policies have been a partial success. With this the paper proceeds with the pitfalls of poverty alleviation programmes.

5. Poverty Alleviation Programmes : A Critical Review

The poverty alleviation programmes undermine the importance of increased flow of social inputs through family-welfare, social security, nutrition and minimum needs programmes in alleviating poverty. Moreover, disabled, sick and socially handicapped individuals who cannot participate in normal economic activities are ignored by these programmes. The National Social Assistance Programme has been in place but its execution and the number of beneficiaries is not satisfactory. Income and employment-oriented poverty alleviation programmes put additional income in the hands of the poor which they can use for buying food, but as Kunwar (1993) highlights, "these programmes do not ensure that the poor can really manage to get adequate food all the year round for the family with the increased income."[11] Besides, poor people usually depend on natural resources for their livelihood. But the practices of using these resources are no longer viable and as a result they are fast deteriorating. The government should have taken into consideration the implication of this environmental decay which unfortunately was not taken care of in the past. The government has failed to make necessary changes in anti-poor laws and policies. These laws and policies harm particularly the tribes who depend on non-timber forest products for their subsistence and cash income. The poverty alleviation programmes often underrate the repercussions of the earning activities of the poor in terms of occupational health hazards and adverse ecological consequences.

Although poverty is declining but it is declining at a slow pace and its consequences are asymmetrical state-wise. Some states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra, Bangalore, and Calcutta are well furnished and much developed in comparison to Assam, Manipur, Tripura, and Bihar. Especially in some States like Assam, Bihar, Manipur etc poor people suffer and go through difficult life during the time of heavy rainfall. Poverty alleviation programmes and policies are not sufficient for those people who lose everything in floods to overcome economic stability. A Report endorsed by the Ministry of Rural Development states that nearly 7% of country's rural population still lives in 'extreme poverty'.[12]

Any programme can be said to be successful when majority of people can access the benefits but people can access the benefits only when they are aware. To create awareness among people is another shortcoming of these programmes. People in rural areas are mostly less educated, they are not aware about the surroundings nor they are interested to know. Therefore, red tape, corruption etc. make these programmes to remain in paper only. Education can be a powerful instrument to reduce poverty but two third of all women and two fifth of all men remain illiterate. Moreover, in India half of all girls aged 5-14 years do not attend school; this gets worse in case of poor sections. For example, according to World

Bank Report (1997) in Bihar only 20% of girls in the age group of 5-9 go to school.[13] In the year 1973-74 the incidence of poverty in Kerala was 59.74% which was reduced to 11.3% in 2011-12. Rate of poverty in Kerala is low compared to other Indian States and the all India figures.[14] Thus, poverty and structural inequality go hand in hand in India.

6. Findings and Conclusion

There are numbers of provisions and programmes taken by the Central as well as State government but the fact is that some states in India are still not capable to overcome from poverty such as Bihar, Jharkhand, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Assam, Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh and so on. Moreover, flood and natural calamities hamper the agriculture to a great extant which affects their household income. Besides, literacy rate is also very law among tribal people inhabiting these areas and they are unaware about the programmes and policies. India is the largest growing economy in the world but ranks 100 out of 119 countries on the global hunger index.15 India ranks 125 out of 187 countries on the Gender Inequality Index, according to the United Nations Human Development Report 2015. As per the report, only 35.3% of women get it to the secondary level of education compared to the 61.4% of men. In the US, 95.4% of women were educated to the secondary level as compared to 95.1% men. The report also revealed country's labor force participation, which showed only 26.8% women are part of the labor force as compared to 79.1% men. Any programme is bound be meaningless unless the masses for whom these are made are made aware about these. The corruption that eats into the vitals of the nation is another stumbling block in the way of the success of the government policies. Thus, programmes and policies should be complimented with a mechanism to make sure that these are in-fact working in a right spirit, and there is no corruption at bureaucratic and clerical levels in implementing these policies. Yearly appraisals of the programmes can be a right step in this regard. This can certainly herald into a poverty-free and shining India in the future.

Footnotes

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8

Transition in Planning and Purchasing of Trousseau between two Generations of Punjab

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In Punjab, the pattern of trousseau practices among women are undergoing discernible changes over the period of time. The present study explored all the forces, situations and factors that directly or indirectly affect the trousseau planning of inter-generational periods among women in Malwa region of Punjab. A total of 300 respondents from three cities (Ludhiana, Patiala and Bathinda) of Malwa region of Punjab were selected. The role of 'decision maker' was very important that influence in the planning and purchasing of trousseau for brides between two generations. The results revealed that the concept of parents as a sole 'decision maker' for planning and purchasing of trousseau for brides has declined over period of two generations. On contrary, the participation of individual and parents together as a 'decision maker' for planning and purchasing of trousseau has significantly increased over this period. Among personal sources, the influence of family members in trousseau planning was reported to be significantly declined and the consideration of friend's opinion in executing trousseau planning has significantly increased between these two inter-generational periods. However, among impersonal sources, the media and exhibitions has been emerged as the main influencers of trousseau planning in the recent years. The respondents of first generation reported that 'Price'

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was the most important parameter while trousseau purchasing, whereas, the second generation respondents preferred trousseau with latest style.

[**Keywords :** Inter-generational, Trousseau planning, Society, Marriage]

1. Introduction

Wedding is a major social function celebrated with great enthusiasm. Indian weddings are characterized by the customs, rituals and known for their grandeur and majesty that vary from region to region due to religious diversity. It is an occasion where family members, relatives and friends of the bride and groom, converge to celebrate the occasion with fun and frolic. Obviously, wedding purchases are heavy with a huge expenditure to-ward these items. The wedding industry is growing at an exponential pace, providing business and employment opportunities to people with good organizing skills. Today, a wedding is arranged by the wedding planner who handles the entire logistics of the wed-ding functions (Anon 2017). As a consequence of expansion of wedding industry, the wedding expenses magnificently increased. A typical wedding dealt with lot of purchase of textiles, garments and jewellery not only for the families concerned, but also for friends and relatives who are expected to attend the function. Times have changed the festive spirit and have turned the wedding into veritable showpiece of economic classes to boast their wealth (Gupta and Mehta, 2014).

Trousseau plays an important role in marriage and is incomplete without it. The fundamental postulate of giving trousseau is love and affection from the parents to their daughters, for the beginning of new phase of life. The word trousseau is derived from the French word trousseau means bundle and was used as early as fourteenth century. Trousseau is the possession of articles, such as clothing, linens etc. that a bride assembles for her marriage. Traditionally, a young woman and her mother would start gathering items to prepare for her future married life. The collection would be stored in a beautiful trunk or luggage. There is also a tradition for the wealthy sorts of that day to "show" their daughter's trousseau. A wealthy bride's family would host a "Trousseau tea" where friends would be invited to view her collection. The luxury item it may contain sometimes is shown as a sign of wealth (Anon 2004). A trousseau is that treasured luggage that a bride carries to her husband's house after her marriage and contains all her new clothes, foot-wear, makeup items, accessories, jewellery and all the things that she would need in her new life, just post-marriage (Arora, 2015). Since the last couple of decades, massive changes have been observed on account of socio-cultural, economic and technological perspectives in the society due to modernization. These changes in the society may influence trousseau practices in the society and has been taken over by the modern culture. During this period of transformation, many factors were reported to be responsible for affecting the pattern of planning and purchasing of trousseau among women. Hence, the present study was under taken to study the changing trends in trousseau in planning between two generations of Malwa region of Punjab.

2. Methodology

The present study was carried out to investigate the various factors responsible for inter-generational transition of trousseau practices between two generations among women in Malwa region of Punjab. The investigation was conducted in the Punjab state and Malwa region of the Punjab state was purposively selected as they are more influential by changing fashion trends. Three cities viz: Ludhiana, Patiala and Bathinda from Malwa region were selected as they are easily accessible. A purposive sampling technique was used to select the families having two generations together. A total of 300 respondents comprising of 50 respondents each from first and second generation from all of the three selected cities were taken for the study. In the sample, second generation respondents were referred to recently married girls (less than three years) having age more than 20 years, while, the respondents of first generation were the mother-in-laws having age 40 years and above. The study was based on primary data and the data collected through well-designed and pre-tested schedule. The following analytical technique was used to achieve the stipulated objectives of the study :

Z-Test

Z-Test was applied to study the association between both the generations. The formulae used for the purpose have been given below:

$$Z \quad \frac{[P_1 - P_2]}{\text{S.E.}\,of\ (P_1 - P_2)}$$

$$\text{S.E.} \quad \sqrt{Pq\frac{1}{n_1} \quad \frac{1}{n_2}}$$

$$\text{P} \quad \frac{n_1P_1 \quad n_2P_2}{n_1 \quad n_2}$$

Mean Scores

During the analysis of data, mean score was computed for the order of preference of the respondents for given parameter. Mean score was calculated by the following formula :

$$\text{X} \quad \frac{w_1x_1 \quad w_2x_2 \quad \ldots\ldots w_kx_k}{x_2 \quad x_2 \quad \ldots\ldots x_k}$$

Where,

w = Weights

x = Observations

3. Results and Discussion

In general, the planning and purchasing of trousseau for bride is very important component of Punjabi marriages. Since most of the marriages in Punjab are arrange marriages, so purchasing of these gifts is done by parents (Myrvold, 2015). But the trend of planning about trousseau purchasing varied over the period of time.

3·1 Decision makers for Planning and Purchase of Trousseau

Indian marriages are performed with many rituals and a lot of gifts are being given to groom, groom's family, relatives and friends (Chowdhary, 2016). This practice leads to a lot of purchases for trousseau which further is influenced by the decision makers. The parents especially, the mother starts collecting daughter's trousseau since many years before her marriage.

The results in the table-1 clearly indicated that the participation of bride itself i.e. the individual as a 'decision maker' for planning trousseau was found to be very significant Nearly 20 per cent of the respondents of first generation and 34 per cent of the respondents of second generation, reported that the bride itself was actively involved in trousseau planning. On contrary, the participation of parents as a 'decision maker' has significantly declined in the two generations. Sixty six per cent of the respondents of first generation reported that the parents were the main decision maker for trousseau planning, in case of second generation it was only 30 per cent. It is evident that the participation of bride itself and the parents together as a decision maker for planning trousseau found to be increased significantly from first generation. Nearly 14 per cent of the respondents of first generation and 32 per cent of the respondents of second generation reported that both the individual and the parents together were actively involved in trousseau planning. The participation of the relatives in trousseau planning was nil in first generation; however, only two per cent of the respondents reported their involvement in Ludhiana.

In case of Patiala, it is evident that the participation of both the bride itself and the parents together as a decision maker for trousseau planning was found to be significantly in-creased from first generation to second generation. On contrary, the trend in the involvement of trousseau planning of individual itself and sole parents has significantly declined over these two inter-generational periods. Individual contribution as a decision maker was reported by 40 per cent of the respondents of first generation, while for second generation, it was only 20 per cent. Similar trend was observed in case of parents. Only six per cent of the respondents of first generation and 34 per cent of the respondents of second generation, reported that the individual and the parents both together were actively involved in trousseau planning. The participation of the relatives in trousseau planning was similar i.e 2 percent in first and second generation.

No significant changes were observed in case of Bathinda. The participation of individual, parents and the both in the planning and purchasing of trousseau articles was more or less same in both the generations. However, the relatives influence was slightly increased from Ludhiana and Patiala in first generation. This means, the consideration of all the decision makers in trousseau planning in Bathinda district was equally recognized.

On an overall basis, it is concluded that the recognition of the individual, the relative and all together i.e. individual, parents and relatives as a decision maker in trousseau planning was equally considered by the first generation, while the significant changes were observed with regard to the participation of parents and both the individual & parents together. The results revealed the concept of parents as a sole decision maker for planning and purchasing of trousseau for brides has declined over period of two generations. The participation of individual and parents together as a decision maker for planning and purchasing of trousseau has significantly increased.

Table-1 : Decision makers for planning and purchase of trousseau

Cities / Decision makers	Ludhiana n_2 100			Patiala n_2 100		
	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value
Individual	10 (20.0)	17 (34.0)	1.58 N.S.	20 (40.0)	10 (20.0)	2.18**
Parents	33 (66.0)	15 (30.0)	3.60*	25 (50.0)	21 (42.0)	0.42 N.S.
Relatives	-	1 (2.0)	1.01 N.S.	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	N.S.
Individual and parents	7 (14.0)	16 (32.0)	2.14**	3 (6.0)	17 (34.0)	3.50*
Individual, parents and relatives	-	1 (2.0)	1.01 N.S	1 (2.0)	1 (2.0)	N.S.

Cities / Decision makers	Bathinda n_2 100			Total (n 300)		
	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value
Individual	12 (24.0)	13 (26.0)	0.23 N.S.	42 (28.0)	40 (26.7)	0.26 N.S.
Parents	23 (46.0)	20 (40.0)	0.61 N.S.	81 (54.0)	56 (37.3)	2.90**
Relatives	2 (4.0)	7 (14.0)	1.75 N.S	3 (2.0)	9 (6.0)	1.78 N.S

Individual and parents	11 (22.0)	6 (12.0)	1.33 N.S	21 (14.0)	39 (26.0)	2.60**
Individual, parents and relatives	2 (4.0)	4 (8.0)	0.84 N.S	3 (2.0)	6 (4.0)	1.02 N.S

Figures in parentheses indicate percentages

*Significant at 1 percent level

Gen - Generation

** Significant at 5 percent level

N.S. - Non significant

3·2 Impersonal Sources of Inspiration

Various impersonal sources of inspiration for planning trousseau of bride has been furnished in table-2. These sources include newspaper, magazine, catalogues, exhibitions, wedding events etc. Any other inspirational sources include online shopping, window displays, celebrities and advertisements on hoardings. For Ludhiana city, newspapers ranked number I with highest mean score of 5.54 by first generation respondents, followed by magazines and catalogues, which were given second and third rank, respectively. On the other hand, second generation respondents ranked wedding events as number I with highest mean score of 5.62, followed by exhibitions (rank II, mean score 4.2) and magazines (rank III, mean score 3.24), respectively. Last rank was given to any other source (online shopping, window display etc.).

For Patiala region, magazines ranked number I by first generation respondents, followed by newspapers and exhibitions with second and third rank, respectively. Wedding events were ranked number I by second generation respondents. Newspapers ranked II followed by catalogues, any other sources, magazines and exhibitions in order, respectively.

The highest mean score of 5.50 was given to magazines and assigned first rank by first generation respondents from Bathinda, which was followed by newspapers with a mean score of 3.98 and ranked II. Exhibitions, catalogues, any other sources and wedding events, were given III, IV, V and VI rank, respectively. For second generation respondents of Bathinda, again magazines were ranked as number I with the mean score of 5.68 followed by wedding events and ranked as number II.

On the whole, it can be concluded that magazines and newspapers were the main source of inspiration for the first generation. This was followed by exhibitions, catalogues, any other sources and wedding events, in order. For second generation respondents, wedding events ranked number I, followed by magazines, newspapers, exhibitions, catalogues and other inspirational sources.

Table-2 : Impersonal sources of inspiration

Cities / Impersonal Sources	Ludhiana n_2 100				Patiala n_2 100			
	Gen I		Gen II		Gen I		Gen II	
	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank
Newspapers	5.54	I	3.02	IV	4.50	II	4.10	II
Magazines	4.06	II	3.24	III	5.22	I	2.58	V
Catalogues	3.86	III	2.90	V	3.40	IV	3.74	III
Exhibitions	2.90	V	4.28	II	4.12	III	2.98	IV
Wedding Events	1.82	VI	5.62	I	1.96	V	5.58	I
Any other	2.82	IV	1.94	VI	1.78	VI	2.02	VI

Cities / Impersonal Sources	Bathinda n_2 100				Total (n 300)			
	Gen I		Gen II		Gen I		Gen II	
	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank
Newspapers	3.98	II	3.60	III	4.67	II	3.57	III
Magazines	5.50	I	5.68	I	4.93	I	3.83	II
Catalogues	3.14	IV	2.32	V	3.47	IV	2.99	V
Exhibitions	3.46	III	3.00	IV	3.49	III	3.42	IV
Wedding Events	2.32	VI	4.70	II	2.03	VI	5.30	I
Any other	2.60	V	1.70	VI	2.40	V	1.89	VI

Gen - Generation

Table-3 : Influencers of trousseau planning^

Cities / Influencers	Ludhiana n_2 100			Patiala n_2 100		
	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value	Gen I	Gen II	Z-value
Personal						
Family Members	45 (90.0)	26 (52.0)	4.17*	46 (92.0)	31 (62.0)	3.56*
Friends	15 (30.0)	29 (58.0)	2.78*	10 (20.0)	24 (48.0)	2.95*
Relatives	11 (22.0)	7 (14.0)	1.04 N.S.	12 (24.0)	13 (26.0)	0.23 N.S.

Impersonal						
Media	5 (10.0)	7 (14.0)	0.52 N .S.	–	7 (14.0)	2.74*
Exhibitions	–	25 (50.0)	5.77*	–	10 (20.0)	10.05*

Cities / Influencers	**Bathinda n_2 100**			**Total (*n* 300)**		
	Gen I	**Gen II**	**Z-value**	**Gen I**	**Gen II**	**Z-value**
Personal						
Family Members	45 (90.0)	39 (78.0)	1.63 N.S.	136 (90.0)	96 (64.0)	6.18*
Friends	3 (6.0)	23 (46.0)	1.59 N.S.	28 (18.7)	86 (57.3)	6.87*
Relatives	11 (22.0)	20 (40.0)	1.95 N.S.	34 (22.7)	40 (26.7)	0.79 N.S.
Impersonal						
Media	–	5 (10.0)	9.47*	5 (3.3)	19 (12.6)	6.47*
Exhibitions	–	3 (6.0)	7.6*	-	38 (25.5)	6.52*

Multiple responses

Figures in parentheses indicate percentages

*Significant at 1 percent level

Gen - Generation

** Significant at 5 percent level

N.S. - Non significant

Interesting fact about fashion is that everyone is obsessed about it in their own ways. Obsession depends upon age, electronic and print media and most important how much we are following our society and culture. Table-3 depicts the influencers of trousseau planning. The city wise distribution stated that in Ludhiana, mainly family members were the personal influencers for 90 percent of first generation respondents, followed by friends, relatives and media that played very little role because of lack of awareness about technology advancement. However, friends (58%), family members (52%) and exhibitions (50%), were different personal and impersonal influencers for trousseau planning as reported by second generation respondents, respectively.

The trend of influencers in trousseau planning in case of Patiala was almost similar to Ludhiana. Again, family members and friends were considered as the major influencers in case of Patiala and significant changes can be seen in terms of these two influencers over the period of two generations. Media and exhibition as influencers were observed in second generation only. In Bathinda, no significant changes were seen in case of personal influencers, while media and exhibition turned out to be impersonal influencers in this area.

On the whole, it can be concluded that the role of personal and impersonal influencers were highly recognized in trousseau planning by both the generations. Among personal sources, the influence of family members in trousseau planning was reported to be significantly declined and the consideration of friends while executing trousseau planning has significantly increased between these two inter-generational periods. However, the media and exhibitions among impersonal sources has been emerged as the main influencers of trousseau planning in the recent years.

Hence, the consideration of family members as an influencer for trousseau planning significantly declined, while the consideration of friends turned out to be significantly in-creased in this period. The consideration of relatives remains non-significant in this respect. Amongst impersonal influencers, role of media and exhibition was highly recognized by the young generation. Almost half of the respondents (50%) of second generation reported that exhibition was the major influencers for trousseau planning.

3·3 Parameters considered while Trousseau Purchasing

The ranking difference for various factors like innovative style, in style, brand name, status symbol, price, suitability, group conformity, usefulness, durability, comfort, availability on discount etc. are considered while purchasing the trousseau articles by the first and second generation are tabulated in Table-4. In Ludhiana, the respondents of first generation gave first rank to price with mean score of 10.70 followed by durability (II rank, mean score of 8.00) and usefulness (III rank, mean score of 7.74), respectively. While, second generation respondents considered in style, innovative style and status symbol while purchasing trousseau and these were given first, second and third with mean scores of 11.20, 9.66 and 7.96, respectively. Similarly, first generation respondents from Patiala also considered price as the most important factor while purchasing trousseau articles and thus was given I rank with mean score of 11.36. This was followed by availability on discount (II rank, mean score 8.44) and usefulness (III rank, mean score 8.20), respectively. For second generation, ranking were similar with Ludhiana region where in style was considered as the first most important factor (I rank, 11.66 mean score), followed by innovative style (II rank, 8.68 mean score) and brand name (III rank, 8.14 mean score), respectively.

In Bathinda region, price of trousseau articles was ranked number I, with mean score of 11.88, followed by durability (II rank, 9.04 mean score) and usefulness (III rank, mean score 7.54) respectively, by first generation respondents. Whereas, for second generation, preference changed to in style with rank I and mean score of 11.96 followed by price (II rank 8.88 mean score) and innovative style (III rank with mean score of 7.68), respectively.

Table-4 : Parameters considered while trousseau purchasing

Cities / Parameters	Ludhiana n_2 100				Patiala n_2 100			
	Gen I		Gen II		Gen I		Gen II	
	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank
Innovative style	5.36	VIII	9.66	II	5.90	VII	8.68	II
In style	5.30	IX	11.2	I	5.48	VIII	11.66	I
Brand name	5.00	XI	6.78	IV	4.48	XI	8.14	III
Price	10.70	I	6.56	V	11.36	I	7.14	IV
Status symbol	5.02	X	7.96	III	4.38	XII	4.98	VI
Availability on discount	7.30	V	3.20	XI	8.44	II	4.12	XII
Suitability	6.16	VII	4.64	X	4.86	X	4.78	XI
Durability	8.00	II	6.22	VIII	7.20	IV	5.14	VIII
Usefulness/ Practicality	7.74	III	6.24	VII	8.20	III	5.94	VII
Group Conformity	7.52	IV	6.20	IX	6.52	V	4.96	X
Comfort	6.66	VI	6.26	VI	5.16	IX	6.44	V
Any other	3.24	XII	3.08	XII	6.12	VI	6.02	VI

Cities / Impersonal Sources	Bathinda n_2 100				Total (n 300)			
	Gen I		Gen II		Gen I		Gen II	
	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank	Mean Score	Rank
Innovative style	5.52	VIII	7.68	III	6.58	VI	9.85	II
In style	5.22	IX	11.96	I	6.51	VII	11.61	I
Brand name	4.62	X	6.26	VII	5.01	X	6.42	VI
Price	11.88	I	8.88	II	11.31	I	7.62	IV
Status symbol	3.74	XI	6.84	IV	4.61	XI	7.73	III
Availability on discount	7.28	IV	6.60	V	6.84	V	2.96	XI
Suitability	6.56	VI	4.06	XI	5.01	IX	4.18	X

Durability	9.04	II	5.52	IX	8.37	II	5.90	VIII
Usefulness/ Practicality	7.54	III	5.56	VIII	7.73	III	6.00	VII
Group Conformity	6.20	VII	4.46	X	6.87	IV	5.90	IX
Comfort	6.70	V	6.38	VI	5.19	VIII	7.26	V
Any other	3.70	XII	3.58	XII	3.97	XII	2.60	XII

Gen = Generation

Over all in three cities, the most important factor considered by first generation respondents while purchasing trousseau articles was price, followed by durability and usefulness, whereas, in style, innovative style and status symbol were considered as important factors by second generation as they were more fashion conscious.

4. Conclusion

Under the influence of modernization and technological advancement in mass media communication, many changes have been observed in the society with respect to trousseau practices among brides during their weddings. Significant changes were observed with respect to decision maker on account of planning and purchasing of trousseau, where the concept of parents as a sole decision maker for planning and purchasing of trousseau for brides has declined over period of two generations. On contrary, the participation of individual and parents together as a decision maker for purchasing and planning of trousseau has significantly increased over this period. Among personal sources, the influence of family members in trousseau planning reported to be significantly declined and the consideration of friends while executing trousseau planning has significantly increased between these two inter-generational periods. However, among impersonal sources, the media and exhibitions has been emerged as the main influencers of trousseau planning in the recent years. Earlier, price and durability of the goods were taken into account while trousseau purchasing (first generation), however, the trousseau with latest style and innovative style were preferred by the recently married women (second generation). Under the influence of modernization and technological advancement in mass media communication, the life style of the peoples in the society have been passing through drastic changes in the context of social, cultural and economic aspects. This situation may lead to influence trousseau practices in the society and the traditional culture of executing trousseau practices in the society has been taken over by the modern culture. The study basically explored all the forces, situations and factors that directly or indirectly affect the trousseau practices at two inter-generational periods. The findings of the study could be help-ful for the society on account of expanding business opportunities by taking into account the changing trends in fashion and the interest of the young generation with respect to trousseau practices.

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9

Differential Effects of Public and Private Funding in the Medical Device Industry

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Funding for scientific advancement comes from two dominant sources: public funds used to generate knowledge, and private sector funds in the pursuit of commercial products. It is unclear how to compare the outputs of these two financial mechanisms because both sectors are motivated by common goods but are also governed by divergent forces. Employment within a geographic region may be a metric of mutual value that can be applied equally to assess the societal impacts of two financing sources. We focused on the medical device industry, which is a robust sector of growth for the U.S. economy. The U.S. NIH and venture capital community are representatives of public and private capital, respectively. Using a longitudinal employment data set of 247 distinct locations, we find that governmental funding tends to create more jobs directly compared to venture capital funding. Moreover, the indirect effect of governmental funding is initially smaller than that of venture capital funding for the first two years, but then it increases at a greater rate, eventually surpassing that of venture capital funding. These findings imply that policy decisions regarding financial allocation in the medical device industry should consider the appropriate typology of financial capital and its consequences.

[**Keywords :** Employment, Medical device, NIH, Venture capital]

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1. Introduction

The life sciences drive a vibrant economy. In 2002, expenditures on medical devices totaled $220 billion, and on pharmaceuticals and biotechnology products another $176 billion in the United States (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). Growth in the medical device and diagnostics sector has averaged 8%-9% over the past four years and should expand at 7.2% annually over the next four years (AHC Media, 2007). This is a sector where manufacturing remains in the United States.

Similar to other high-technology industries, medical device firms often experience a "valley of death" transitional phase where developing technology is deemed promising yet without validated commercial potential and, therefore, fails to attract capital necessary for continued development (National Research Council, 2009). Medical device firms generally do not make significant investments in basic science, deepening their dependence on basic scientific research conducted at universities and leading laboratories. Private financing is emerging as a force in support of academic research, especially in biomedical and life sciences. Whereas public financing, for example, from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) was responsible for 95% of academic funding in 1985 that number has now dropped to 50% (Dorsey et al., 2010). Amongst concerns raised by this transition are loss of independence and intellectual freedom, directed translation surpassing basic scientific focus, perversion of career choice for emerging scientists, and limitations on impact for public good (Stephan, 2006). Though possibly legitimate, there has not been sufficient valid data to enable reasonable debate.

This knowledge gap exists, in part, because there was not a consensus metric of impact. Private of corporate funding is seemingly not motivated by the same forces as public financing, and not subject to the same scrutiny, stakeholders, forces, and governing bodies. NIH funding is filtered through scientific peer-review where merit is often based on publications. Utilitarian products are not the goal. In contrast, venture capital (VC) fund companies must make commercial products and services. Patents gain competitive advantage, while publications are not encouraged as they might disclose trade secrets. Profits and return on investment may supersede other concerns. Thus, comparison of output between these funding sources is likely to be skewed should one choose endpoints such as publications, impact factor, profit, or patents. As an alternative, we propose to compare employment growth within a geographic region as a surrogate endpoint common to both sources. For NIH, the scientific achievement might spur the creation of a critical mass of scientists in a research field. For VCs, the formation of a company would bring together teams of people creating commercial products. The comparison of employment within a geographic region is reasonable as face-to-face proximity is useful for collegial collaboration and efficient development and production. The creation and preservation of local economies is one of the key concerns for entrepreneurial managers and guardians of public good alike. Indeed, Samila and Sorenson in 2010 suggested that the public funding of academic research and venture capital have a complementary relationship in fostering innovation and the creation of new firms. Given their findings, our question becomes how to estimate the economic impact of distinct forms of financial capital on the level of economy while avoiding the risk of inappropriate estimation.

We hypothesize that NIH and VC funds generate employment in the medical device field. We posit that jobs creation is a mutual metric of impact that can assess the relative merits of each mode of support. We further test two sub-hypotheses : 1) that funding has a direct effect by immediate hiring with an indirect effect of delayed hiring due to intellectual capital advancements; and 2) that employment levels can be shown to be causative by assessing temporal changes over multiple years.

2. Methods

2·1 Data

We focused on the medical device industry and obtained medical device cluster performance data between 1990 and 2001 from the Cluster Mapping Project at the Institute of Strategy and Competitiveness (ISC) at the Harvard Business School. By focusing solely on the medical device industry, we naturally control for tax burdens (Mofidi and Stone 1990), public infrastructure (Evans and Karras 1994), and industry structure (Higgins, Levy, and Young 2006). We included all Metropolitan Statistical Areas (MSA) with nonzero medical device employment over the study period yielding medical device firms located in 247 MSAs. Medical device firms tend to stay in their places of origin because these firms typically have regulatory entry barriers, strong intellectual property protection, and high profit margins (Rothaermel and Ku, 2008).

2·2 Model

Our basic model is the widely used Cobb-Douglas production function to describe the relationship between multiple inputs and the economic output (Cobb and Douglas 1928). This formulation is written as :

$$Y_i \qquad V_i^{\;1} N_i \;\; L_i^{\,3} R_i(V_i, N_i)^{\;4} E_i^{\;5} e^{\;i} \qquad \ldots(1)$$

where Y_i is the level of employment in a specific region i, V_i is VC funding, N_i is NIH funding, L_i is labor capital, R_i is intellectual capital, E_i is entrepreneurial capital, and e is an error term. , , and are the parameters produced by the model. Note that the intellectual capital R_i (V_i, N_i) is a function of V_i and N_i.

Employment serves as the common economic output production for both VC and NIH funding inputs. We investigate the period of five years after VC and NIH funding are endowed in the regions. We control for the level of employment in the previous year (*t*-1) of the endowments of VC and NIH funding (*t*) and MSA and year-fixed effects, resulting in our empirical specification being a first-order autoregressive model (AR(1)), with fixed effects. The autoregressive model is a common approach to describe time-varying processes and specifies that the output variable depends linearly on its own previous values. Specifically, we used the following econometrics model to predict the level of employment (Y_{it}) as :

$$Y_{it} \quad a \quad b_1 Y_{it-1} \quad b_2 V_{it} \quad b_3 N_{it} \quad b_4 Z_{it} \qquad {}_{it} \ldots(2)$$

where V_{it} is VC funding, N_{it} is NIH funding, X_{it} are control variables, ${}_{it}$ it is an error term. t denotes the year in which VC and NIH funding is endowed in region i. a and b are fitted parameters.

We estimate the direct effects of VC and NIH funding on the level of employment by including the VC and NIH funding variables and the intellectual capital variable along with control variables in the model. We then estimate the total effects of VC and NIH funding by excluding the intellectual capital from the model. The indirect effects are then calculated as the difference between the total effects and the direct effects (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

We evaluate causality among variables using a two-stage least squares analysis. More specifically, this analysis examines causality between VC and NIH funding and the level of employment. VC and NIH funding are each instrumented by funding invested in other regions, which is calculated as the sums of VC and NIH funding invested in all regions at *t*, subtracted by VC and NIH funding invested in the region i at t, respectively.

2·3 Response Variable

Our dependent variable is the level of employment in the medical device industry. We selected the level of employment rather than total economic output because there have been intense discussions about the role of federal and state governments in the allocation of societal support for creating local jobs among researchers and policy makers. We used the log of the number of employees in the region i at t rather than actual values to reduce concerns about heteroscedasticity. For a sensitivity analysis we also use an indicator variable that equals one if the level of employment increases from t-1 in i and zero otherwise.

2·4 Explanatory Variable

We examined the effects of two types of financial capital: VC and NIH funding. VC funding is the log of the amount of VC invested in the medical device firms in region i at t using data obtained from the SDC Platinum VentureXpert database published by Thomson Reuters. NIH funding was given by the log of the amount of NIH research grants awarded annually from the Office of Extramural Research at the NIH. To avoid unnecessary heterogeneity in the NIH funding data, we limited NIH grants to the medical device sector. Both financial variables are converted into 2001 constant US dollars.

We proxy an MSA's intellectual capital using the number of medical device patents assigned to each cluster by the USA Patent Trademark Office. Patenting is an important competitive element in this industry because firm growth is greatly determined by continued innovation, and protecting intellectual property through patents appears to be quite effective (Cohen, Nelson, and Walsh, 2000).

Prior studies suggest that inter-cluster innovation and economic growth differentials are a function of the clusters' endowments in human capital. Specifically, research universities provide critical elements for innovation within technology clusters because they are a primary source of knowledge spillovers (Zucker, Darby, and Brewer 1998). The number of science Ph.D.s who graduated from research universities gave an MSA's human capital endowment. The annual data on Ph.D.s were obtained from the National Science Foundation (NSF).

Entrepreneurial capital, like all other types of capital, is multifaceted and heterogeneous (Audretsch and Keilbach, 2004). It, however, manifests itself singularly in new enterprises. Entrepreneurial capital was estimated using the average size of the medical device firms, which is the ratio of the number of employees to the number of firms. The MSA that has more small-sized firms can be understood as possessing higher entrepreneurial capital. In addition, we included two types of types of fixed effects: dummy variables that correspond to specific MSAs and years.

3. Results

3·1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics report 2,573 annual records of 247 distinct MSAs in the US medical device industry between 1990 and 2001 (Table-1). The level of employment and employment growth are greater with high VC funding and high NIH funding. These univariate results provide supportive evidence that VC and NIH funding may be important factors that create regional jobs. It is also noteworthy that the number of observations in the sub-samples of high VC and NIH funding are notably smaller than those in the sub-samples of low VC and NIH funding. The distributions of VC and NIH funding are heterogeneously distributed and skewed left, indicating that a small number of MSAs have much more VC and NIH funding than many other MSAs. Similarly, intellectual capital and human capital are greater with high VC and NIH funding over the entire data set.

Table-1 : Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<tr><th rowspan="3"></th><th colspan="4">1</th><th colspan="2">2</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">All sample</th><th colspan="2">High VC funding</th></tr>
<tr><th>Mean</th><th>S.D.</th><th>Min</th><th>Max</th><th>Mean</th><th>S.D.</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. Level of employment</td><td>5.81</td><td>1.84</td><td>0.69</td><td>10.28</td><td>7.64</td><td>1.38</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Employment growth</td><td>0.38</td><td>0.48</td><td>0.00</td><td>1.00</td><td>0.47</td><td>0.50</td></tr>
</table>

3. VC funding	3.55	6.95	0.00	21.11	16.97	1.69
4. NIH funding	3.77	6.56	0.00	19.35	9.43	7.75
5. Intellectual capital	10.35	22.17	0.00	243.00	32.59	37.62
6. Human capital	21.47	44.57	0.00	362.00	57.36	68.94
7. Entrepreneurial capital	63.72	87.56	0.67	962.50	68.80	41.59
Number of observations	2573				539	

	3		4		5	
	Low VC funding		**High NIH funding**		**Low NIH funding**	
	Mean	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**	**Mean**	**S.D.**
1. Level of employment	5.33	1.63	7.27	1.60	5.31	1.64
2. Employment growth	0.35	0.48	0.46	0.50	0.35	0.48
3. VC funding	0.00	0.00	8.67	8.69	1.82	5.21
4. NIH funding	2.27	5.27	14.87	2.13	0.00	0.00
5. Intellectual capital	4.46	9.03	26.31	32.16	4.93	13.85
6. Human capital	11.96	28.71	53.07	64.52	10.74	28.21
7. Entrepreneurial capital	62.38	96.09	64.69	44.84	63.40	97.92
Number of observations	2034		652		1921	

3·2 Direct and Indirect Effects of VC and NIH Funding

We can utilize an autoregressive model {AR(1)} to determine the effects of different forms of capital on employment growth. We estimate the direct effects of VC and NIH funding on the level of employment by inserting both VC and NIH funding along with intellectual capital and control variables in the AR(1) models. Table-2 reports our model that predicts the level of employment from the time period in which financial capital were invested and for five years thereafter. Consistent with our predictions, the level of employment prior to funding indicates positive and significant coefficients across models. VC and NIH funding also have positive coefficients across models at the $p<0.01$ level, supporting our hypothesis that VC and NIH funding stimulate employment within a region. Intellectual capital also indicates positive and significant coefficients across models at the $p<0.01$ level. These coefficients are supportive of our predictions that financial capital may directly impact the level of employment and indirectly impact it through enhancing intellectual capital. Human capital shows positive coefficients but significance is not shown. Entrepreneurial capital indicates positive and significant coefficients across all models.

Table-2 : Direct Effects of VC and NIH Funding

Model	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Dependent variable	Level of employment	Level of employment	Level of employment	Level of employment	Level of employment	Level of employment
year	(t)	(t+1)	(t+2)	(t+3)	(t+4)	(t+5)
Level of employment (t-1)	0.7249*** (0.0284)	0.7722*** (0.0247)	0.6860*** (0.0321)	0.7566*** (0.0277)	0.7357*** (0.0286)	0.5195*** (0.0409)
VC funding	**0.0144***** (0.0028)	**0.0116***** (0.0025)	**0.0108***** (0.0026)	**0.0098***** (0.0027)	**0.0082**** (0.0034)	**0.0065**** (0.0033)
NIH funding	**0.0225***** (0.0040)	**0.0173***** (0.0037)	**0.0205***** (0.0048)	**0.0171***** (0.0041)	**0.0161***** (0.0043)	**0.0183***** (0.0066)
Intellectual capital	0.0065*** (0.0018)	0.0051*** (0.0017)	0.0069*** (0.0022)	0.0067*** (0.0022)	0.0123*** (0.0035)	0.0242*** (0.0056)
Human capital	0.0004 (0.0006)	0.0004 (0.0005)	0.0011 (0.0007)	0.0005 (0.0005)	0.0000 (0.0008)	0.0017 (0.0011)
Entrepreneurial capital	0.0034*** (0.0009)	0.0023*** (0.0006)	0.0022*** (0.0005)	0.0014*** (0.0003)	0.0012*** (0.0003)	0.0013*** (0.0005)
Constant	0.8997*** (0.0930)	0.6707*** (0.0714)	0.8187*** (0.0879)	0.5176*** (0.0766)	0.5843*** (0.0824)	1.0536*** (0.1095)
MSA and year fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of observations	2573	2349	2128	1913	1697	1489
Number of groups	247	247	243	242	241	239
Overall R^2	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.89	0.88	0.86

Notes : Robust standard errors are presented in parentheses throughout all tables. ***, **, and * denote significance at p<0.01, 0.05, and 0.1, respectively.

VC funding and NIH funding appear to have different effects over time. We used the statistical Wald test to examine whether the coefficients of VC and NIH funding are significantly different. The Wald test shows that the coefficients are indeed different. Furthermore, as the second corollary analysis, we estimated the direct effect of financial capital, the arithmetic sum of VC and NIH funding, as a homogeneous variable on the level of employment by inserting both financial and intellectual capital along with control variables in AR(1) models. The sum of the coefficients of VC and NIH funding (i.e., 0.0369=0.0144+0.0225) is greater than the coefficient of financial capital (i.e., 0.0241) calculated in the corollary analysis. This finding is interpreted in a way that the effect of treating financial capital as a homogeneous entity tends to underestimate the effects of VC and NIH funding.

Table-3 : Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of VC and NIH Funding

3-A. Effects of VC Funding

Year	t	t+1	t+2	t+3	t+4	t+5	Total
Direct effect	0.0144	0.0116	0.0108	0.0098	0.0082	0.0065	0.0613
Indirect effect	0.0028	0.0021	0.0020	0.0021	0.0029	0.0027	0.0146
Total effect	0.0172	0.0137	0.0128	0.0119	0.0111	0.0092	0.0759

3-B. Effects of NIH Funding

Year	t	t+1	t+2	t+3	t+4	t+5	Total
Direct effect	0.0225	0.0173	0.0205	0.0171	0.0161	0.0183	0.1118
Indirect effect	0.0013	0.0019	0.0022	0.0027	0.0052	0.0071	0.0204
Total effect	0.0238	0.0192	0.0227	0.0198	0.0213	0.0254	0.1322

Notes : Indirect effects=total effects-direct effects.

All coefficients for direct and total effects are significant at the $p<0.01$ level.

By calculating the total effects in a way shown in the model section, we report the direct, indirect, and total effects of VC (Table 3-A) and NIH (Table 3-B) funding on the level of employment. The direct effects of both financial sources are large and positive. The indirect effects are also significant for both financial sources, indicating the role of generation of intellectual capital. As a corollary analysis, the statistical Wald test indicated that the coefficients of VC and NIH funding are significantly different.

These tables can be interpreted quantitatively as the change in employment produced by an incremental change from VC and NIH funding. Our results indicate that a 1% change in VC and NIH funding led to 0.0759% and 0.1322% changes in the level of employment for five years after the endowment of VC and NIH funding and, on average, 0.0126% and 0.0220% changes annually, respectively. Alternatively, the percentages can be converted to actual funding amounts by converting the logarithmic values into natural numbers of the level of employment and the dollar values of VC and NIH funding. The results indicate that 1 million dollars of VC funding creates 12.39 jobs for five years after funding is endowed in the region and 2.06 new jobs annually. In contrast, equivalent amounts of funding from the NIH create almost three times as many jobs; 35.32 jobs for five years and 5.89 jobs annually.

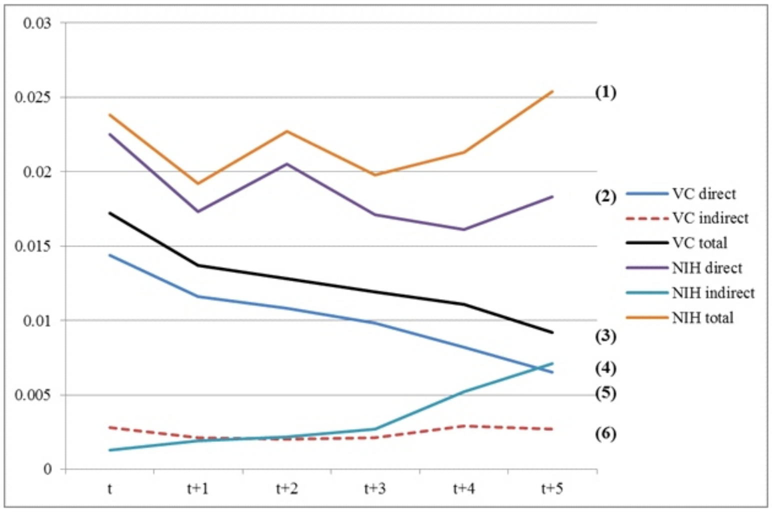

Figure-1 : Direct, indirect, and total effects of VC and NIH funding

Our results are shown graphically to compare the relative size of total, direct, and indirect effects of two financial sources (Fig. 1). The total (line 3) and direct (line 5) effects of VC funding tends to create a stock of jobs immediately, but this effect gradually decreases. In contrast, the total (line 1) and direct (line 2) effects of NIH funding has a more level pattern as NIH funding is typically evenly allocated over 5 years. Lines 4 and 6 highlight the differences between the indirect effects of NIH and VC funding. NIH funding creates large indirect effects in years 4 and 5 that contribute significantly to continued employment. This increase in indirect effects by enhancing intellectual capital created by NIH funds in later years can be understood such that it requires a substantial amount of time (e.g., here 3 years) because a time lag between scientific research (Research) and applied research (Development) exists. In sum, the graph supports the concept that while the indirect effects of NIH funding are small for the first three years, the intellectual advancements generated by NIH funding becomes important in year 4 and 5, reflected in significantly more regional employment compared with VC funding.

3·3 Causality

We examine the causality between the both financial sources and the level of employment using a two-stage least squares specification. This technique can be used when the dependent variable's (e.g., level of employment) error terms are correlated with the independent variable (e.g., VC and NIH funding) in the econometrics model. To remedy such correlations, a problematic causal variable is replaced with the substitute variable in the first stage of the analysis. An instrumental variable, which is correlated with the endogenous independent variable and is not correlated with the dependent variable's error terms, is used to create a new variable by replacing the problematic variable. However, it is widely believed that it is very difficult to find a proper instrumental variable. To address this concern, VC funding (or NIH funding) in a given region is instrumented by VC funding (or NIH funding) endowed in other regions. This analysis does not include year fixed effects that may lead to biased results by interacting with the instrumental variables. The first stage regression in Model 1 predicts the level of employment from VC funding. Likewise, the first stage regression in Model 2 predicts the level of employment from NIH funding. We find that the VC (or NIH) funding in other regions produces negative and significant effects on VC (or NIH) funding within a region. Second stage regressions show that VC (or NIH) funding indicates positive and significant coefficient on the level of employment. Thus, these results support the causality of financial sources to enhance the level of employment.

Table-4 : Causality between VC and NIH Funding and Employment

Model	**(1)**		**(2)**	
Stage	**1st**	**2nd**	**1st**	**2nd**
Dependent variable	**VC funding (t)**	**Level of employment (t)**	**NIH funding (t)**	**Level of employment (t)**
Level of employment (t-1)		0.6947*** (0.0191)		0.7194*** (0.0120)
VC funding (t)		**0.0491***** (0.0176)	0.0747*** (0.0112)	0.0139*** (0.0027)
NIH funding (t)	0.1768*** (0.0202)	0.0186*** (0.0036)		**0.0271***** (0.0040)
Intellectual capital	0.1184*** (0.0082)	0.0033 (0.0021)	0.0214*** (0.0051)	0.0064*** (0.0012)
Human capital	0.0340*** (0.0034)	-0.0007 (0.0008)	0.0199*** (0.0021)	0.0002 (0.0005)
Entrepreneurial capital	0.0012 (0.0012)	0.0036*** (0.0002)	-0.0002 (0.0007)	0.0035*** (0.0002)
VC funding in other regions	**-22.3050***** (2.7777)			
NIH funding in other regions			**-5.6e+02***** (9.0207)	
Constant	148.4744*** (18.5383)	0.5724*** (0.2100)	3.9e+03*** (62.1157)	0.5010** (0.1996)
MSA fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year fixed effects	No	No	No	No

Number of observations	2868	2573	2868	2573
Prob>?2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Overall R^2	0.5238	0.8732	0.8066	0.8810

Notes : Robust standard errors are presented in parentheses throughout all tables. ***, **, and * denote significance at p<0.01, 0.05, and 0.1, respectively.

4. Conclusion

This study provides several implications for those responsible for job creation and economic sustainability. First, our analysis of 2573 observations conclusively shows that VC and NIH funding have a positive impact on regional employment levels through a direct effect on by immediate hiring, but also by a delayed, indirect effect from increased intellectual capital, which also engenders employment. We further show that employment level growth is likely to be caused from funding by both NIH and VC over multiple years. The statistical analysis can be used to quantitatively estimate the relative impacts of NIH funding or VC investments into a region on employment. Public funds for university research create almost threefold more employment growth over an equal infusion of private funding over a 5-year time frame. The common metric of employment between public investment in science and private investment in companies shows higher productivity from a long-term investment in generating intellectual capital. This finding is consistent with the justification for the public support of research universities and research centers even in regions that may not enjoy vigorous entrepreneurial activities (Samila and Sorenson, 2010).

Such regions would still provide knowledge advancements and achieve high employment by endowing public funds. Our findings also demonstrate the positive effects of VC funding on the level of employment. However, regions rich in academic research but poorer in entrepreneurial activity may still benefit in higher employment from policies to promote the development of basic research. For example, in contrast to some places, such as Boston and Silicon Valley, Atlanta may not have matured as a hotbed of entrepreneurial activity or of biotechnology despite being home to Emory, the Georgia Institute of Technology, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Our results suggest that regions such as Atlanta may benefit from initial policies to promote the development of basic research and then promotion of venture financing to reap the rewards of the science. Policy makers may utilize an augmented perspective about the role of the federal government in the allocation of research support to develop long-term strategic employment initiatives. The high priority of job creation should secure a smooth and reliable selection of the fittest scenario and, thus, maintain a well-functioning market mechanism (Fritsch, 2008).

Moreover, our findings provide an important implication about the temporal issues of the endowments of public funding duration. Due to the nature of public capital that often supports basic research, it takes a substantially longer time to realize its indirect effect on the level of employment. The increasing trend of limiting NIH funding to three years may have a major negative consequence in limiting intellectual capital that takes more than three years to develop.

In conclusion, this analysis of a large set of regional econometric data indicates that regional funding increases employment growth in a causal manner over years with strong statistical significance. The type of public or private funding can lead to differential growth of employment. Public funds create more new employment than private funds, in part due to the indirect creation of new intellectual capital, which eventually leads to long-term employment in the region.

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10

Urbanization and Social Change : Analyzing Demographic and Socio-economic Transformations of Asansol Durgapur Planning Area of West Bengal, India

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The physical growth of urban areas as a result of globalization and varied global changes can be termed as urbanization or urban drift which leads to demographic and socio-economic changes among other things. The process of urbanization has a tremendous effect on the demographic structure of a region. Asansol Durgapur Planning Area being a mineral rich zone; mining came up as a prominent economic activity followed by the development of industries mainly heavy industry in this area which paved the way for the evolution of this area as an industrial region. In the recent decades a massive level of urbanization has been witnessed in the Asansol-Durgapur Planning Area which came up under the Asansol-Durgapur Development Authority Area in 1980, under the provisions of WBT & CP Act. Previously, the areas under ADDA was under the district of erstwhile Bardhhaman, however, recently the areas under ADDA has been brought under the newly formed district of Paschim Bardhhaman. The rate of urbanization between 1991-2001 has been quite rapid mainly due to the inclusion of certain rural areas under urban areas which also led to large scale land use transformation and changes in the social structure. The potentiality of this region in generating employment attracted large number

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of people to migrate here mainly from the rural areas which ultimately led to the establishment of rural-urban linkage. In this paper an attempt has been made to analyze the level of urbanization, demographic pattern and socio-economic characteristics in selected blocks/municipalities under the jurisdiction of ADDA. The various demographic and socio-economic changes that a region undergoes due to urbanization has been dealt with in this paper primarily with the help of secondary data.

[**Keywords :** Globalization, Heavy industry, Land use transformation, Mining, Rural-urban linkage, Social structure]

1. Introduction

Urbanization is closely linked to modernization, industrialization and is regarded as an index of transformation from traditional rural economies to modern industrial ones. The middle of the 18th century marked the beginning of the rapid rate of acceleration of processes of urbanization of human society (Jennings 2016). Urban places are those having a high total population, high population density and a variety of economic activities to be distinguished from places which have a few people, low population density and very little variety of economic activities. The share of world's population living in urban centres has increased from 39% in 1980 to 48% in 2000. In 2014 about 54 per cent of the world's population lived in urban areas which is expected to increase to a staggering 66 per cent by 2050 (United Nations 2014). In particular, the developing countries are witnessing urbanization on a rapid scale in the recent years; not only does they experience growth of population massively but also the absolute size and dimension of the cities as well as that of the conurbations increases (Pike et al., 2016).

In the post-independence era, the process of urbanization accelerated in India in which the adaptation of mixed economic system played a significant role (Radhakrishna and Panda, 2006). According to the Census of India, about 11.4% of the population resided in the urban areas in India in 1901 which increased to 28.53% in 2001 and reached 31.16% as per 2011 census. By 2030, it is expected that about 40.76% of the country's population will reside in the urban areas (United Nations, 2007). According to the World Bank, India along with China, Indonesia, Nigeria, and the United States, will lead the world's urban population surge by 2050. This trend of increase of urban population is true for the state of West Bengal as well. According to the 2011 Census of India, there has been marked increase in the proportion of urban population in West Bengal as a considerable section of the population has been increasingly opting for the non-agricultural way of life resulting in rapid urbanization in each of the districts of the state. In fact, for better and effective administration of the ever-increasing population and diversified economic activities, several districts have been bifurcated and currently there are 23 districts in the state (Indian Express, 2017). Since 2001, a sharp rise of the number of 'census towns' clearly indicates that people from rural backgrounds are increasingly discarding agriculture as a livelihood option and opting for more urban alternatives. The number of 'census towns' has increased from 255 in 2001 to 780 in 2011 and the number of towns has gone up from 378 in 2001 to 909 in 2011, while the number of villages decreased from 40,782 in 2001 to 40,203 in 2011. The decadal growth of urban population in West Bengal which is 31.89% turns out to be higher than the national average which is 31.16%. In West Bengal, Kolkata is the largest urban agglomeration as per the 2011 census. Asansol and Durgapur turn out to be second and fourth largest urban agglomerations in West Bengal respectively. These two urban agglomerations are part of the Asansol Durgapur Planning Area (ADPA) which falls under the jurisdiction of the Asansol Durgapur Development Authority Area (ADDA). More than 50% of the district's urban population lies in the ADPA. The presence of coal mining and large industrial establishments are the prime reasons behind the character of ADPA being principally urban in nature. More than 77% of the total population (2.4 million) of ADPA is urban. The entire ADPA comprises of two principle urban areas and eight rural areas, although there is existence of several census towns in the community development blocks (ADDA, 2010).

Much emphasis has been laid on rural-urban migration in order the explain the growth and development of urbanization with the main focus on rural push factors (agricultural modernization and rural-poverty) and urban pull factors (industrialization and urban-biased policies). However, rapid urban growth and urbanization can also be linked with socio-demographic factors like rapid internal urban population growth which may also be treated as a urban push (Trivedi et al, 2008). Hence, in order to study urbanization scenario of a place it is essential to throw light on the demographic factors of the region as well.

However, not much work has been done on the socio-demographic aspect of ADPA, therefore, there is a substantial research gap on the studies of demography in the selected study area, i.e. ADPA. Keeping that in mind, the objectives of this research have been designed as follows :

- Determination of the gradual progress and status of urbanization of the region
- Determination of the demographic characteristics of the area and comparing the demographic changes over the census years.
- Assessing the impact of demographic changes on the urbanization progression
- Analyzing the pattern of transformation of the various demographic determinants in the study area.

2. Methodology

2·1 Delineation of the Study Area

The Asansol-Durgapur Planning Area (ADPA) is a prominent urban centre of eastern India (Figure 1). The region has made immense progress in the recent years

(City Development Plan, 2006). The Asansol-Durgapur region can be broadly divided into two urban areas consisting of Durgapur Municipal Corporation and Asansol Municipal Corporation and around eight Community Development Blocks (City Development Plan, 2006). As an urban agglomeration Asansol has a quite cosmopolitan character. It is located on the lower Chotanagpur Plateau in the Paschim Bardhhaman district of West Bengal though only a small part of the plateau lies in West Bengal (Singh, 1971). The other prominent city of the region i.e. Durgapur is an industrial hub and is an urban agglomeration as well.

The Asansol-Durgapur Region is one the major industrial and urban area of West Bengal. Asansol and Durgapur are the two major cities in terms of economic development (Chakravarty, 2014). The economic activity is dominated by mining and wholesale trade. The availability of cost effective power, adequate raw material, cheap labour, power and strong connectivity with Kolkata are the major impetus to economic development. In this region agriculture is limited owing to the low productivity of agricultural land in this region. Moreover, mining comprises a major part of the regional economy primarily oriented around Raniganj-Jamuria coal belt. (City Development Plan, 2006).

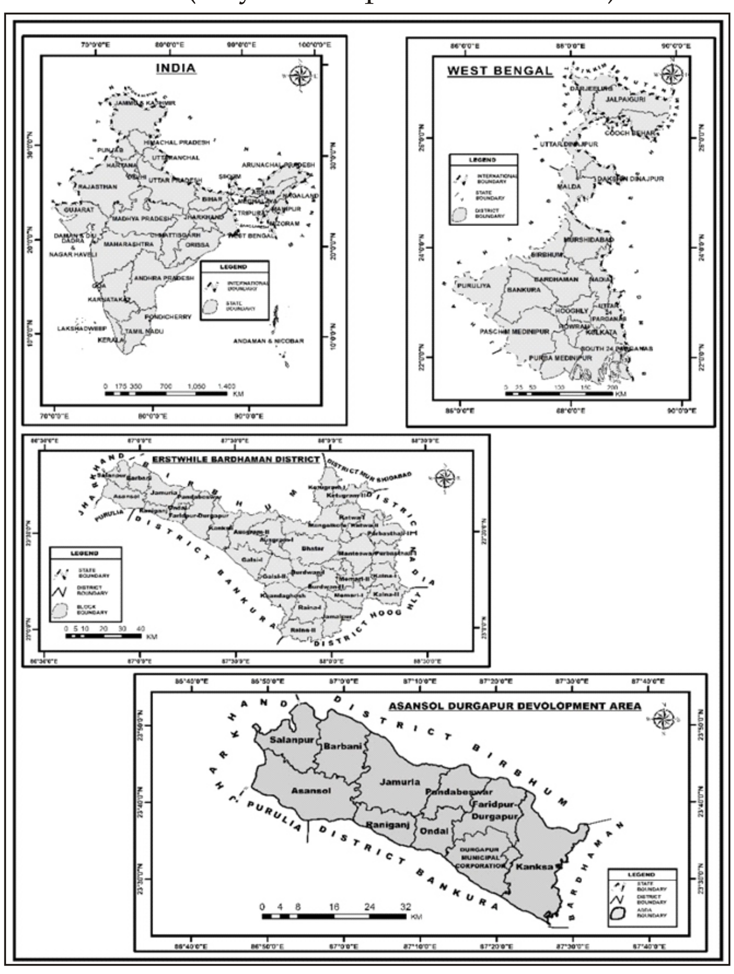

Figure-1 : Location of the Study Area

The only district in West Bengal to have flourished in both agriculture and industry is erstwhile Bardhhaman district (Dutta, 2004). About 42% of the work force are engaged in non-agricultural pursuits and 58% of the work force are engaged in agricultural activities (Census of India, 2011).

2·2 Assessing the Process of Urbanization in ADPA

For assessing the process of urbanization in ADPA dependence was laid mainly on secondary data analysis. Secondary data has been collected from the Census of India, District Statistical Handbook, various reports published by the authorities of ADPA. The Land-Use and Land-Cover data has been collected from the satellites LANDSAT 5 and LANDSAT 8 while the sensor used was Operational Land Imager, path and row is 139 and 44 respectively. The dates of acquisition were 23rd December 1996 and 26th May 2017. Image correction techniques were applied for all the images through Erdas Imagine 9.1 software. Nearest neighbour is the resampling technique and there is GCP based accuracy. Maximum likelihood has been used as the supervised classification algorithm. ArcGIS 10.1 based cartographic analyses of census data over the last three decades has been conducted.

2·3 Analyzing the Transformation of the Demographic Attributes in ADPA

Spatio-temporal pattern of transformation of population characteristics, percentage of urban population, employment data and working sector data has been collected from various secondary sources like Census of India, District Statistical Handbook and primary source data includes that collected by running questionnaire have been analyzed and mapped using mapping making software like ArcGIS and cartographic representation of the data has been done using MS Excel 2013.

2·4 Formulation of Management Guidelines

From all the findings we will have an understanding of the status of urbanization in the study area and based on which we will formulate guidelines. Management guidelines have been formulated on the basis of expert opinion. Interviews of the local knowledgeable persons, government officials and staff and NGO members have been done. In consultation of all these stakeholders we have prepared the management curriculum. Guidelines has also been formulated by keeping in mind the existing rules and regulation of the country. The formulation of guidelines will help to accentuate the magnitude of urbanization in the imminent years.

3 Results and Discussion

3·1 Status of Urbanization in ADPA

The gradual progress and status of urbanization in ADPA has been discussed by dividing the gradual evolution of urbanization into the following phases after critically examining the various major events and trends occurred during the last two centuries.

3·1·1 Pre-Independence Period

The Asansol-Durgapur region wore a deserted look till the 19th century until the initial signs of development began to show up after the opening of the coal mines near Raniganj in 1820. This region became prominent with the availability of these natural resources and subsequently this marked the beginning of economic activities in this region (ADDA, 2010). During the second half of the 19th century the potentiality of development of this region accelerated with the establishment of connectivity in 1855 by the East India Railway and IISCO, the first Iron and Steel Plant started its operation in 1874(ADDA 2010). Gradually, the coal mines began to show up in the regional scene at Barakar, Sitarampur, Raniganj, Asansol, Andal and Ukhra area that led to the haphazard growth.

In the first quarter of the 19th century the urban industrialization process was initiated with the exploration of mining activities in this region and the Asansol Raniganj Region came up as a prominent mining oriented industrial nucleus (City Development Plan 2006).

3·1·2 Development up to 1978

Andal happens to be the first classified town in the Durgapur Micro Region in the context of urbanization in 1951 whereas Durgapur got the status in 1961(Census of India, 1951 and 1961). Though the railway service was introduced a long time ago yet, the inclusion of Durgapur in the scenario of industrialization is comparatively a recent phenomenon since this area remained as an almost uninhabited area with a small deserted railway station within a dense network of jungle till the middle of the last century. In and around 1955, Joseph Allen Stein, an eminent American architect planner and former head of Architecture and Planning department of the then most reputed Engineering college of Eastern India, B.E. College Shibpur planned this industrial township along with another American architect Beniamin Polk had designed the layout of modern Durgapur. Around that time the completion of the construction of Durgapur Barrage by the DVC further provided impetus to the development of this area and within a span of 15-20years this area witnessed tremendous growth and marked the beginning of production in the industries. Notable among them being the DSP, ASP, HFC, Graphite India, Philips, Carbon, Bharat Ophthalmic Glass and Durgapur Cement were of national importance. The Government of West Bengal had set up the Asansol Planning Organization (APO) under the Directorate of Town and Country Planning at Asansol and thereafter established the Durgapur Development Authority (DDA) at Durgapur in the year 1964.

3·1·3 Development from 1978 to 2011

In 1980 under the provisions of the West Bengal Town and Country (Planning and Development) Act 1979 (WBT&CP Act) by merging the erstwhile Asansol

Planning Organization with the Durgapur Development Authority, the Asansol Durgapur Development Authority was set up in 1980. The Asansol Durgapur Planning Area comes under this authority excluding the Budbud Police Station and covers an area of about 1600 sq.km. Since the inception of the ADDA, certain planning activities as well as developmental activities has been carried out but sadly these were largely confined within the urban areas of Asansol and Durgapur. In the late eighties an Outline Development Plan (ODP) was prepared in compliance with the statutory directives of the WBT&CP Act (1979) for the then Durgapur Notified Area now known as the Durgapur Municipal Corporation which was formed in October 1996 (City Development Plan 2006). The Census of 1991 delineated the Asansol Urban Agglomeration which has finally been transformed in to the Asansol Municipal Corporation and its erstwhile municipal limit has been increased more than 5 times. On 3rd June 2015, the municipal areas of Kulti, Raniganj and Jamuria were included within the jurisdiction of Asansol Municipal Corporation (Kolkata Gazette). The urban growth of Asansol-Kulti-Jamuria continues still now on the eastern bank of the river Barakar and northern bank of the river Damodar along the Grand Trunk Road (NH2) and the Durgapur-Dhanbad railway linkage (Eastern Railway). There has been substantial stress on the available infrastructure due to the immense growth in urban population and scaling up of activities. Further development of a region is directly related to the ability of that region to develop urban infrastructure.

3·1·4 Trend of Development 2011 onwards

In April 7th 2017 Bardhhaman district was bifurcated into two parts : Paschim Bardhhaman District and Purba Bardhhaman District and the study area came under the newly formed district of Paschim Bardhhaman (The Times of India, 2017). It is a predominantly an urban mining-industrial district in West Bengal with Asansol being the district headquarter. Asansol is the district headquarter comprising of 16 police stations, 8 development blocks, 2 municipal corporations, 62 Gram Panchayats in this district. Each subdivision contains Community Development Blocks which are further divided into rural areas and census towns. There are 66 urban units : 2 municipal corporations, 3 municipalities which have subsequently been absorbed in Asansol Municipal Corporation and 65 census towns

A Domestic Airport named Kazi Nazrul Islam Airport came up in Andal on 10th May, 2015 The airport mainly serves the cities of Asansol and Durgapur and is about 15 km away from Durgapur‘s City Centre and 25 km from Asansol City‘s Bus terminus. In South Bengal the towns of Bardhhaman, Bankura, Bishnupur, Puruliya, Sainthia, Suri, Bolpur, Rampurhat and Dhanbad and Bokaro in Jharkhand are the hinterland of the airport. This airport is a part of India‘s first private sector aerotropolis which has been developed by Bengal Aerotropolis Projects Limited (BAPL). The region is well connected by a network of roadways and railways with the NH2 being the most prominent one and south-eastern railways providing good railway communication.

3·2 Status of the Demographic Attributes in ADPA and their Transformations

The presence of coal mines and large industrial establishments attributes to the urban character of the Asansol Durgapur Planning Area. More than 77% of its total population is urban comprising about 2.4 million. According to the 2011 census, about 88% of the erstwhile Bardhhaman district's urban population resides in the ADPA. The decadal growth rate of ADPA during 1991-2001 has been 39% which is much higher than the growth rates of the District and the State.

There has been phenomenal increase of population in the centres of ADPA. However, it is a noticeable fact that the massive growth of population occurred in the decade between 1991-2001; this decade witnessed a very high degree of growth rate in all these centres specially in Kulti Municipality the growth rate has been enormous. In the decade between 2001-2011, the trend of the population growth has been moderate but compared to the previous decade it is seen that the growth pattern is quite on the lower side. A remarkable fact is Jamuria did not have a single urban population in the 1991 Census but in the 2001 census its population increased to quite a certain extent (Figure-2). Migration is one the main factors for the tremendous increase of population in this region.

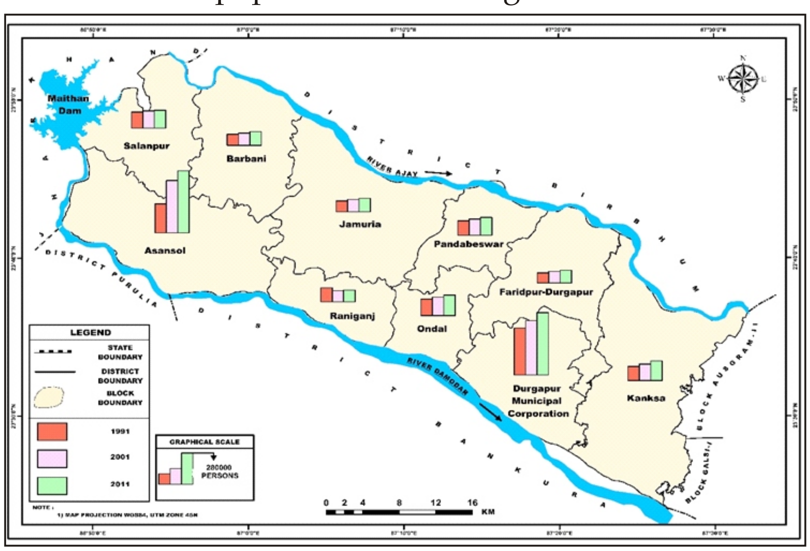

Figure-2 : Distribution of Total Population over three Census Years, Data Source : Census of India 1991, 2001, 2011

There has been huge influx of migrants in these regions particularly after 1970s due to the industrial flourishment which created immense job opportunities which in turn attracted lot of immigrants.

The growth rate of population of the area represents quite erratic pattern of population increase in the decade of 1991-2001 among all the centres of ADPA. However, in the decade of 2001-11 the rate of population has been quite steady for all the centres. A noticeable fact is Raniganj C.D. Block had witnessed a negative growth of population in the decades between 1991-2001. This might because of the growth of population Raniganj Municipality/development of Raniganj as a municipality. Jamuria also recorded negative growth of population in the decade of 1991-2001. However, in almost all the centres the growth rate of population in 1991-2001 has been greater than 2001-2011. Asansol Municipality witnessed a tremendous increase in population growth in the years between 1991-2001 although the highest growth rate has been observed in Kulti which quite remarkably high in the decade spanning between 1991-2001.

Migrants mainly came here in search of jobs. Gradually post 2001 the rate of growth of population subsided mainly due to the industrial boom and lessening of employment opportunities in this area. However, the growth of real estate business and coming up of certain tertiary sector activities mainly the informal sector has contributed to the growth of population in this region even after the slowdown of the industrial sector (Chatterjee, 2016). These centres suffer from a lot of congestion because of the quite high population densities prevailing over here. Compared to the population of densities of India and West Bengal the density of population in these areas are very high.

The density of population exhibited by the centres under ADPA also shows a massive concentration of population in these areas particularly in Asansol, Durgapur and Raniganj Municipality (Figure-3). These areas have population densities which are quite higher than the national average. However, it can be seen that in Raniganj C. D. Block the density of population was higher in 1991 and then it gradually reduced in 2001 and made a rise in the year 2011. The increase in the job opportunities can be attributed to this fact of phenomenal concentration of population in these areas.

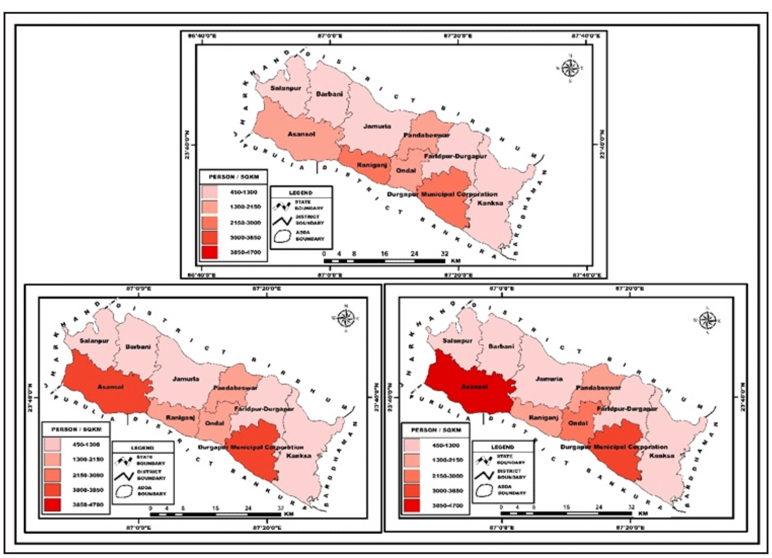

Figure-3 : Density of Population over three Census Years, Data Source: Census of India 1991, 2001, 2011

The rapid industrialization led to the concentration of population in the ADPA region and most of these areas are occupied by the industrial workers who have settled here for their employment purposes (City Development Plan, 2006). The potentiality of these regions to emerge as prominent growth centres in Eastern India is quite remarkable. However, this immense population pressure creates obstacles in the growth potentiality of this region which is experiencing industrial slump these days, Hence, the ever-growing population need to be controlled immediately in order to fasten the progress of this region.

The gradual progress of population growth over three census years in the ADPA region shows that only in the census year 1991 the total rural population was higher than the total urban population (Bose, 2011).

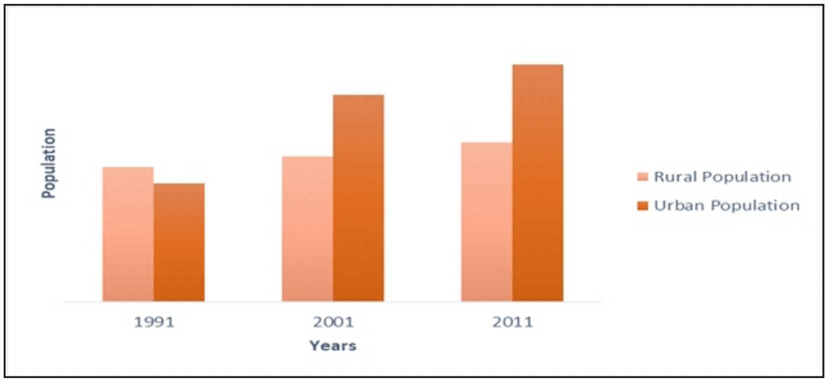

Figure-4 : Trend of Growth of Rural and Urban Population, Data Source : Census of India, 1991, 2001, 2011

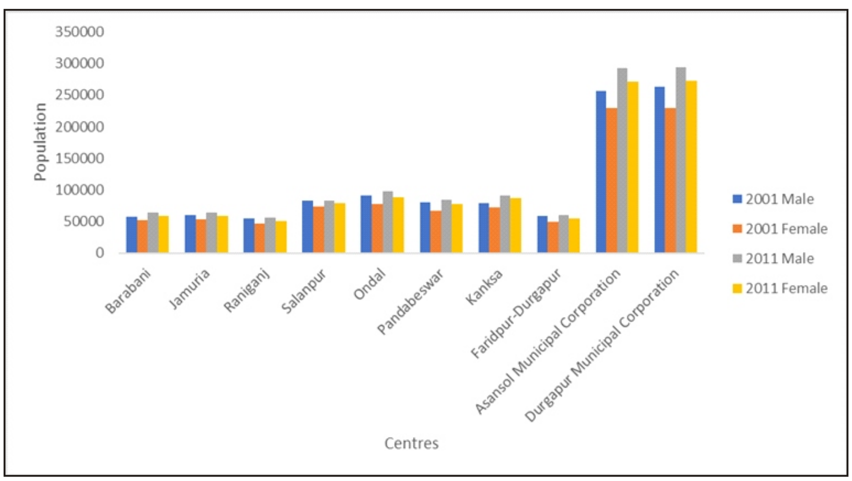

Figure-5 : Gender wise Population Growth in ADPA, Data Source : Census of India 1991, 2001, 2011

However, in the consequent census years the urban population has increased remarkably and has been higher than the rural population (Figure-4). The significant increase of urban population indicates the gradual development and emergence of the region as a significant industrial centre which has led to the progradation of urban population and subsequent urbanization.

Literacy plays an important role in the development of any region. It can be seen that in this region literacy percentage is quite high and in almost in most of the centres the literacy is higher than the national average specially in Durgapur MC and Asansol MC (Figure-6). However, in the rural areas of ADPA like Barabari, Jamuria the literacy is not quite satisfactory. But it can be noted that the average literacy rate in all the centres is quite appreciable

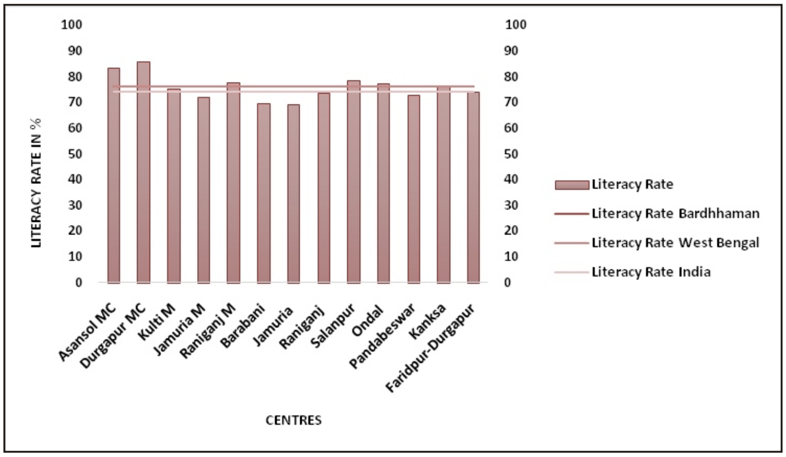

Figure-6 : A Comparison of the Literacy Rates of ADPA, Erstwhile Bardhhaman district, West Bengal and India, Data Source: Census of India, 2011

The trends of the male female population share in this region shows almost equal share of male and female in the total population (Figure-5). However, it can be noticed that the sex ratio is lower than the national average in some centres of the ADPA.

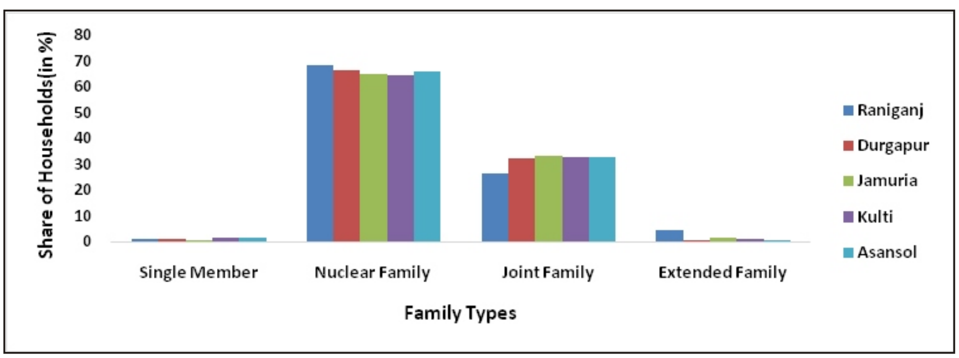

Figure-7 : Distribution of Households According to Household Type (in %), Data Source: Socio-economic survey report of Asansol Subdivision, 2010

The significant proportion of the nuclear families indicates the fact that the gradual creeping in of the traits of urbanization are visible in the study area(Figure-7). This is mainly due to the in migration of the workers in this region who have settled down here with their immediate families and also the ill effect of urbanization that promotes the establishment of nuclear families.

It is seen that the share of working population in 2011 in the tertiary sector has increased progressively while the share in agriculture is on a decline which implies that the region has steadily progressed towards urbanization (Census of India, 2011).

The distribution of the households according to their causes for settling in some of the selected parts of the study area indicates that employment generation played a major role in attracting the people into some parts of the region; those being in close proximity of the mining areas. Particularly in Asansol it is observed that most of the people have migrated there due to employment purposes.

3·3 Urbanization and Demographic Transformation

It is observed that over a span of two decades the demographic characteristics of ADPA has underwent a massive change. The proportion of the urban population has increased at a greater extent while the rural population have decreased over the years. It seems that the employment opportunities generated by the industries of this mining region have acted as a pull factor of migration. In most of the places an observable fact is that migration has taken place due to job opportunities provided by the region. However, this has led to growth of settlement to a greater extent as can be seen in the Landsat images of Durgapur Municipal Corporation and Asansol Municipal Corporation given below. A remarkable fact is that Asansol and Durgapur have emerged as major urban agglomerations in West Bengal. Asansol ranks second in West Bengal preceded by Kolkata in terms of urbanization.

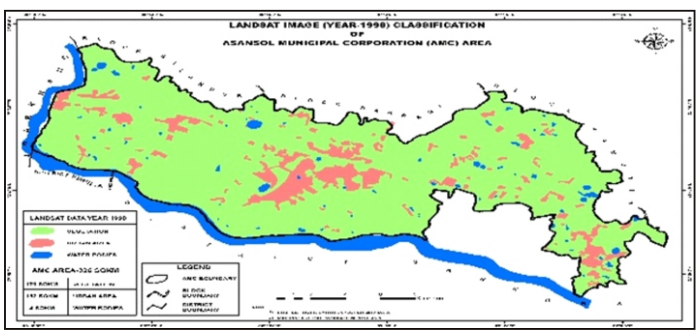

Figure-8 : Land use and Landcover Map of Asansol, 1998

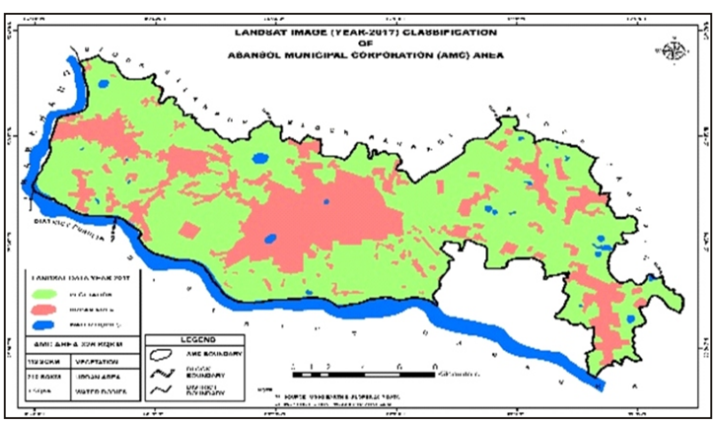

Figure-9 : Land Use and Land cover Map of Asansol, 2017

It is evident that over a span of only 20 years, the proportion of settlement in Asansol has increased tremendously. Figure-8 shows that in 1998 the proportion of vegetation in Asansol was quite high; however, figure-9 prominently shows the significant increase in built up areas in Asansol in the year 2017.

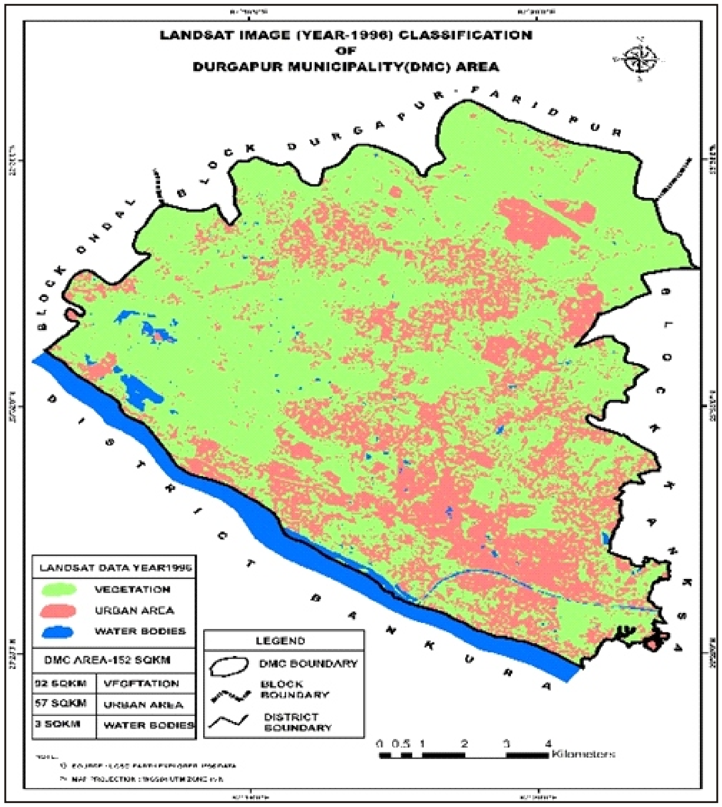

Figure-10 : Land-Use and Land Cover Map of Durgapur, 1996

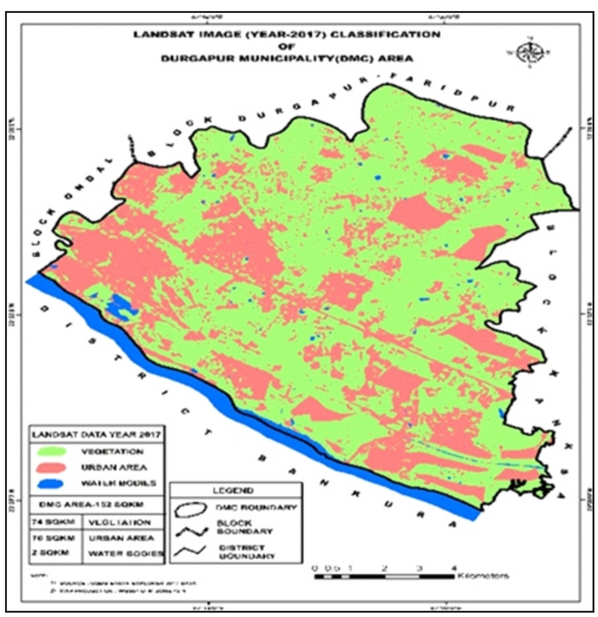

Figure-11 : Land-Use and Land Cover Map of Durgapur, 2017

In case of Durgapur also a large-scale urbanization of population has taken place mainly due to the in migration of the people as a result of the pull factor of migration offered by the industries that came up in area. It is evident from figure 11 that the proportion of built up area have increased in a massive scale in 2017 compared to 1996 (Figure-10).

3·4 Broad Guidelines towards Sustainable Management of ADPA

The process of urbanization in most of the parts of ADPA are still at a nascent period with exceptions of Asansol and Durgapur. Keeping in mind the present scenario the following few guidelines may be followed for sustainable management of the progress of urbanization in ADPA :

- A stringent as well as regular implementation of the existing legislative provisions with respect to urban planning and management in India should be done.
- Alternative roadway system encompassing by passes avoiding the city area, railway over bridges, underpasses and flyovers may be developed to mitigate the problem of excessive traffic congestion.
- Provision of four/six lane ring roads should be made around the major cities of ADDA on an intermediate basis.
- Terminals for large trucks and road transport carriers should be constructed outside the city areas. Movement of these vehicles within the core city should be banned specifically between 6 am - 10 pm.
- Provisions for construction of multi storey bus terminals should be made which will be beneficial for the solving the space crunch issue in the city core areas.
- Vertical growth of the city must be encouraged so that the problem of lack of space for settlement can be dealt with properly and also cutting of greeneries for urban development can be controlled.
- Introduction of metered cab will ensure a proper and swift transportation system.
- Sewerage treatment plant and Storm Water Management should be introduced which will help in keeping the urban area clean.
- Proper maintenance of green space requires to be done in order to maintain the quality of environment of the region.
- Housing projects should be done keeping in mind the provision of housing for LIGs, MIGs and HIGs as well.
- With the increase in vertical height the quality and the level of the groundwater must be maintained properly and strictly.
- A proper land-use planning has to be developed for a planned urban development.

4. Conclusions

It is observed that within a span of about 20 years there has been rapid growth of urban population in ADPA and in almost all the blocks and municipal corporations coming under ADDA the proportion of workers engaged in non-agricultural activities is on the higher side (ADDA, 2010). Between 1991 to 2011 the population densities in the areas under ADDA has made a massive increase which points to the fact that industrialization and increasing job opportunities have attracted the people in those areas as they lie in close proximity of the mining centers. It is also observed that in ADPA most of the migration has taken place due to increased employment opportunities. Over the last three decades the proportion of increase of urban population is very high compared to that of rural population. The increase of informal sector manufacturing, tertiary activities and development of real estate business has been observed which indicates that the population of the region will continue to grow as these activities attract people to settle here (Chatterjee, 2016). The increase in urban population has resulted in the creation of a new district Paschim Bardhhaman with Asansol as the district headquarter. However, the present study has suffered from certain limitations as most the data has been collected from secondary sources and very few persons have been consulted. This also suffers from lack of uniqueness and field survey which would otherwise have proved to be more beneficial for providing a better grip to the direction of the study.

5. Acknowledgement

We would like to forward our heartfelt gratitude towards the officials of ADDA office for providing us with the necessary data for preparing this paper. We extend our gratitude towards the various local people of ADDA who helped us in gathering a perception of the study area.

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11

Gender Empowerment in India : A Study of the Legal and Social Structure

*Zahid Hussain**

Women in Indian society, as elsewhere, have been accorded a lower position in relation to the men. The patriarchal society leaves scant space for women to play a worthwhile role in the public as well as private sphere. Thus women's marginalization or empowerment is the result of the structure of society. In India several Constitutional provisions have been incorporated like Article 14 which enjoins the state not deny to any person equality before law or the equal protection of laws within the territory of India and Article 15 that states that the State shall not discriminate against any citizen on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, and place of birth or any of them. But, in spite of the legal provisions, there is a wide gap between theory and practice. The women in India have generally failed to achieve the position of parity with men owing to the inequities in the social structure. This paper has brought the condition of women in 21st century India and implementation of various governmental policies. This paper also argues that although there is the need of constitutional and legal provisions in any project of women's empowerment, but any such project cannot achieve complete success unless the social structure undergoes a radical shift. The paper also highlights the status of women in the pre-modern and pre-medieval era, which, it appears, was better than the women in the modern period owing to the equitable or nearly-equitable social structure.

[**Keywords :** Gender empowerment, Legal structure, Social structure]

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I. Introduction

Inequality is a universal phenomenon. Inequality based on gender is also not spatially exclusive to some region or regions. It occurs everywhere with the difference of degrees. India also is not immune from this phenomenon. India is home to more than 586 million women striving for an equitable and worthwhile existence. While some of them succeed by rigorous determination, some get ahead by being born privileged, while many others remain underprivileged and marginalized. While, as already said, gender inequality is everywhere, in India the experiences are more severe and in relative terms the condition of women in India is harrowing. While the constitution of India guarantees securing all the citizens 'justice, social, economic and political' and 'equality of status and opportunity' (Basu, 1998 : 21), the condition of women in every sphere of life remains abysmal. The representation of women in public life that was insignificant at the time of independence has not made any significant dent since they have "not become a large minority" even after seven decades of independence. (Saxena, 1994 : 392). The representation of women in the state legislatures remains very low; the same is true about the national legislature. In other public spheres like bureaucracy also, the women continue to be under-represented.

There is no legal impediment in the way of women to achieve parity with men, and in fact there are many constitutional and legal provisions that expressly bar any discrimination. But the fact that women continue to be marginalized remains a constant question requiring an answer as to why India has not been able to achieve the ideals set out in the constitution. Gender inequality along with other inequalities continues to be a pronounced feature of Indian society. Thus the paper tries to answer certain questions like: a) Why, even after seven decades of independence, women continue to be marginalized? b) Is women's marginalization the result of inadequate policies and positive provisions of the law? and c) Has women's marginalization more to do with the social structure that is patriarchal in nature?

With these questions, the paper sets out some hypotheses: a) Women's marginalization is not due to the lack of legal and policy provisions but due the society that is structured along the patriarchal lines; b) The women have always been marginalized spatially as well as temporally, but in the ancient period of India, the women were not 'marginalized' to the extent that they performed roles that best suited them. The mandate of this paper is thus to show that the marginalization of women has more to it than mere policy and legal perspectives. The title of the study must therefore not be confusing; the paper analyses the policies and programmes and evaluates their working, but the results that we find point to the fact that although the sloppiness in the implementation of the women-specific policies and programmes have been partially responsible for their perpetual marginalization, the base or the undercurrent of this phenomenon has been structure of society that is structured in such a way that any programme and policy is doomed to be partially succeed.

This paper is structured in such a way as to give reader a complete picture of this phenomenon; the Introduction sets out to reader the questions that the paper is going to address and the hypotheses whose validity is going to be tested, in the next section Marginalization of Women, we conceptualize and try to understand what is gender inequality and why does it matter, the following section Women Specific Policies and Programmes in India looks into the legal provisions and government policies regarding women and inquires into their success or failure, the section next to it Women and the Structure of Indian Society, highlights the patriarchal structure of the Indian society which the paper argues is responsible for the abysmal condition of women in this modern era, and finally there is a conclusion that provides a holistic overview of the paper and the findings of the paper.

2. Marginalization of Women

Following the conventional way of doing theory, we'll explicate the concept of 'marginalization' by proceeding from simple to complex. Marginalization, according to Oxford Dictionary means 'Treatment of a person, group or concept as insignificant or peripheral.' (Oxford Dictionary online edition). Marginalization is a social process by which an individual or group of individuals, in our context women, are 'pushed to margins' - they are forced to stay in the fringes and are not allowed to be a part of the mainstream. They are actively prevented from reaching the structures where from the power flows, and are thus reduced to powerless beings. Through the process of socialization, they are made to accept that they are less important than men, and that their lives are not as important as the lives of men. Thus they are precluded from the very beginning from participating in the social and political processes by which a person achieves a complete integration with the society.

It is pertinent to go about with the discussion of the meaning of 'woman'. Seemingly a simple one, the word embodies a lot of complexity. The woman is not a biological formation; it is a social characterization for a certain sex. Simone de Beauvoir argues that the woman is a process of becoming rather than being, and as a way of analogy, she draws parallels between Hegel's conception of master-slave relationship and the relationship between man and woman. (Beauvoir, 1956 : 15-28). Beauvoir sees woman as the 'Other' in relation to man. The 'Other' has thus, gained significance and needs to be examined. Therefore, on the basis of her analysis the entire category called 'women' or the 'Other' is marginalized because of structural and systemic discrimination prevalent in the society (Nigam, 2014). Similar arguments have been put forward by Mary Wollstonecraft who argues that women are not definable merely with reference to their feminine qualities and that such conceptualization will "deprive us of souls and insinuate that we are beings only designed by sweet attractive grace, and docile blind obedience, to gratify the sense of man when he can no longer soar on the wing of contemplation" (Wollstonecraft, 2014/1792 : 46).

In the Indian context, Tarabhai Shinde argued that women everywhere are oppressed. She problematized the comparison between men and women. While comparing them, she pointed out that "faults commonly ascribed to women such as superstition, suspicion, treachery and insolence were found to ever more common in men" (Shinde, 1882). Thus it's in the society that the marginalization of women takes place, it has nothing to do with the masculinity or femininity.

Usually, the society is structured on the gender lines, which ensures the exclusion of women. Right since the birth, womanhood of a person born with female characteristics is thrust upon her and she is thought of as having no existence apart from the person or persons to which she happens to be related to. She is socialized to follow the decisions of others as she is not considered to be fit for making decisions of her own. The woman in the patriarchal society is "[d]enied her own ontology/autonomy, being and becoming, she is at best a shadow, an image of domestic doulus, a prisoner of the comfortable concentration camp, in other words of the 'house'" (Misra, 2006 : 868).

The foregoing paragraphs have clearly elucidated the position of women in the patriarchal society and have shown that women are subjected to severe but often intangible oppressions. Their existence is not apart from the relations they happen to be with. Women are excluded from the structures of power, and are thought of as not fit for making and taking of public decisions. Therefore they are relegated to the private sphere which is thought of as an arena where they can be at their best. Thus it is no surprise that women in India, a model patriarchal society, continue to be one of the worst represented lots. These arguments can be factually seen as well as corroborated in the manifold reports and documents, official as well as unofficial.

Thus the next section analyses the various policies and programmes regarding women in India. The impact of these policies and programmes on women in terms of making them better-off will also be assessed. The current position of women in India in social, political and economic terms will also be taken into consideration in order to derive certain well-meaning deductive conclusions.

3. Women Specific Policies and Programmes in India

After independence the constitution of India made a significant effort for establishing gender equality by incorporating Fundamental Rights, Directive Principles of State Policy, and Fundamental Duties. The Constitution also provides direction to the state to take affirmative action or positive discrimination in favour of women. The constitution of India also puts emphasis on "the needs of women to enable them to exercise their rights on equal footing with men and participate in national development" (Kitchlu, 1991 : 16). Planned development was the most innovative initiative to address various significant problems which also had a considerable impact on the status of women. From the First to Fifth five-year plan, attention had been given for the welfare of women. But from the fifth five year plan it took a shift from welfare approach to developmental approach and from the Eight five-year plan onwards government started to give importance to the empowerment of women, thus taking a shift from developmental approach to empowerment approach.

However, there was a continuous pressure on the government of India for the formulation of a national policy for women since late 1970s. Under international pressure government, for the first time the Committee on the Status of Women was formed "to examine the status of women in India in preparation for the International Women's Conference in Mexico in 1975" (Haider, 1997 : 38). Consequently in 1974, a report was submitted to Prof. Nur-ul-Hassan (the then Education Minister) titled Towards Equality that highlighted the appalling conditions of women in all spheres of life and the findings of the Report "remain grim reminders of the need to change the realities of women's lives in India. . ." (Butalia, 2013).

The Government of India formulated the National Perspective Plan for Women 1988-2000 that contained a huge amount of recommendations and suggestions for the government of India. However, the recommendations have never been put to practice, and have "remained mostly pious hopes on paper" (Haider, 1997 : 38).

In 1996 the National Policy for the Empowerment of Women was launched by the Government for "creating a conducive socio-cultural, economic and political environment to enable women enjoy de jure and de facto fundamental rights and realise their full potential." Although the intent and purpose of the Plan was noble but the vagueness of the proposals lead the plan into unworkable document. The plan mistakenly painted the 'women's question' as being concerned with women only and failed to understand, as Haider (1997) has demonstrated that any policy that isolates women from men is doomed to be a failure. Haider further interestingly argues that "[m]en are invisibalised in it from womanly affairs as women were invisibalised by men from their's. It seems as if the goal is to replace patriarchy by matriarchy?" (Haider, 1997).

Similar was the case in 2001 when again a National Policy for Women was crafted followed by another one in 2016 (Re-scripting Women Empowerment). This is nothing but a replication of earlier 2001 National Policy for Women except two additional policies such as logistical, concerned with monitoring evaluation and audit systems and welfare-based, dealing with development and empowerment of women belonging to vulnerable and marginalized groups There is a big gap between developmental policies and ongoing situation of women. In

21st century, theoretically women have right to freedom, freedom of speech, freedom of religion, freedom from fear, freedom from enslavement but practically none of these rights are enjoyed by them as highlighted in various reports on the status of women.

4. Impact of the Policies and Programmes

Now speaking about the impact of these policies and programmes, India ranks 125 out of 187 countries on the Gender Inequality Index, according to the United Nations Human Development Report 2015. As per the report, only 35.3 % of women get it to the secondary level of education compared to the 61.4 % of men. In the US, 95.4 % of women were educated to the secondary level as compared to 95.1 % men. The report also revealed country's labor force participation, which showed only 26.8 % women are part of the labor force as compared to 79.1 % men. Moreover, the share in the seats at Parliament stands at a mere 12.2 %. The report further says that the high male sex ratio at birth reflects women's status in society as our society is still based on patriarchal structure. (HDR, 2015).

There is no doubt that India is one of the rapidly growing economies in the world where educated and well-dressed women walking on the roads are a regular sight. But the survey of world's 20 biggest economies by Trust Law, a legal news service run by Thomson Reuters ranked India as the worst country to be a woman last year. It is worst than Saudi Arabia. The survey polled 370 gender specialists and found Canada to be the best place amongst G 20 nations and Saudi Arabia second worst after India topping the list. The report says that "the threats in India are manifold - from female foeticide, child marriage, dowry, and honour killings to discrimination in health and education and crimes such as rape, domestic violence and human trafficking" (Bhalla, 2012). The report further says that there is a deep-rooted mind-set that women are inferior and must be kept inside and away from decision making. It also highlights the tendency of dangerous acceptance of discrimination and violence against women in the society.

The problem is not confined to the roads and streets of the nation, where women are mostly seen unsafe. But, actually it's inside the patriarchal society or gender socialization process where the mind-set is born and shaped which makes women vulnerable in any situation and anywhere- at home, work, roads, buses, malls, fields, anywhere. Up to 50 Million girls are thought to be missing over the past century due to female infanticide and foeticide, according to UN Population fund. Fight for survival for a woman starts right from when she is in the womb. Parents preference for sons has left the country with 914 girls aged six and under per 1,000 boys according to 2011 census, down from 927 in 2001.

So if there are manifold programmes and policies in place for the betterment of women, why does it not translate into the reality? In other words, why in 21st century women in India are still lagging behind in every field of life? We explicate, in the section following, some of the underlying causes of this failure. The basic evil is seen in the structure of the society itself which is modelled along patriarchal lines. With this we move to the other section.

5. Women and the Structure of Indian Society

To codify the structure of a society is no easy task, and in the case of the country like India with humongous vastness and diversity the task becomes nearly impossible. However, for the sake of getting some insights one can delineate the underlying structure of the society that is nearly universal with certain possible deviations. 'Structure' is defined in social sciences as a pattern of regular interactions between individuals. Thus, the structure of Indian society can be delineated for our purposes if we analyze the relationship between the two sexes spatially as well as temporally.

The society in India is patriarchal and patrilocal. Patriarchy according to Merriam Webster Dictionary means, "the social organization marked by the supremacy of the father in the clan or family, the legal dependence of wives and children, and the reckoning of descent and inheritance in the male line. . ." (Merriam Webster online edition). In India the status of women has seen several shifts over the period of time. On the authority of several scholars, we can assert that in the ancient Vedic period women enjoyed several rights and were treated with respect. Gorwaney has observed that "ideally women were accepted as a living force in society, the embodiment of 'Shakti' and a symbol of purity religiousness, spirituality and sacrifice" (Gorwaney, 1999 : 2). Similar arguments have been put forth by Cornack when she says that "[t]raditional India has always accorded women a high place and indeed equality" (Cornack, 1962 : 104).

In the period of the arrival of the Aryans, roughly 2000 to 700 BC, the women enjoyed fair equality with the men. Although the patriarchal family was there in that the men folk dominated, the women cannot be said to be marginalized. The Aryans were nomadic and the mode of production was hunting and gathering. The division of labour was also based upon the physical basis. Men were best suited to going outside for hunting and the women took charge of the domestic chores. There was enough autonomy for the women to have their way in the sphere that suited them best according to the physical standards. (Tharakan and Tharakan, 1975 : 117). In the early Vedic Age the position of women was not bad either. The performance of religious rites and rituals was not the privilege of men only. There was fair equality in the marriage and the marriage was seen as best where the couple married out of their own will. The marriage also conferred the joint ownership of household on the husband and wife. (Altekar, 1956 : 338). Of the authors of Rig Veda at least twenty have been women which points to a speculation that the educational achievements must have been free and equal, and the society must have been open enough for women to achieve any scholastic zenith (Altekar, 1956 : 10).

The status of women began to take a downward turn in the period when the settled practice of agriculture began to take shape around 1000 B.C. The causes of the decline and the reasons for this trend is beyond the scope of this paper and may be found in the numerous historical researches. During the period in which the Smritis were written, one can see the general degradation in the status and position of women. Tharakan (1975) writes that the "polygamic tendencies of the Aryan male who started bringing into the household dasyu female slaves, concubines or sometimes even as wives caused decline in the status of Aryan women even in the household where she once reigned supreme." The women thus lost the freedom that characterized the period of the early Vedic Age.

In the medieval period the status of women further went into morass with the advent of feudalism and monarchy. The patriarchy got systematically embedded in the society and it became a normal phenomenon for women to be confined to homes and be regarded as a weaker sex. In the modern period the status of women spiralled further downwards with the advent of capitalism. The structures of power were monopolized by men taking advantage of the fact that they had taken a dominant position in the past.

The women in the hunting gathering period had taken charge of home due to the physical considerations, but now as the public power structures did not need any physical strength, the women were systematically kept out of the jobs that did not require any such special physical strength. Thus, in comparison to the hunting gathering Aryan and early Vedic period, the women now were marginalized. The society was thus fashioned and tailored that best fulfilled the interests of men. This is not to say that it happened at a particular day or period, any such conclusion will be ridiculous to say the least. The structure of society takes a long time to evolve, and the current structure in which men have not merely an upper-hand but an outright monopoly also has taken its shape from the ancient times. As seen in the preceding section, the condition of women in the modern India is at its lowest ebb. Thus, we now move to concluding section of this paper in which the gist of the findings of the paper would be briefly provided.

6. Conclusion

As established in the paper, the gender disparity and inequality is mainly because of the social structure and the stratification based upon gender roles and different values attached to these roles. Almost always, the roles assigned to women in the society carry inferior value than those assigned to men. Women in the 21st century India lag behind men in each and every sphere. The public sphere has generally been monopolized by men, and in the private sphere also the men rule the roost. In every indicator of empowerment like education, employment, exposure to media, decision-making, freedom of movement etc., women stand behind the men folk. With the independence of India from Britain, myriad policies and programmes were made and statutes and laws formulated for the betterment of women. The Constitution of India since 1950 has made equality in all spheres a fundamental right. The government of India has taken steps under Article 45 to make education compulsory for all children between 6-14 years of age.

However, these government policies and the constitutional provisions have not been able to mend the increasing gender gap. For example, the literacy rate has substantially increased to 74.04% in 2011, but the disparity among the genders remains quite distinctive with male literacy at 82.14% and female literacy at 65.46%. Similarly, the infant mortality rate (IMR) for males is lower than the females. IMR for men stands at 57 while for females it is 64. To be sure the policies were not flawless, but the main reason of their failure was the structure of the society that provides a base for the legal and political superstructure. The social relations were patriarchal and thus in the male dominated public sphere there are bleak chances of any workable policies. Thus, although we have had many powerful women in the public sphere, the participation of women in the public sphere has been insignificant.

The paper has thus established that any policy and programme is doomed to be a partial success unless the structure of the society makes any positive dent in favour of women. But we also have come to the conclusion that the social structure would not make any positive dent unless the state takes some drastic steps to make this happen. State intervention apart, at the individual level, the citizenry has to realize that the nation cannot progress if we keep half of the population in the goal (read home). Thus, individual effort at personal level along with collective effort at the state level is surely going to herald a gender equal and progressive India.

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12

The Scheduled Castes in India : Post-Independence Scenario

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The Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) are officially designated groups of historically disadvantaged people in India. The terms are recognized in the Constitution of India and the groups are designated in one or other of the categories. They are among the most disadvantaged socio-economic groups in India. The Government of India has enacted progressive legislation, programmes and schemes for the development and empowerment of the SCs and STs. The present paper is an attempt to analyze post- independence scenario of SCs in India. It has been concluded that the impact of change among SCs is more striking after independence as they have been comparatively immobile before independence. Protective discrimination, reform movements, sanskritization and westernization have yielded much dividends for SCs.

[**Keywords :** Scheduled Castes, Change, Inter-caste relations, caste hierarchy]

1. Introduction

The term 'Scheduled Castes' is primarily an administrative category, used in the Constitution of India. They are the castes identified by the President of India, under Article 431, and put under a Schedule. The term was used for the first time by the British government in the Government of India Act, 1935. Before this, some of these classes were labelled as 'depressed classes' - the term was used for the first time in the beginning of last century. Sociologically speaking, these castes suffered

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the stigma of untouchability and were considered ati-shudras or avarna, i.e., beyond the pale of the Hindu caste-structure. However, all ex-untouchables do not find place in the 'Schedule' and all castes under the Schedule did not experience an equal degree of 'untouchability' in the near or distant past.

Some social reformers such as Vivekananda, Dayanand, Gandhi and others rejected the caste system based on birth. They considered untouchability a blot on humanity. It was a stigma on Hinduism. Untouchability arose out of aberration of the varna dharma, they said. They pleaded for reforming Hinduism. B. R. Ambedkar was one of the leading proponents of reforms among SCs and eradication of untouchability so that they can live with dignity. After independence, number of measures have been undertaken for the upliftment of SCs.

2. The Problem and Objectives of the Study

Many SCs pursue traditional caste occupations along with agriculture or independently. They are leather workers, weavers, fisherfolk, scavengers, basket makers, etc. A few of them, particularly leather workers, have improved their economic condition by improving and marketing their products. Chamars in Agra is a case in point. However, this has not changed their social status. They still suffer from the stigma of being ex-untouchables. Studies on scavengers show that their condition have not improved much and their occupation continues to be looked down upon s polluted.

In urban areas, SCs are engaged in organized and unorganized industrial sectors, are petty shopkeepers, small entrepreneurs, scavengers, and are in white-collar occupations mainly in the public sector. Though there are a number of studies on problems of the workers in organized and unorganized sectors, scavengers etc., most of them do not focus on SCs as a broader social category. The Scheduled Caste white-collar employees, irrespective of their position in the administrative hierarchy, suffer from remnants of untouchability and are some-times humiliated by their colleagues. After independence, not only has the number of SCs white-collar employees increased, but at the same time the attitude of caste Hindus towards SCs has become stiffer, which has manifested itself in anti-reservation agitations. The present study is a humble attempt to investigate social change among the SCs after independence in urban setting.

The objectives of the present study are posited as under :

1. To find out the extent of increase in education and employment among the Scheduled Castes after independence;
2. To analyze the change in their inter-caste relations;
3. To find out the working conditions of the educated and employed among Scheduled Castes and compare them with those still illiterate and unemployed; and

4. To find out the changes among the Scheduled Castes after independence with particular reference to their life styles, family life, occupation and caste hierarchy, i.e. the institutional and structural changes.

3. Conceptual Framework

'Status' and 'Social Change' are considered to be the most important sociological concepts in relation to the focus of this present study. These two concepts are not mutually exclusive but interdependent. Hence, a brief explanation of these concepts is presented here :

1. **Status :** The term 'Status' was used in a different sense till 1920. It was used to refer to some of the capacities, which could be legally enforced, and also to the limitations of people or their relative superiority and inferiority. But since 1936, the term has been undergoing radial changes. It has now come to be a synonym for any 'position in the social system'. The state has now intervened to help women in their development process. It counteracts the traditional system of social stratification. Status, which is generally based on birth, therefore loses its importance, significance and power, and the way for achieved status that is achieved by one's own efforts, is cleared.
2. **Social Change :** The most important and relevant concept with which we are concerned while examining the status of Scheduled Castes is 'Social Change'. Our hypothesis is that the status of Scheduled Castes has changed today when compared to that of the past and this is being tested in the present generation. Social Change is quite often considered to be different from cultural change because generally social change means change in the structure and social relationships in the society. Cultural change is said to mean change in the cultural values, beliefs, customs, traditions and norms. In the present study, both social and cultural change are important and are included in the term Social Change.

4. Coverage of the Study

The locale of the present study is Meerut in the Meerut district of Uttar Pradesh. Meerut district is one of the most important district in north-west region of Uttar Pradesh. The universe of the study is the Scheduled Castes of Meerut. Being a prosperous modern city and having good proportion of Scheduled Castes, Meerut has a potential for such a study of social change among the Scheduled Castes. There are four Mohallas, viz. Subhash Nagar, Purva Shekhlal, Bhagwatpura and Lakshmanpuri in Meerut where more than 60 per cent Scheduled Castes are resident. 40 per cent of them are government servants, 30 per cent technical/businessman and 30 per cent labour class. A sample of 250 Scheduled Castes respondents has been selected from these mohallas by random sampling. The unit of study is these 250 selected respondents.

Major characteristics of the sample are as follows :

1. The sample consists of seven SCs, Chamars and Jatavs constituting more than half (56.0 per cent). These are the two castes among SCs who are predominant in Meerut.
2. The sample consists of respondents of all age groups-young (22.0 per cent), middle aged between 21 to 45 years (41.2 per cent) and between 46 to 60 (29.2 per cent). The aged or senior citizens constitute remaining 7.6 per cent.
3. Sex-wise, a little less than two-third sampled respondents (63.2 per cent) are males, whereas, the remaining are females (36.8 per cent).
4. As regards the educational level of sampled respondents, an overwhelming majority of them are educated (86.8 per cent) though at various levels. Nearly one-third (32.2 per cent) are graduates or post-graduates.
5. The sample consists of respondents of all the types of material status. Married represent a little less than three-fourth (72.8 per cent) and nearly one-fifth unmarried (21.6 per cent). There are 11 divorces and 3 widows/widowers.
6. There are more respondents from nuclear families (59.2 per cent) as compared to joint families (40.8 per cent).
7. As regards nativity, more than three-fourth of the respondents (48.4 per cent) are local residents of Meerut, whereas, the remaining have come from other places (16.0 per cent) for work.
8. As regards the family income, again two-third of the sampled respondents (65.2 per cent) come from lower income families.

5. Tools, Data Collection and Data Processing

The primary data about the selected respondents have been collected through pre-coded and structured interview schedules in 2005. Besides this, the techniques of informal interview and non-participant observation are also made use of. The secondary data about the position of SCs before and after independence are collected through secondary sources. The data collected through interview schedules have been processed through computer, whereas, the secondary data have been handled manually.

6. Major Findings

Change is law of nature as everything changes over a period of time. When the concept of change is extended to social sphere, it is called ‘social change‘. Social change is a word used to describe variations in or modifications of any aspect of social processes, social patterns, social interactions or social organization. In its most concrete sense social change means that large number of persons are engaging in activities that differ from those which they (or their immediate forefathers) engaged in some time before.

Social change not only varies from one society to another, it also varies within different groups and communities in the same society. For example, tribal communities experience less change in comparison to rural communities, which in turn, changes at a slow speed as compared to urban communities. Similarly, the down-trodden section of society experience lesser degree of change than the affluent ones. The same has been the case with regards to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India. They have been the suffers of many disabilities either due to untouchability or inaccessible habitation or lack of contact with outside world and consequently have been deprived of all the benefits of technological advancements or other changes. The situation remained almost unchanged for a long time. It was only during the British rule that they started experiencing change due to outside contact. However, the change among SCs and STs was very superficial and their socio-economic position did not improve significantly.

However, how far the protective discrimination in the form of reservation of seats in elected bodies to enhance the political status of SCs and STs, reservation of seats in government jobs to uplift the economic status of SCs and STs, reservation in educational institutions to improve the educational status of SCs and STs and in abolition of untouchability to bring them at par with other sections of Indian society has delivered the desired results ? This is a question which is still being debated not only among social scientists but also the policy-makers, the politicians and all those vigilant groups and authorities interested in the upliftment of SCs and STs in India. An attempt has been made in this study to present empirical evidence in respect of social change in different aspects of selected SCs. This has been done under the following heads keeping in view the objectives of the study.

7. Vision of the Founding Fathers

A number of commentaries on the Indian Constitution by legal luminaries are available. Political scientists offer institutional analysis of the Constitution dealing with federalism, executive, judiciary etc. But critical analysis of the Constitution focussing on socio-politico ideological underpinning of the founding fathers is, by and large, absent. Austin's study (1972) is, however, an exception. But his treatment of Protective Discrimination is peripheral. According to him,. the Indian Constitution has not been Gandhian or socialist, but it has accommodated various views and perspectives. Following the principle of accommodation and decision-making by consensus, the Indian Constitution aims at bringing 'social revolution'. Provisions of Protective Discrimination are part of the agenda for social revolution. However, Austin does not elaborate how the Indian revolutionary path would fulfil the basic needs of the common man. He harps on the hope that 'this revolution would bring about fundamental changes in the structure of Indian society-a society with a long and glorious cultural tradition, bu greatly in need, Assembly members, believed, of a powerful infusion of energy, and rationalism.' Such expressions are wishful thinking and sentiments rather than critical analysis.

Dr. Ambedkar argued that/equality of opportunity 'is a generic principle. At the same time,' we had to reconcile this formula with the demand made by certain communities that the administration which has now for historical reasons been controlled by one community or a few communities, that situation should disappear and that the others also must have an opportunity of getting into the public services.' He charged, 'the administration was unsympathetic to the Scheduled Castes because it was manned wholly, by Caste Hindu officers who were partial to the caste Hindus' and 'who practised tyranny and oppression' on the Harijans. In Ambedkar's view, the best way to remedy this situation was for the Harijans to become members of the various governments in India and thereby to ensure that Harijans also became members of the civil services (Austin, 1972).

8. Objectives and Strategies : Constructional Provisions

A secular and egalitarian social order are two major objectives that India has set before itself to achieve. In the Preamble to the Indian Constitution, the people of India solemnly resolve to secure to all it citizens : *Justice* (social, economic and political), *Liberty* (of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship), *Equality* (of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all) and *Fraternity* (assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity and integrity of the Nation).

In order to attain the above objectives, the Constitution has made certain provisions to remove the discrimination that the SCs traditionally suffer from. The Constitution has made a number of provisions under various Articles to categorize the practice of untouchability, the stigma from which the SCs suffer from, as an offence. Article 15(2) of the Constitution states-

No citizen shall, on grounds only of religion, race, caste, place of birth or any. of them, be subject to any disability, liability, restriction or condition will regard to a) Access to shops, public restaurants, hotels and places of public entertainments, or b) The use of wells, tanks, bathing ghats, roads and places of public resort maintained wholly or partly out of State funds or dedicated to the use of the general public.

Further, Article 29 (2) forbids persons in charge of "any educational institution receiving aid out of State funds" to deny admission to an applicant "on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them". Article 17 deals specifically with the issue of untouchability as an offence. It declares that 'Untouchability' is abolished and its practice in any form is forbidden. The enforcement of any disability arising out of 'untouchability' shall be an offence punishable in accordance with law.

9. Studies depicting the Position of SCs after Independence

Many studies have been undertaken to find out the change among SCs after independence. The fact has been brought that the impact of change is more striking among the SCs as they had been comparatively immobile in the past. Changes in status which may appear limited in absolute terms acquire different significance when viewed against the background of traditional society. But the winds of change do not always run in the same direction and sometimes they may even run counter to one another.

The changes came along three avenues. The first avenue was provided by the reform movements which took place among some scheduled castes at various periods of time. The second was provided by the process through which a caste or a group of people move up in the social hierarchy by adopting the style of life associated by tradition with the upper castes. The third avenue was inspired by the process of westernization, which refers to the adoption by a community of western patterns in dress, manners and customs. It brings in its wake new norms and values and new symbols of prestige. We have literature on all three kinds of change though the data is uneven and differs in depth and coverage. Although the three processes have been dealt with in this section separately, they may be seen at work simultaneously in some communities.

Bateille (1967) finds that the sanskritization affects the culture of castes in the lower and middle regions of the hierarchy. Many of the scheduled caste people are now adopting caste Hindus names and affecting a change in their occupation, diet and social practices. Occupations considered degrading in the Sanskritic scale of values such as distilling liquor or oil pressing or tanning are often given up and there is a tendency even to deny any past association with them. Forbidden items of food such as beef and beverages like alcohol are often given up. There is an attempt to abandon widow re-marriage and to replace bride price by dowry. Among some sections of scheduled castes, Arya Samaj has a special appeal in sanskritizing their styles of life. The scheduled caste as also others are adopting models which the traditional elite have now left behind.

Sharma (1994) has observed that the change in the emphasis on the studies from caste to class, or from hierarchy to stratification, or from closed to open stratification or change in the application of the methods of study from indological to empirical and now experimental are no doubt indicators of the realization of the need for studying what is more relevant than what was in the past.

10. Concluding Remarks

In sum, it may be concluded that the impact of change among SCs is more striking after independence as they have been comparatively immobile before independence. Protective discrimination, reform movements, sanskritization and westernization have yielded much dividends for SCs. No one can deny the fact that educational and employment status of SCs has gone up after independence. The untouchability along with the disabilities associated with it, has been eradicated resulting in increased inter-caste changes. The empirical data collected for the present study have shown significant changes in education and occupation over a period of one generation. Change in inter-caste relations is clearly evident and this change is more among educated and employed persons. Life style and standards of family life have also undergone drastic changes. Change in status of SCs may appear limited in absolute terms, but they acquire different significance when viewed against the background of traditional Indian society. Social gap between SCs and non-SCs is definitely decreasing in urban areas. Government policies have provided new avenues of employment, self-employment, freedom and better economic conditions. These get reflected and demonstrated in patterns of living, housing, social celebrations etc. They have been able to get power positions in elected bodies and their participation in politics has increased. Some of the SCs have even revived their traditional caste panchayats.

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13

Women Entrepreneurship in India : Challenges and Prospects

*Anshu Singh**

This paper aims to throw light on the status of women entrepreneurs in India, the difficulties and challenges faced by them and also provides insight into the suggestions to overcome these hurdles. Women's lot and their position have remained neglected. Their share in entrepreneurs and trade is very low. Women entrepreneurs, not common to India face tough competition in this male dominated field. Women entrepreneurship is essentially a journey out of poverty and towards equality. Educated women do not want to limit their lives only to the household drudgeries. By their contribution they want to improve the standard of living of their families and to be the decision makers. However Indian women have to go a long way to achieve this position because traditions are deep rooted in Indian society. Entrepreneurship is a key element of growth and development prospects for all countries and it is most important for transition countries. The specific role of women in the economic effort has not been clearly defined but the need for "integration of women into development" is being particularly felt by women themselves. With the increase in the number of educated women, there is considerable awareness among women to be self employed and gradually the role of women is changing in the society. In this direction government and NGOs have emerged as a major support by way of providing training incentives and other facilities to succeed.

[**Keywords :** Economic development, Women Entrepreneurship, Social Progress, NGOs]

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1. Introduction

Entrepreneurs collect resources, including innovations, finance and business acumen in an effort to transform innovations into economic goods. Women entrepreneurship is the function of establishing women enterprises by the women entrepreneurs. In the last two decades increasing number of Indian women have entered the field of entrepreneurship and also they are gradually changing the face of business of today. In this dynamic world, women entrepreneurs are an important part of the global sustained economic development and social progress. With the development of education among women it gave rise to the women employment. The United Nations report has also concluded that Economic development is closely related to the advancement of women.

2. Objectives of study

1. To analyze basic causes promoting women entrepreneurship.
2. To identify various problems and challenges facing women entrepreneurs.
3. To suggest remedial measures to overcome the problems and to motivate potential women and to guide them into becoming successful entrepreneurs.

3. Methodology

The method of study is mainly based on secondary data which is gathered from published sources like journals, text-books, magazines, newspapers, government documents, web sites. Some data has also been collected from the female students and housewives interviews. It is just about the common areas of concerns in both the groups. From the view points of marital status and profession, various factors were analyzed. On the basis of marital status, major differences of opinion have been found regarding need for money and other factors, between these two groups of people. However on problems and obstacles, no significant differences were found.

4. Genesis of Entrepreneurship

Inspite of the fact that women contribute fifty percent of the total population of the world, women do not own even one percent of the world's property. The origin of the word entrepreneurship is from a French word "Entrepreneurship" where it was born and originally meant to describe an organizer of certain musical or other entertainments. The Oxford English dictionary (of 1897) defines the word "Entrepreneur" in a similar way as the Director or a Manager of a public musical institution, one who arranges the entertainment, especially musical performance. Initially in the early 16th century, it was applied to those who were engaged in military expeditions. In 17th century it was extended to cover civil engineering activities such as construction and fortification.

A women entrepreneur is a person who is an enterprising individual, who is always on a look out for opportunities, having foresight, commercial talent, with extreme consistency and above all willing to take risks in new fields. A woman entrepreneur is one who creates, owns business activity and does employment generation in women. This enhances their economic strength and improves their social status also. Entrepreneurship is in reality an attitude to create something new and an activity which creates values in the entire social-eco system.

In large and medium sectors, women with educational and professional qualifications take the initiative and manage the business as well as their male counterparts. A qualified woman entrepreneur with basic managerial training and educational qualifications sometimes with an MBA degree usually may head the medium sector and large units. These professionally qualified women are in a better position and have a competitive edge over others to set up and manage the units.

Those women entrepreneurs who are uneducated and have no professional managerial skills but have developed certain skills take to small scale industries. They indulge in such activities with which they are familiar and can skillfully manage them for example weaving, garment stitching, papads and pickles, spices, handicraft, pottery designing, candle making, knitting etc.

Some women entrepreneurs run service motivated organizations to help economically backward societies. They require Government support in marketing as well as getting finances at a concessional rate for their products.

Women in India always remained a victim of neglect and discrimination and were always prohibited to perform their due role in the economic or social life of the society. In order to remove this injustice meted out to women in the past, the architects of our constitution took special care to guarantee equality of rights and opportunities for women in political and social fields and to specifically prohibit any discrimination particularly in matters of employment, wages and human conditions of work.

5. Concept of Women Entrepreneurship

The ILO defined the women's enterprise as a small unit where one or more women entrepreneurs are playing a vital role in business community. Although in India women have made a comparatively late entry into commercial activities mainly due to orthodox and traditional socio-cultural environment. In developed countries we find that the percentage of women participation in business and trade including agriculture is much higher without any social or other restrictions. In India there are still many social and cultural restrictions on women. Hence women participation in entrepreneurial activities is less than the requirement of the fast growth of India. Although there are multiple obstructions women face in establishing, developing and running their enterprises at different stages, nevertheless, their scope of development is very high in India, especially in rural areas with more women making development oriented progrrmme viz DWACRA which was launched in 1982-83.

Women are getting highly educated day by day and have mentally attained excellence. With decreased opportunities in service sector many entrepreneurial opportunities for women have come up in the last two decades, increasing numbers of Indian women have entered the field of entrepreneurship and also they are gradually changing the face of business today both qualitatively and figuratively. As they are hard working and sincere they are progressing fast but still they need to capitalize their potential the way it should be.

6. Economic Status of Women

Women have an important role to play in synthesizing social progress with economic growth of developing countries. In order to make themselves economically empowered women will have to come out of the drudgery of housework and give vent to their creativity and entrepreneurship. Political developments in India have also been responsible for determining the role of women in a changing society. There are various forums and NGOs that are working hard in order to improve the economic status of women. The Indian economy has been substantially liberalized in recent years with an increasing role for small scale private enterprise. With the increase in the number of women getting educated there is considerable awareness among women to be self-employed and gradually the role of women is changing in the society.

Women entrepreneur is a fairly new phenomenon, but women have been contributing to production process since time immemorial by working in cottage industries. Unfortunately all their economic efforts remain unacknowledged and unaccounted. Empowering women has become the key element in the development of any economy. The conventional social roles assigned to women often proved to be a handicap for their free mobility and freedom to work. It is thus evident that women entrepreneurs have to confront more challenges from their culture, family and society than their male counterparts.

Women's participation in trade, industry and commerce requiring entrepreneurship is still poor mainly because of the problems associated with their gender roles. Therefore promotion of entrepreneurship and economic empowerment of women pose a challenge to the government, funding agencies and non government organizations. Our society must also consider the limitations faced by women and provide supporting systems to enhance women entrepreneurship in India.

India is one of the fastest emerging economies and the importance of entrepreneurship is realized across the gamut. Around 50 percent of India's population is women, yet trade, commerce and industry are still considered a male preserve. Entrepreneurial work has also been predominantly a man's world in India. It is because only 7 percent of the total entrepreneurs in India are women. Among the states, Maharashtra, Gujarat and Karnataka have more women entrepreneurs.

7. Organizational Support and Rise in Women Entrepreneurship

The emergence of women entrepreneurship and their contribution to the national economy is quite visible in India. Women entrepreneurship has been recognized during the last decade as an important untapped source of economic growth. Besides governmental aid and support various associations and group of people also promote women entrepreneurship. Around the country many organizations help undertake wide categories of activities encompassing business skills development, technical technological training, employment creation, credit, psychological counseling, marketing skills and services, legal help and various social welfare programmes. These organizations went further in promoting international trade for women entrepreneurs.

According to statistics women in India 2010, percentage of female workers total population is 16.65 percent in rural areas and 9.42 in urban areas. This shows an overall less contribution of women in work but more percentage of women workers in rural areas. Entrepreneurship development among rural women helps to enhance their personal capabilities and increase decision making capacity in the family and society as a whole. They were encouraged to begin individual and collective income generation programme with formation of Self Help Groups. This will not only make them financially independent but also enhance their confidence, decision making capability and create their separate identity. All these will result in their overall empowerment.

8. Challenges and Problems

Every work and profession has its own challenges, difficulties, hurdles and competition. Women entrepreneurs have various problems of their own kind. Amongst many obstacles some are the ones which are beyond women entrepreneurs' control. Indian women face some typical social problems as compared to their western competitors. These problems generally create hindrances for these women entrepreneurs from realizing their potential as entrepreneurs. The areas where women entrepreneurs face problems are broadly economic, social aspects, family support, gender discrimination, skill problems etc. these and many more factors have restricted the growth and expansion of women entrepreneurship. The important hurdles encountered by women entrepreneurs are as under :

1. The greatest barrier for women entrepreneur is their being a woman. A male dominant social order is the biggest block in their way towards business

success. The male family members find it risky in financing their business ventures.

2. Women entrepreneurs especially face problems in starting their business from financial institutions, due to lack of knowledge, information and mobility. Generally women do not have properties in their name to use as securities against bank loans.
3. Women entrepreneur face tough competition from the male entrepreneurs in the marketing of their products. As a result a large number of women abandon the idea of running an independent business.
4. A lot of procedural paper work and contact with the administrative authorities take place before and after setting up business. Due to little knowledge, these matters frighten up women entrepreneurs. In the absence of a proper escort and proper continuous guidance and support in all the above matters women give up the idea of being entrepreneurs.
5. Some internal factors like risk avoidance by women, lack of self confidence, far sightedness, will power, strong mental set and optimistic attitude also create obstacles for the women entrepreneurship development.
6. In India women's family obligations also bar them from becoming successful entrepreneurs in both developed and developing nations. Their involvement in family leaves them with little energy and time for anything else. Married women entrepreneurs have to make a wonderful balance between business and home. Their business success also depends on the support provided by their family members.
7. The conservative and outdated social outlook to stop women from entering in the field of entrepreneurship is one of the main reasons for their failure. From birth they are taught to depend and work with the consent of the male members of their family. She is not allowed to take independent decisions how so ever capable she may be.
8. Women entrepreneurs are not always update regarding technological developments, training progarmmes, Bank financial schemes, alternative markets etc. Very few women entrepreneurs avail advantages of above mentioned facilities.
9. Unfortunately women entrepreneurs do not have interaction with successful entrepreneurs who always play the role model in the society. This is one of the major problems in the growth and development of women entrepreneurship.
10. Besides the above mentioned problems, improper infrastructure, frequent power cuts, lack of technical expertise and various other economic and social constraints have retarded the growth of women entrepreneurship.

9. Suggestive Remedial Measures for the Growth and Development of Women Entrepreneurship

Woman is an entity in her own right. Women entrepreneurs today have their own opinion, are self-assured and able to withstand all risks and are efficient Managers. More and more women should be made aware through various programmes of their capacities as entrepreneurs and their contribution towards the economic growth and development of the country.

1. In order to help and develop women as successful entrepreneurs radical changes are required in the traditional attitude of the society. In this direction some campaign programs should be designed by the Government and the NGOs that will address attitudinal changes, training, supportive services etc.
2. Parents should take care of the education of the girl child from the early ages only and they should be given vocational education in order to develop their skilled potentials. Provisions should be made for their training, practical experience and overall personality development. This will result in their self confidence.
3. At Government level attempts should be made to set up a women entrepreneur guidance cell which will guide them from time to time to handle the various problems faced by the woman entrepreneur.
4. Adopting a well designed skill development programme can train, motivate and assist the upcoming women entrepreneurs. Various schemes like World Bank sponsored programmes, Indian Government's "Stand Up India" scheme for women entrepreneurs to provide loan from Rs Ten Lacs up to One Crore can be undertaken for such purpose.
5. Women entrepreneurs should be provided soft loans and subsidies by the Banks and Government respectively. Infrastructural assistance in the form of Industrial plots and machinery to set up industries should be provided by the State run agencies.
6. National and local Seminars, Trade Fairs, Business Exhibitions and Conferences should be organized to help women to facilitate interaction with other women entrepreneurs.

10. Conclusion

In India women entrepreneurship is gaining ground at a steady pace. Women's desire to be self employed, financially independent and to live with dignity and respect are some of the motivating factors of women entrepreneurs across geographical boundaries. The challenges and opportunities provided to the women of digital era are growing so rapidly that the job seekers are turning into job creators. For development of women entrepreneurship the joint efforts of both the society and government are needed on one hand and parents have to do justice to their girl child. On the other hand women too have to be aware of and demand their rights. They should work hard and explore new avenues of economic participation. It is high time that the family and the society should rise to the challenge and create more support system for encouraging more business opportunities for the women. Since 1980 the Government of India has been more concerned for women issues through a variety of legislations promoting the health, education, security issues, property rights and political participation of women. For women entrepreneurs, along with adequate training, institutional and financial support as a composite package needs to be encouraged. There are definitely a large number of unexplored areas where women can be placed as entrepreneurs. The Self Help Groups programme launched by NABARD and SIDBI may prove to be a boon for flow of funds to small entrepreneurs. These types of efforts will not only be enough to solve the obstacles of women entrepreneurs, but also motivate them and raise their spirits and morale.

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14

The Financial Game Changing : The Implications of Now-Trending Internet Finance in the Chinese Insurance Market

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With economic growth in China slowing further, the development of economy requires particular types of financial arrangements, and the financial system responds automatically to these requirements. Consequently, the internet finance in the Chinese insurance market thus forecasts to grow at this the rate of the economy as a whole. This research is vital to study for the impacts of China's financial reform on insurance business in Chinese market as an indicator of China's internet finance and economic development. The prime question of this research is 'how foreign insurance companies survive in China after the financial game changing?' This paper discusses the revolution of China's financial system in terms of the insurance industry bases on information technologies. It indicates foreign guarantors are ready to access in China's insurance market by observing instructions which are implicated by the internet finance for foreign insurance companies, the regulatory dynamics, and the third-party online payment method. The implications have on foreign insurance companies are thus requiring the Chinese government to make corresponding actions to ease the admission of foreign insurance companies.

[**Keywords :** Internet finance, Foreign insurance, Chinese insurance market, Chinese economic reforms]

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1. Background

1·1 The Development of the Insurance System in China

The modern concept of 'insurance' was firstly developed in late 1600s among European traders to cover the variable risk from seasons and pirates. Later stimulated by industrial revolution, the benefits of insurance were quickly recognized, and the practice spread rapidly to the Americas and then Asia. Marine, fire and life insurance were placed to protect cargo, ware houses and their lives with insurance. However, unlike the Western, the development of insurance took an altered path in China. In the early 1800s, the Canton ports in Southern part of China was functioned as the first spawning ground for the insurance industry in the Asia-Pacific region as well as the first insurance entity, established in China in 1805, as known as Canton Insurance Society. The society ran as they pooled the shipping risks of its member companies and later found first two insurance trading houses; Dent & Co. and Jardine Matheson & Co. (Phipps, 2011). This was due to the increase number of British East India Company and other trades in this far East region, thus both the foreign and Chinese traders began insuring trade among the traders. Foremost, Canton Insurance leaded to a rapid growth of shareholders and was able to extend their trading with insurance network covering the whole region. Followed by many domestic insurance industries which had been popping up resulting from the trading demands such as Renhe Maritime Insurance Company(1871), Jehe Maritime and Fire Insurance Company (1878) and China Merchants Steamship Navigation Company (1875). However according to Pichon (2006), although these Chinese insurers were fully subsidized by the private investment, they still worked under the imperial palace and the Emperor until 1911 revolution. This was because, Chinese merchant's only ventured into capital-intensive procedures under official support (Grace, 2014).

After the foundation of the People's Republic of China in 1949, changed the insurance landscape of China. All of the pre-1949 capitalist companies and institutions were nationalized by 1950. During 1950-1978, Chinese government began to support a new state-owned insurer, in doing so they merged most of all domestic insurers into one company under government's authorization. Eventually, it decided to rely on alternative forms of security, and almost all insurance operations in the country were closed down in 1959 (Allen & Qian, 2014). In the case of foreign insurance companies, they were subjected to heavy taxation and forced to followed strict laws, resulting to a steady decline number of the insurance companies from estimated 100 companies before 1949 to only 27 companies left by 1950 (Abdul & Mody, 2003). Following the harsh policy, the last of the foreign companies then shut in 1953 by reason of the early reformation in the Chinese financial system. During the said period, the only financial institution was being operated which was the People's Bank of China (PBOC), serving as a central state-owned bank and was under the Ministry of Finance. The PBOC controlled over 93 percent of the total financial assets of the country as they used both a ′cash-plan′ and a ′credit-plan′ to control the cash flows As a result, the operations of private-sector in Chines insurance companies began to merge and progressively transform to state-own enterprise as People's Insurance Company of China (PICC) in which the government majority shares.

However, after the launch of the Great Leap Forward, the campaign led by Mao Zedong, this significantly reduced the role of insurance in China. Under this circumstance, insurance as an independent industry had no place in a communist society, and the PICC was effectively closed. Despite the closure of the PICC, commercial insurance did manage to survive in a few parts of China, yet only agencies that survived were its subsidiaries operating in Hong Kong and Macau (Naughton,1995). Although the PICC resumed some insurance activities between 1969 and 1970, insurance in mainland China only really picked up after trade was resumed in 1972.

1·2 The Change of Internet Finance in the Chinese Insurance Market

Conversely, the rise of Deng Xiaoping's initiative economic reform and China's door policy to outside resulted in far-reaching market economy reforms and China opening up to the global trade. The ratio of insurance premiums as a percentage of the gross domestic product rose from more than double between 1980 and 1990 and from 1.8% to 3.3% by 2003 (Goldman, 2014). Alongside this overall productivity, the insurance business too, boomed like spring shoots after China Insurance Regulatory Commission (CIRC) was established, allowing foreign insurers invested in China's insurance industry (Chen & Thomas, 2001). The People's Insurance Company was revived in the historic 3rd Plenum of the 11th Central Committee, which was held towards the end of 1978. The consequence of this move reoriented the economy in favor of more overseas trade, reintroduced private enterprise to the Chinese economy and permitted limited forms of foreign investment through Special Economic Zones. With this push up economic environment, accordingly China's insurance industry grew rapidly from 1980s. The ratio of insurance premiums as a percentage of the gross domestic product rose from more than double between 1980 and 1990 and from 1.8% to 3.3% by 2003 (Goldman, 2014).

Additionally, as China intensified its relationships with the outside world, the country began a period of reform and liberalization under the leadership of Deng. The Chinese government, keen to tap the benefits insurance brings to a developing economy, revived the insurance market before paving the way for full liberalization. The changes in the insurance sector during the period reflected the government's realization that the centralized state enterprise approach needed to be complemented with the more flexible business structure of joint-stock ownership.

According to the strategic collected by Swiss Reinsurance (2013) states, by the beginning of the 21st century, the insurance market in China had reached a turning point. The insurance industry was on a firm footing and looking to unleash its true potential. China, joining the World Trade Organization (WTO), has provided the opportunity to fast-track market and opens the least of China to wholly foreign competitions. China's insurers were more than a match for this and continue to go from strength to strength as the market becomes increasingly sophisticated. The situation in the reinsurance market began to change after China joined WTO in 2001, which allowed foreign reinsurers to operate through joint ventures, branches and subsidiaries, with no limits on the regions in which they could operate in. This development was reflected in the astonishing increase in the regular sales force as points out, "some 1.6 million insurance sales people earned commission from insurance sales in China, according to a 2007 industry report" (Swiss Reinsurance, 2013 : 44). While the number of participants in the state retirement schemes from 1990 to 2006 overstuffed from 48 million people to 141 million and the participation in medical insurance more than doubled from 72.9 million to 157.3 million people (Wang, 2013).

Henceforward, the situation is uncertain as the capitals are also constantly being tested by the new challenges coming up with internet business, rivals between external and internal, which on the other hand, is becoming increasingly intense. At the present, the market structure of China has significantly changed from what it was in the past, various financial structures have adapted themselves to internet finance along with the change of the new trading system. At the same time, those old fashion marketers have to also adjust with these changes; from regular market selling insurance face to face, door to door, and transforming to the online market business to business (B2B) and business to customer (B2C). Alongside with third-party online payment measures are also involving more in globalization days (Naughton, 1995). This is envisaged: there is a huge market potential with numerous online customer supports in insurance sector.

Further, in the moderate scenario, the average annual real growth rate for China's insurance industry during the period 2006-2020 is now forecasted to be at 12.3 percent (Wei, Liu & Dickinson, 2008, p.1). This open opportunity in Chinese insurance industry thus, goes with more competitions in this industry as the foreigner investors also desire to participate in the largest potential insurance market in the world. According to the China Internet Network Information Center statistics (China Internet Network Information Center [CINIC], 2016), the latest published country's premium income reached 2.8 trillion Yuan so far as the end of November 2016, a jump of 28.88 percent year on year.

This is due to China has the advantage of massive population and the ever, growing middle class serves as a huge market of demanded insurance. Indeed, the annual growth is amazingly increasing, market share of insurance sector still tiny compares to other foreign insurance markets even like in developing countries. Thus, the opportunity of China's internet finance innovation is especially important for foreign insurance firms (Naughton, 2007). This arising of foreign insurance corporations confronts a series changes from the innovated financial sector. Insurance industry is looking for a niche that is capable for the economic contribution of China (Naughton & Tsai,2015). As the newest battleground for insurance industry, both foreign and domestic insurers are all ready to compete each other. All this drives economically to a service and consumption-based market economic reform.

2. Research Methodology

The significant of the research is vital to study for the inter-relationship of financial development and economic growth in the insurance industry with the provided examples of insurance industry and the implications of the financial revolution. The research frame sets up upon the theory of financial development supported by Levine's financial theory (1997), and economic growth base on the S curve model, benchmark ratio of insurance penetration model of which focus on the internet finance while the current situations of Chinese insurance market also been analyzed. The data are both collected from primary and secondary sources. Qualitative approach is too, being adopted in order to comprehensively examine the nature of China's internet finance and focus on the reform in financial sector as it provides a better analysis of the contemporary problems. The sum implications on foreign insurance companies will be discussed accordingly later and the appropriate recommendations will also be provided to foreign insurers for mutual benefits between foreign and domestic insurers in China.

3. The Findings

3·1 World Insurance Growth Curve Method 'The S-curve Model'

The S-curve model is selected as the main method to examine the insurance market of China, and Benchmark Ratio of Insurance Penetration (BRIP) to finalize a predictable trend of Chinese insurance in a long run. The "S-Curve model" is the put forth work of the economic theory by Enz (2000) based on earlier work by Carter and Dickinson (1992). S-Curve model is the hypothesis that insurance penetration may be approximated (Millo, 2014 : 1), "country by country, by a logistic function of economic development", as the result the relationship of income elasticity of insurance can be put into calculation as means of a logistic curve. Moreover, the idea such the relationship of the evolution of insurance, would provide a natural characterization of the evaluative pattern of insurance penetration per period and a link with that of income, allowing the forecasting market condition more consistently (Schumpeter, 1912). The research uses foreign insurance companies in China and their performance after the adjusting of financial sector to discuss the implications of China's financial reform on foreign insurers.

China altogether has experienced a fluctuated and a wide range of insurance industry unstable period during 2001-2005, of which Chinese insurance industry firstly reached its peak of insurance penetration in the year of 2005, simultaneously, foreign insurance companies has also won their market share a peak of 8.9% in China (Naughton, Tsai, 2015). Another key factor to push up the growth is the change of foreign insurers' behavior in the digital marketing (Bodie & Merton, 2000). Thus, understanding the conditions of China's doable insurance market to foreign insurance companies is especially important as of to ensure every segments of its policy and environment dynamics such as the regulatory dynamics, internet finance policies and product distribution channel after the internet finance transformation. Thirdly, while there are detailed discrepancies of opinions between different insurance experts, some are assuming that China's insurance industry has huge potential which will attract foreign insurers to access in the marketplace; others thought China's insurance market will go on a market saturation in particular sectors due to the sharp competition. Following with empirical studies, have shown that the last key factor in the long term is overall size of the economy (Arrow, 1964; Pichon, 2006). However, a country's economy, finance and marketplace exist cannot have one without the others, which perhaps these four altogether drives the long-term growth of insurance industry (Schumpeter, 1912). In particular, internet finance has driven the market place gone further itself to achieve different possibilities and open up the opportunities to both foreign and domestic insurers in insurance sector.

3·2 Benchmark Ratio of Insurance Penetration Model

The Benchmark Ratio of Insurance Penetration (BRIP) is another factor to demonstrate the market potential of China's insurance industry. Again, according to Wei, Liu & Dickinson's study, the BRIP is defined this measurement model as "a measure of the relative development of a country's insurance industry" (2008 : 495). It is represented by the equation of:

Figure 1 :

$$\text{BRIP} = \frac{\text{actual penetration}}{\text{benchmark penetration}} \quad 100$$

BRIP = (actual penetration)/(benchmark penetration) × 100%

BRIP represents the country's actual penetration; benchmark penetration represents the world average penetration at the country's economic development level. In their report, the BRIP could be equal to, greater or less than 1. In any cases of BRIP equals 1, then the country's actual penetration is equal to the world average penetration at that country's economic development level. As in the formulation, if BRIP is either less or greater than 1, the actual penetration will also either less than or greater than the world average level. In case of China's insurance growth in the long run, which considering respectively for life and non-life insurance, according to data collected; the calculation China's life BRIP would be 2.31 and non-life BRIP would be 0.39 after calculating, which means for life insurance the actual penetration is greater than world average level in China and for non- life insurance and the actual penetration is less than world average level (Wei, Liu & Dickinson, 2008). However, the BRIP is absolutely not the only fact to estimate insurance sector's growth potential of a country, it still needs to comply with the actual stage or situation of that country and data of the country's economy and its insurance development (Debreu, 1959; Elliott &Yan, 2013).

Theoretically, China has the potentiality for long-term growth of insurance industry. According to Chang& Lee (2012) the estimates of growth rate of China's insurance industry (Billion Yuan) suggests that the size (Measured by Premium) of China's insurance market by 2020 will be 5.7 times larger than year in 2005. China's insurance penetration changed along with the change of GDP per Capita in general. The selected year and an S-curve shows the result of China's insurance penetration according to Estimation of China's insurance penetration shows that the current situation of China, an increasingly upward S - curve indicates explicitly the capacity of the purchasing insurance products with the increasing of GDP per capita (Lee & Chiu, 2012; Xiao & Hu, 2016).Therefore, the wealthier the people are in China, the more likely they spent on insurance, which means the insurance penetration will largely increase in the next. In contrast, even if in the future China's GDP annually drops to 6 percent compare to what it is that of 6.8 percent at present, the premium of China's insurance industry will still likely keep increasing, higher than the global average level (Xie, Zou & Liu, 2016a; Wooldridge, 2002).

3·3 Internet Finance in Insurance Industry

As illustrated above, the higher degree of insurance market penetration is possible and the business environment for insurance industry is now in ready. The more developed the internet finance is, in return, the more it has capacity to cooperate with insurance industry (Hou, Karolyi, & Kho, 2011). Chinese economists have already argued that the internet finance transformation is very important over the years for integrating with Chinese insurance market. China has pretty much transformed from regular financial status to an internet one since the marketplace is ready, which is reflected by the marketplace digitalization and a newly emerged third-party online payment paying through the internet channel (Kenneth, 1962). Foreign insurers have even stronger resolution for doing insurance business in China after they see the potentiality not only on the growth of GDP per capita but also on the development of internet finance because foreigners see there is more and more young generation who are the main working force for social productivity have joined into internet finance using internet to meet daily needs and becoming part of it (Bagehot, 1962). This has stimulated the internet giants to cope inter-connectedly with the netizens in order to improve e-services. (Lee & Chang, 2012) In a manner internet finance has stanchly revealed the implications to foreign insurance companies in terms of what area shall they pay attention on.

For instance, Yu'E Bao, China's biggest Money Funding company, together with 'www.Alibaba.com' lunches the insurance fund management allowing Alipay's customer to use their unused account balance to invest in other money funds such as Zhong Le Bao Money Market Fund (Xinhuanet, 2017). Jack Ma, Founder of Alibaba Groups gives explanation as he sees e-commerce as the main course in China (Gervasi, 2016) These have also accelerated China's social media account which owed by different internet companies such as Wechat, Weibo and the Chinese most trading search engine like 'www.baidu.com' to cooperate with several leading funds in order to achieve benefits in e-finance. Besides, it is to be observed that the new funds were offering rates of return up to 10 percent while the traditional bank had the saving rate only of 3 percent which is more advantageous(Swiss Reinsurance, 2017). Another example that of internet finance developed rapidly and successfully is, Zhong An Insurance, China's online insurance company, which is the first online insurance company in 2013. It is a joint venture company jointly own by several internet giants such as Alibaba Groups, Tencent Company, and Ping An insurance company (Reutors, 2014). The joint venture of Ping An insurance company marks the maturity of online insurance business and the insurance business plays a unique role in the internet financial market. Both of the examples explained the strong momentum of internet environment that has to thank for China's financial reform. It develops from conventional financial environment to online finance and at the same time, it means online insurance business is able to work inextricable with the internet finance. Moreover, according to Zhong An Online Insurance Company website: Zhong An online insurance' (2017) covers comprehensive products line from individuals to enterprises, including commercial property, cargo and liability insurance (Xie, Zou & Liu, 2016b). This is how internet helps economic development in China entirely.

To break down this growing trending, the customer is the most important not to look over. China's young generation is the principal forces who prefer to consume online products than products in regular market, regarding to the convenience and internet's trustworthy evidence. This is the main reason that can assure the internet companies can survive and develop to an advanced stage. Foreign insurers are searching for ways in which they can benefit from the digital technologies and innovations. In spites of foreign insurers are relatively new in Chinese online market with a relatively small size of market share, China's also quite new internet finance technology still remains some space for foreigners to access in (McKinsey Global Institute, 2011). Thus, for foreign insurers, firstly is to overcome the difficulties such as product distribution, weak brand awareness, product design and technology.

First of all, recent research demonstrates product distribution is the main struggle for both of life and non-life foreign insurers because they failed to develop the distribution channels effectively, part reason of that could be they failed to understand the local practices and the customer needs. Besides, this is because of the fierce competitiveness of domestic insurers (Metcalfe, 2014). Foreign insurance companies currently have set up some storefronts on China's biggest e-commerce website; 'Tmall and Tao Bao', to sell their products (Guo, 2016). Moreover, even ban-assurances can be a distribution channel for insurance, resulting in its high commission requirement and making foreign insurers feel difficult to overcome. In addition, ban-assurances are less efficiency if compares to the internet channel (Robinson, 1952).

Other struggles that have to be getting over are product design and the technology. The research found that foreign insurers have to think of making their products compatible with the market and receptiveness by Chinese. Nevertheless, their products have to be easy to purchase and are trustworthy. Digital market provides both life and non-life foreign insurers a platform to communicate directly with customers through internet no matter where has the company located in without a needed of third party and agent (Locus, 1988; Merton & Bodie, 1995). This in one hand requires some new investments in hightech for foreigners. On the other hand, according to Chinese SEO Shifu website (2017), a provider of information product, services and solution in China getting over the technological difficulties, require foreign insurers register an Alipay account in China and provide online bank transfer; Union Pay in order to get their product premium periodically and safely. Some marketing surveys of recent years have revealed a fact that people in China are not likely to use their credit card to deal with payment online, but an Alipay account is favorable which is safer and secured.

Previous study also indicated a disappointed performance on foreign insurance companies in China plus a small market share for both life and non-life companies but foreign companies believe digital market will make this circumstance a reverse by somehow novel strategies (Swiss Reinsurance, 2017). According to Swiss Re research (2013), China has a very favorable online sales compare to any other countries. China reached the amount over 617 million internet users with a penetration rate of 45.85 percent, and the number of mobile internet users grew by 80 million totaled 500 million at the end of 2013 which means over half of its population have accessed to China Internet Network Information Center (CINIC, 2014). The evidence above demonstrated internet utilization rate is in a high level. Under the major premise of online customer basement, foreign products will build the brand awareness and trustworthy to customers through internet channel from time to time.

In one hand, the research also found that foreign insurance companies aimed at merging with China's insurance companies via acquisition to gain market share. According to CIRC(2016), foreigners have acquired some China's insurance companies in order to cooperate and adopt their insurance system thereafter adjusting the products strategies to build up brand awareness and to optimize customer after sell services. On the other hand, foreign insurers are looking to increase their presence through organic growth by using their available resources efficiently and effectively. Both of the approaches indicate foreign insurers are anxious to gain attractions from the internet finance implications (Xie, Zou & Liu, 2014).

3·4 Governmental Restrictions

Governmental restriction is another issue that foreign insurers have to get over. China started to invite foreign insurers to participate in China's insurance industry after it opens its door to the world economy. This is common that foreign insurers are subjected to some regulations and restrictions in which it protects China's economy and maximizes benefits but allow foreign companies to participate in China's economic growth in the long run. As China's insurance market lacked practices of regulatory institutions, thus Chinese government decided to set up a series restrictions for those who are interested in entering in the Chinese insurance industry. Generally, the formation of a foreign-funded insurance company shall be subject to the approval of China Insurance Regulatory Commission (China Insurance Regulatory Commission [CIRC], 2013). New amendment has stated in CIRC Rules & Regulations that, to apply for the formation of a foreign-funded insurance company, a prospective foreign insurer would have to meet the following formal criteria (CIRC, 2013); for instance, having at least 30 continuous years of experience in insurance underwriting; having a representative office in China for a minimum of 2 years, and having the total assets at the end of the year before its application for the formation is field were not less than 5 billion U.S. dollars etc. Thus, If an applicant certainly meets the requirements, they will have a chance to receive the 'Insurance Institution Legal Person Permit' (Ward & Zurbruegg, 2002), accordingly from the China Insurance Regulatory Commission. At that point the next set up is to meet an additional regional and local business requirement in order to obtain another business license from the respective jurisdiction. General reviews for formal regulations are appeared above; the main concern at present is the regulatory dynamic of internet insurance. The regulator in China is facing with a bunch of critical issues after the popularity of internet finance in terms of online sale issues, particularly after the first online insurance company-Zhong An Online has been set up. In spite of there are a lot of insurance products can be sold online, what sorts of them could be legally and rationally sold is the serious question to be considered of. For instance, online sales are vital if they are concerning to the level of risk, sales practices and the unlimited geographic scope of foreign insurance companies. The governmental restriction has perfectly illustrated some implications on foreign insurers which subjects to the law making by Chinese government. Besides, an Alipay account is not only a technological concern, but it is also depends on governmental restrictions. Chinese government has regulations on foreign transactions including the transaction amounts and the frequency (Wang, 2013). A registered foreign company must have certain amount of assets to register on a business account. Thus, the implications on internet regulations are distinct to be seen for foreign insurance companies from the Chinese government.

3·5 Analysis of the Future Internet Finance in the Chinese Insurance Market

China's financial reform is a game changing event that generally speaks for internet finance, which particularly talks for insurance industry in this research. Levine's study explains a fine developed financial system spur the growth of economy, because market frictions are existed coming from the information costs and the transaction cost (Levine, 1997 : 33). Financial markets and intermediaries therefore derived from market frictions in order to provide financial functions. From here financial functions discovered the channels to growth which are consisted of capital accumulation and technological innovation which indirectly suggest the utilization of internet channels (Arrow, 1970). This section includes the finding that explains in internet finance, regulatory dynamics, distribution channel, representative office and the third-party online payment measure.

Internet finance has become a leading terms in all the financial activities in China. It can be existed however relying on information technology (IT) companies such as Alibaba - China's e-commerce group, the other way is the traditional financial companies in general such as banks, as they can generally develop their IT department and improve their IT system (Gervasi, 2016) . Foreign insurers are itching to have a go in China's insurance thought there will be a numerous success because of their well-developed insurance model in their home country. However, the weak awareness to deploy Chinese self-internet finance resulting a small market share of foreign insurance brands. The total market share of foreign brands therefore is remaining small. Foreign insures if are interested in the marketplace shall discuss the implications from the information technology companies in China. The highlighted hurdle of foreign insurance companies in Chinese market in this research are i) Regulatory dynamics, ii) Distribution channel iii) Representative office and iv) Third-party online payment measure as analyzed follows.

The regulatory development decides whether foreigners are eligible to operate business in China. In particular, there are certain regulations and requirements regarding to different types of insurance which are needed to be noticed in order to maintain business in Chinese market. For foreign life insurance companies, the main concern is government restriction; because of not every life insurance company can engage in insurance underwriting even domestic ones according to the law. For foreign property and casualty insurers, the biggest facing challenge is the shortage of personnel, followed by the governmental restrictions (Abdul & Mody, 2003). Even if all the market regulation and other domestic concerns are set aside, the market strategy is still a key obstacle for foreign insurers, as well as the weak brand awareness are being taken under the consideration. Moreover, the regulatory development towards internet channel is enforcing increasingly intensive due to foreign insurers often felt the disadvantages of limited geographic footprint and a strict CIRC approval to new branches. Foreign insurers therefore have to pay their attention on the different types of request from insurance according to the law and consider it separately due to the needs of life and non - life insurance.

Following by distribution channel which is vital for future business strategies. Distributing insurance involves direct and indirect ways and through different channel. There are three ways to be categorized including indirect, direct distribution and internet channel. Firstly, indirect distribution involves using other agencies to sell out insurance products, such as through bancassurance, workplaces, associations and so on. Next, direct distribution goes through insurance company's agents or independent agents, they can represent single company or several companies simultaneously. The last sort is through internet channel based on the technology today. So this is to be clear that the implications on foreign insurance companies are not only on many other paper issues such as laws and restrictions but it is based on technologies.

One form of distribution is the representative office. Representative office decides whether foreign insurance products are well distributed to different places in order to closely keep in touch with the locals. Setting up headquaters of each foreign brands certainly helps to create foreign brand awareness in some way. It is another key factor to affect the locals from the bottom of their heart to strengthen the effects of foreign insurance companies. Moreover, geographic footprint of foreign insurers in life insurance is most likely located on the east coast where the most Tier One City is, whereas in property and casualty side, foreign insures are most located in the Tier Two City (Hornstein & Prescott, 1991). Distribution locations are decided by the appetite of each locals according to each ones' background, educations and the demands of insurance products. Keeping the brand awareness and choosing the located cities are being considered in one respect as it is to make more and more optimistic effects of foreign brands on the Chinese and lead them to follow their brand effect (Chang & Lee, 2012). The last finding in this research has implicated the behavior of foreign insurers conducting in China's online business which engaged with the third - party online payment measure. This measure is vital to foreign insurers who are trying to do business with Chinese nowadays, because they need to think of how to get their premium periodically and safely through online payment. Third - party online payment measure has been widely used in China in paying different types of bills, including expense cost and receive transactions. So foreign insurers shall pay their attention on this measure as well.

4. Conclusion

In a foreseeable future Internet finance is on the main stream of Chinese financial innovation which is taking place in recent years. This research concludes China's insurance market for foreign insurance companies and it is undoubtedly potentiated as that has been proved by the world insurance growth curve and the BRIP calculation. This can be the time that foreign insurers enter in Chinese market to invest in insurance sector and fairly compete with domestic insurers in the internet market. Digitalized market provides a relatively looser and wider environment for both insurers who have the interests and is ready to join. China's emerged internet finance is giving incentives for foreign insurers to promote their insurance business in China and it gives a bigger space for foreign insurance companies to conduct business. Being innovative and creative is tough, nevertheless, foreign insurers have to consider conscientiously for making 'made in China' solutions to indulge the Chinese government in terms of the regulation dynamic and the Chinese market in their favorites. Most importantly, the implications that have on foreign insurance companies decide whether foreign insurers are vigorous and supportive enough to provide a strong financial support and innovative capability in order to survive in China's market and contribute in China's internet finance.

The finding of this research indicates foreign insurers are ready to access in China's insurance market by observing instructions which are implicated on the internet finance for foreign insurance companies, the regulatory dynamics, the representative offices and the third - party online payment method. Even though regulatory dynamic by each year is accordingly adjusting, the big frame of CIRC regulations are as usual in general. As the more popular the internet finance is, the more attention it is caught by the Chinese government and the regulatory dynamic of internet insurance was always been supervised since the first appearing in 2014 for preventing from an unregulated online insurance market. Internet policies have been enforcing on internet finance as it is to guarantee a safe connection and prevent the internet mess. Foreign insurers would have to look for a way to deploy internet finance effectively without copying and pasting their internet finance model from their home country (Wang, 2013). It is better that foreign insurers can adjust themselves to suit for the Chinese types of the internet finance. Besides, the representative office of different foreign brands in China sometimes own more than one place due to the many companies have multiple offices, of which many of them present as joint ventures or subsidiaries of Chinese insurance companies. Foreign insurance companies shall establish a representative office in China as their first step in order to build brand awareness and legally stay in China. The internet finance is based on the progress of information technology development, it is developed for various area which also has influences in the insurance industry. Foreign insurers shall be able to follow the instructions which are set by the Chinese government and followed by the internet giants if their internet capacity and strategies are good enough to make mutual benefits with the China's insurance companies. Moreover, foreign insurers shall keep abreast with the needs of Chinese customers to be able to offer them a favorable request such as the third - party online payment method for their interests.

The implications too, have on foreign insurance companies requiring the Chinese government also to make corresponding actions. The government shall respond to encourage foreign insurers and give incentives to the foreign business in order to have a good long-term relationship with each other on business. Law on foreign investment should encourage foreigners to trade accordingly with the demands of the locals and compete legally with domestic insurers. Company merging and acquisitions should be encouraged and approved in order to allow a better penetration of foreign insurers and attract more foreign investments to infuse with fresh bloods for Chinese insurance market. Last but not least, it is essential to protect foreign insurers while protecting domestic companies. The government should provide legal laws which discourage corruptions and bribes, prevent the illegal fees from making conveniences in business rivals. Innovative internet finance is implementing in China, and it will be the key to future development of China's economy. Nevertheless, there are so many uncertainties, if the foreign insurance companies is rightfully conduct business according to the rules which set by Chinese government, both foreigner and Chinese business shall cooperate and operate peacefully and gain mutual benefits in the long-run.

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15

Goods and Services Tax Compliance Initiatives : Examining Corporate Taxpayers' and Regulator's Responsibilities in Malaysia

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The responsibilities of Royal Malaysian Customs Department (RMC), together with corporate taxpayers, are crucially important to achieve an elevated level of compliance for Goods and Services Tax (GST). Both parties play significant roles to ensure that the implementation of GST would run smoothly. Compliance awareness, knowledge, attitude, audit and other factors contribute towards efforts for corporate taxpayers to be consistently compliant for every submission and payment. Unfortunately, compliance is not easily achieved, as the public would have thought. Various training, reading, timing and costing are required before business owners can successfully implement GST into their accounting system and be adapted with the process. This paper presents an empirical analysis of GST activities from regulator (RMC) and corporate taxpayers of small medium enterprises (SMEs) in managing compliance activities. SMEs were selected as samples because they represent more than 90% of GST registrants in Malaysia. Findings from semi-structured interview with business owners, as well as focus group discussion with RMC, indicated that both parties strive to ensure that the level of GST compliance is

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consistently high. Continuous effort from taxpayers and monitoring activities from RMC is hence argued to form effective tools to improve compliance in the future. Studies on GST cultures among corporate business were subsequently suggested for further researches in the future.

[**Keywords :** Goods and Services Tax, penalty enforcement, knowledge, compliance]

1. Introduction

Recently, Malaysian economy had dropped tremendously, as a direct effect from the price reduction of crude oil worldwide. Malaysia's income from oil was estimated to have dropped to RM40 billion in the second quarter of 2016 due to the declining performance of oil and gas industry.[1] Previously in August 2014, crude oil was priced at USD100 per barrel and falls to below USD50 as on August 2017. Figure 1 indicates the reduction of crude oil price for 2016 which became upsetting news to many related parties such as investors, bankers and business players.

Fig. 1 : Crude Oil Price weekly 2017[2]

Making things worse, Ringgit Malaysia (RM) was experiencing weak conversion with major foreign currencies. As most imported materials and trading activities are traded with major currencies such as US Dollar, Pound Sterling and Euro, the weak conversion of currency gives direct impact to Malaysia's foreign investment. Foreign exchange of US$ 1, which is equivalent to RM4.264[3], had increased operational cost to companies whose depend on imported goods for their business. Figure 2 shows the movement of US$ against RM for the period of 2009 until 2017. RM was valued to be above RM4 for 1US$ on August 2015[4], causing additional cost being incurred to many local businesses, especially small medium enterprises (who are always lack of financial resources) to import their materials from foreign countries.

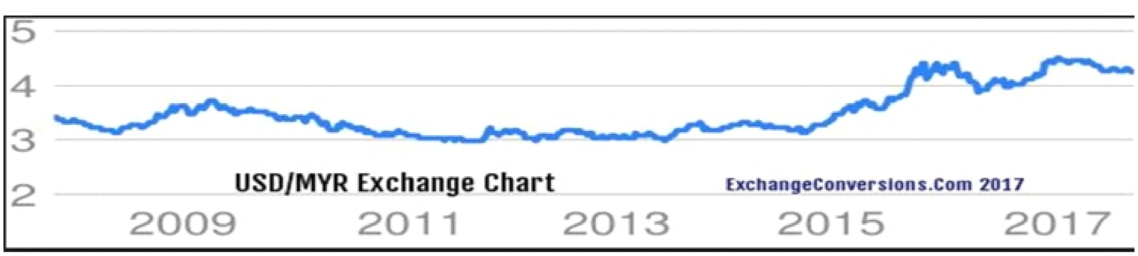

Fig. 2 : US$ versus RM exchange Rate 2015- 2017[5]

Therefore, an introduction of GST on 1st April 2015 was timely, as it replaces the loss of government income due to oil price reduction and weak currency exchange. Discussion on GST proposal was started on 1983, as Malaysia sent a research team to study the potential of GST in South Korea. Output from this research was hoped to find solutions in implementing a more sustainable and broad-based consumption tax system. Implementation of GST was delayed a few times until the Malaysian Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Razak, declared GST of 6% to be implemented in Malaysia, commencing from 1st April 2015 on 25th October 2013 during the announcement of 2014's National Budget.

However, the implementation of GST is not fully supported by the public in the beginning, as the tax increases their current spending burden, in addition to the spike of prices for many goods. The same goes to businesses, as GST would increase their cost in doing business, although this assumption was rebutted by the government. The new tax reform had affected business operation in many operational systems such as accounting, marketing and project department (Banerjee, 2017). Business owners would now need to place GST into consideration while preparing transactions involving financial figures. Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are not an exception, as scarcity in financial resources was always their main constraints while doing business (Arham, 2014). SMEs in Malaysia are defined as companies with an income of less than RM50 million, or companies with less than 200 full-time employees (for manufacturing). For other sectors such as services and retailing, the companies' sales turnover should not exceed from RM20 million or their full-time employees should be less than 75 (Definition by SME Corporation Malaysia, 2014).

SMEs contribute to the largest number of GST registrant as compared to public companies. 385,397 or 94.36 percent from a total of 408,729 GST registrants were SMEs (Data as per April, 2016). However, bigger size of registrants does not indicate better performance on GST compliance. Many SMEs were struggling to understand, to adapt and to implement GST during earlier stages of its introduction. Responsibilities of business owners since the introduction of GST are as follows : 1. to ensure documents are recorded as per GST requirements; 2. to ensure that the dateline for GST submission is met; 3. to proceed with payment handover to RMC before its due date and 4. to have related documents kept for seven (7) years (Sanusi, Md Noor, Omar, Mohd Sanusi, & Alias, 2016).

On the other hand, RMC were responsible to create awareness among the public and taxpayers from before the implementation of GST up to its current stages of expansion. They need to actively organize programs to cultivate and socialize GST among the public. All parties, especially business owners and RMC play important roles to ensure that compliance level are consistently at the top for both GST submission and payment. Co-operation between RMC and business owners are important to achieve this mission. According to the RMC's Annual Report in 2016, the total of GST cases had increased tremendously as compared to

2015, as per Table-1. There were only 647 cases in 2015; however the number of cases increases to 980 percent in 2016 to become 6991 cases. Due to that, this article explores the responsibility of RMC and business owners, especially SMEs, in managing GST compliance. To date, knowledge about responsibilities of RMC in Malaysia is limited to only a few sources (Mansor, Mohamed, Ling, & Kasim, 2016; Perabavathi & Zainol, 2017). The article will hence discuss on awareness programs organised by RMC and SMEs' knowledge to reduce the non-compliance behaviour among SMEs.

Table-1 : Summary of GST cases in Malaysia for year 2016

Total Cases 2015	Total Cases 2016	Status of Investigation Paper			Court decision	
		Investigation process	Prosecution action	Court decision	Close d cases	Penalty amount (RM)
647	6991	5165	1419	181	873	1,220,500.00

2. Literature Review

Issues of compliance had been widely discussed in the tax area of study, especially on corporate tax and individual tax (Isa, 2013; Mohd Palil, 2010). According to James & Alley (2002), tax compliance can be explained as the behaviour of act according to guidelines set by the government or other entity to the public without of enforcement. On the other hand, non-compliance may lead to tax evasion or tax fraud (Yusof, Ling, & Wah, 2014). Tax evasion is defined as an intended misrepresentation of material fact to avoid tax regulation (Bruce, 2011; Ritsatos, 2014). Due to that, tax compliance is one of the concerns among regulators and governments in managing their income collection (Mohd Isa, 2012). Having high tax collection is very important to governments so that they would have funding to implement their social development responsibilities (Sanusi, Noor, Omar, & Sanusi, 2017).

One of the efforts taken by regulators to increase tax compliance is by introducing self-assessment systems (SAS). By introducing SAS, government would rely fully on taxpayers to declare their tax computation in a truthful manner (Hassan, Nawawi, & Puteh Salin, 2016). Main feature of SAS is the responsibility of taxpayers to estimate their tax obligation for both individual and corporate tax. Implementation of GST is quite similar to SAS, as taxpayers will need to calculate their own tax obligation. SAS benefitted regulators as it reduced the regulators' burden for tax calculation, as the number of current GST registrant in Malaysia is more than 400,000 businesses. With SAS, RMC are able to focus on other activities in delivering awareness more effectively to taxpayers.

Enforcement from regulators such as RMC, as well as the Ministry of Domestic Trade and Consumer Affairs, plays an important role in managing compliance among businesses. There are several acts which are governed by RMC, such as GST Act 2014, GST Rules 2014 and GST Order 2014. These acts assist regulators in conducting compliance activities for GST. Penalty and imprisonment are actively imposed to wrongdoers to become examples for other taxpayers to cautiously monitor their GST compliance activities. A study by Gómez & Mironov (2015) on Russian tax enforcement on 2000 indicated that tax enforcement had reduced income evasion by most public firms in Russia. This shows that tax enforcement may be an influential instrument to curb non-compliance activities among taxpayers.

A study by Mohdali, Isa, & Yusoff (2014) on a localized context of Malaysian tax environment proved that treat of punishment is an effective tool to deter tax non-compliance. 302 individual respondents were selected to measure items required using five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Researchers of this study concluded that taxpayers tend to evade tax when they feel threatened with RMC's audit and penalty. Hence, RMC should start to approach businesses in a manner which is more subtle to business owners. Realizing this issue, as well as to reduce enforcement tasks, RMC introduced Customs Blue Ocean Strategy (CBOS), which started from 2016 until 2018 with a main objective to visit all registered GST in Malaysia (Kumar & Thomas, 2017). The purpose of this strategy is to provide clear and better awareness among businesses on GST compliance while they self-check their businesses documentation.

Businesses on the other hand, shall co-operate with RMC in handling their GST compliance independently. By that, GST 03 return form needs to be submitted before its respective due dates; payment needs to be made to RMC on time; and related documents need to be kept for seven years. Documents related to GST filing and payment must available prior to visits by RMC. All of these activities can only be reliable if business owners have enough knowledge and training from RMC or other external parties such as CTIM (Chartered Tax Institute of Malaysia), Malaysian Institute of Accountant (MIA) and MATA (Malaysian Association of Tax Accountant). It was noted from previous studies that knowledge is one of the crucial factors in managing compliance activities (Isa & Pope, 2011).

Knowledge on taxation can be defined as businesses capability to recognize rules and regulation on taxation and their ability to comply with the required laws (Singh, 2003). Knowledge would be gained from familiarity and expertise which are received during the commencement of activities (Cordell, 1997). Basic knowledge on tax education would be acquired by accounting students during their university days and industrial training. Basic accounting on the other hand, would have been learnt by students during their time in secondary school. This type of education are positively related to compliance without enforcement by businesses on tax compliance (Muehlbacher, Kirchler, & Schwarzenberger, 2011; Ritsatos, 2014). The higher is the tax knowledge received, the deeper will be the understanding on taxation established. To improve understanding among businesses, RMC invited new GST registrants to attend a workshop, which was internally organized.

3. Research Methodology

The aim of this study is to explore the responsibilities of corporate taxpayers and RMC toward successful implementation of GST system in Malaysia. Findings from this study are also hoped to provide better understanding on scenario revolving GST activities between SMEs and RMC. Therefore, a qualitative approach is considered to be more suitable for this study, rather than to test existing models or hypothesis (Patton, 2002).

Personal in-depth interviews were used to gather information from business owners of SME establishments in Malaysia. In-depth interview helps the researcher to obtain detailed and thorough information on a topic which is being investigated (Adam and Cox, 2008). Data were gathered from eight respondents from SMEs who are active participants in early 2017. All of them were engaged from researcher's personal network using snowball sampling process. Initially, there were 10 respondents who were contacted to participate with the interview. An invitation email was sent out to each of them, explaining the purpose of this study. A follow-up phone call was also made in order to increase response rate and to arrange for appointments. From this, two of them had decided to decline the researcher's request, while the other eight respondents had agreed to participate. An interview of approximately 60 minutes was then conducted with each of these respondents (Creswell, 2007). In the early phase of conversation, respondents were asked to describe the process of GST implementation and their responsibilities in their respective organization. After that, specific questions were asked to answer the research questions in this study, such as "How do you solve GST issues raised in a company?".

Afterwards, focus group interview was conducted for RMC officers during a seminar held by Accounting Research Institute, in collaboration with the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) on April 2017. Appointment was set up earlier to ensure the availability of respondents. Five respondents from three related departments, namely GST Department, Compliance Management Department and Enforcement Department were willing to assist the research by providing any non-confidential information for this study. The discussion took place for about 120 minutes to obtain adequate responses to the questions prepared by the researcher.

General approach for data analysis with guidance was followed with accordance to Miles and Huberman (1994). All interviews were recorded by using a Sony voice recorder. Bucher et al. (1956) argued that recorded interview would provide an objective basis for assessing the adequacy of data. This method would also provide rich source of verbatim materials. Recorded data is important to increase validity in qualitative research paradigm (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006). Responses from participants were categorized according to research questions and findings are then summarized in the Finding and Discussion section of this paper. Each respondent was indicated using identification alphabet of RESP A until RESP M in order to protect their identities.

4. Findings and Discussion

It was found from this study that high compliance on GST may increase the revenue for the government. One of the respondents acknowledges the compliance process as below :

> Compliance by registered company to submit the GST record at a specific period and transfer the GST collection to the Government (RESP C)

From the perspective of RMC officers, compliance is best described as below :

> The taxpayers register with the GST system, make an exact declaration, succumb GST return to RMC, correct and on time payment, no manipulation and keep their documentations for seven years (RESP M).

Response from the above SME owner was shown to have some resemblance with the explanation obtained from RMC officer. This indicates that respondents understand the definition of compliance which is required by RMC. However, some respondent such as RESP G mentioned that taxpayers are still in confusion when it comes to the calculation of GST rate as was introduced by RMC. Different rates which are provided for different items makes it difficult for them to decide the best rate that they should selected for their transaction. Selection of incorrect rate will caused them to be imposed with a penalty by RMC.

Many non-compliance issues were traced by RMC during their visits to business premises. According to an RMC officer, SMEs seems to have been treating GST in a similar way as corporate tax, where they would only submit and pay tax once a year (RESP K). This statement was supported by RESP D who provides accounting services to his clients. According to RESP D, after the introduction of GST, many of his clients had focused on GST first and account preparations later. This practice is discouraged as both processes should be done concurrently. Companies with many subsidiaries or related companies might have constraints to achieve high compliance as one or a few staff would only be appointed to settle the burden of multiple transactions which are made for all the companies. Limited number of staff makes them work harder and longer to fulfil GST requirements.

On the other hand, companies which have prior experience with Sales and Service Tax (SST) did not have any problems to understand how GST operates, as GST serves as a replacement to the SST system. Their familiarity with SST makes it easier for them to understand the rules and regulation of GST. Based on interview with business owners, all these respondents demonstrate an effort to ensure that they would best comply with all GST requirements.

However, for some cases, especially businesses which are involved with retail as well as food and beverages industry, they did not keep their documents intentionally. This is how they manipulate GST system as RMC cannot trace their transactions when they claim for input tax credit (RESP I). It slowly becomes a common practice among retailers as their main motivation to register their businesses under GST becomes solely to claim refund or input tax credit (ITC) (Mohdali et al., 2014). Refund motivation incurred should hence need to be thoroughly inspected by RMC. RMC's annual report in 2016 indicated that RMC had a total refund amounting RM20,197,954,377.96 in 2016. The state of Perlis was indicated to have input tax credit higher than output tax credit. As at April 2017, the total of non-compliance cases which are due to failure in GST submission had reached to 70,000 cases (RESP K).

To reduce the occurrence of cases as was previously mentioned, awareness and responsibilities from businesses are very important. It was noted by RESP A that he submitted and paid for his business' GST when it is due as he understands GST well. RESP A had a degree in accounting, hence technical terms of GST is not a problem for him to understand. He was just having problems with the accounting software which is being used as his headquarters' software, as the software do not synchronize with GST system. Hence, he needs to purchase another software and key in his data again. Other than that, awareness activities are still being conducted by selected organizations and respondent are still sending their staff away for proper training. Most of these courses will have invited speakers from RMC to obtain first-hand information regarding GST implementation. Another alternative which could be used to obtain related information is by having a contact person in RMC or any tax association for further clarification by business owners. One remark was noted from a respondent as below :

> We will try to find any answer to the GST problem by calling RMC for confirmation. I do have a few contacts in RMC to seek for information. We do have a WhatsApp group among the MATA members to settle any doubts occurs related to GST (RESP D).

Customs Blue Ocean Strategy (CBOS) is organized by RMC as one part of awareness and education program to help business owners become more informed about GST. The principle of CBOS is to make GST compliance as easy as possible. By that principle, RMC would visit all business premises during the commencement of this program and issue Bill of Demand (BOD) to any non-compliance cases discovered during the period. For CBOS program in 2016, RMC had successfully collected RM1.6 billion worth of additional tax from various businesses. These businesses are hence required to amend their submission within thirty days from the date of BOD issuance. Nevertheless, enforcement of GST compliance by Enforcement Division of RMC is continuously on going, despite RMC officers being busy with CBOS informed compliance. As RMC have collaboration with other agencies such as Inland Revenue Board of Malaysia, Central Bank of Malaysia, Royal Malaysia Police and Companies Commission of

Malaysia, gathering of information which are related to businesses activities was simplified.

Another mechanism of enforcement implemented by RMC is by preventing directors of problematic companies from going overseas if they fail to pay their businesses' outstanding GST within fourteen days from the due date mentioned to them. This type of enforcement have been working efficiently, as most SMEs would make settlements of their outstanding payment out of their worry for being blacklisted (RESP K). Another program, called the National Revenue Recovery Team (NRTT), was developed to deal with major cases which involves huge amount of tax evasion involving money laundering. These cases would be charged under Anti-Money Laundering, Anti-Terrorism Financing and Proceeds of Unlawful Activities Act 2001 (AMLATPUAA, 2001).

Table-2 shows a list of investigation papers filed for the year of 2016. 7768 investigation papers were opened throughout 2016, with 683 cases being brought to court for prosecutions. RMC hence needs to work hard to manage these issues, as it will most definitely bring effect towards the government's revenue collection.

Table-2 : Statistic of Investigation Paper for Year 2016

S.No.	State	Total Cases	Registered to court	Court decision
1	Johor	1419	54	16
2	Melaka	94	5	9
3	Kelantan	144	59	3
4	Pulau Pinang	286	38	1
5	Kuala Lumpur	1343	132	42
6	Pahang	230	73	7
7	Sarawak	799	9	34
8	Selangor	1764	79	164
9	Perlis	73	11	0
10	USFGST	55	0	1
11	Sabah	361	21	8
12	KLIA	161	44	11
13	Kedah	136	14	0
14	Perak	521	83	8
15	Negeri Sembilan	261	61	3
16	Labuan	83	0	0
17	Terengganu	38	0	9
	Total	**7768**	**683**	**316**

5. Conclusion

Knowledge about compliance activities and its impact on organizational performance was still lacking, especially within Malaysian businesses. An attempt to explore a well-researched topic of GST compliance among Malaysian businesses from a qualitative point of view hence provide significant values to RMC and SMEs in the country. It is strongly suggested that high compliance does matter within the scope of Malaysian SMEs. SMEs responsibilities, together with regulators' roles will highly contribute to the success of GST compliance in Malaysia (Mohdali et al., 2014).

As RMC promotes compliance through their awareness programs, business owners aspire to ensure that they adequately follow with RMC's rules and regulation. Both parties' grow mutual understanding and share responsibilities together in maintaining high compliance level of GST (Kumar & Thomas, 2017). Therefore, an understanding of responsibilities between RMC and business owners is crucial to ensure further development of GST in the country. Finally, it is hoped that findings produced from this study would incite debates for future research directions, especially ones which cultivates GST advocacy among the public and SME business owners.

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Footnotes

1. Sources from https://www.nst.com.my/news/2016/02/127490/rm40b-oil-revenue-loss-2016 retrieved on September 11, 2017.
2. Sources from https://www.fxempire.com/forecasts/article/crude-oil-price-forecast-september-11-2017-technical-analysis-436112 retrieved on September 11, 2017.
3. Currency exchange from www.maybank2u on September 11, 2017.
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16

Philosophical Anthropology : A Path to the Rule of Law

Angela Vidal Gandra Martins*

Departing from the experience of dictatorships in Latin America and the statement that every system of law has a concept of man behind it (Francis Fukuyama), this brief study aims to demonstrate, through a philosophical method, the deep relation between Anthropology and Law and the importance of anthropological knowledge to reflect and build a free, fair and just political society regarding the Rule of Law, as Charlens Dickens affirmed : "The human is the key for the social".

[**Keywords :** Anthropology, Law, Political Society, Justice, Rule of Law]

1. Introduction

Of all the dreams that drive men and women into the streets, the rule of law is the most puzzling.

—George Fletcher

Since the end of the last Century, Latin America is really collapsing with semi-dictatorships, in Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Brasil, getting to an extreme tyranny in Venezuela. Paternalism and disguised self or group interests lead to a deep crisis caused by institutional corruption.

Getting to the roots of this devastating behavior of Presidents, Legislators and Courts, through the study of Jurisprudence and Philosophy of Law, we could

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understand Francis Fukuyama´s statement that every system of Law has a conception of man behind it, and founded on that, the powers will rule him, either helping him to grow as a free and responsible human being or nudging, manipulating and subjecting him.

Trying to find a long-lasting solution to rebuild the country - also based on Korean initiatives towards education - we developed a program in Philosophical Anthropology for law students, who are mainly the future judges and politicians, so that they could deepen the questions on the nature of man; freedom; political society; law; economy; institutions and so on, aiming an ethical, efficacious and efficient practice.

Thus, they could get to the real meaning of Law in a society - "good fences make good neighbors" - based on rationality, relationality, freedom end responsibility - and work for the complete human flourishment and common good as well .

Our goal is to share our positive experimental methodology with scholars of different countries in order to show the importance of anthropological knowledge, and how it can help law students to reflect on their deep role in society and what a real Rule of Law can mean in terms of justice and respect for people as well.

2. Delimitation of Concepts : Law, Anthropology, Society and Rule of Law

(...) with desire to restore the primacy of certain conceptions which are in danger of disappearing from our modern thinking (…). ***—Alexander Thomas Ormond***

As John Finnis states : "the proper method in social sciences, including the political theory of which legal theory is a part, requires that the selection of concepts for use in general descriptions and explanations be guided by the very same criteria that the theorist employs when judging what is good for a society (and therefore also what is bad for it), that is, when judging what are good reasons for actions in the kinds of situation encountered by and in the theorist's own society".

On the other hand, the limits of each concept in a scientific study is essential to achieve a deep and global understanding of what it really means and wants to transmit, mainly in humanities.

Although pragmatists affirm that concepts are not useful anymore and the question "How" was replaced by "What", we do confirm that it is impossible to work in Law - and other sciences as well - if we don´t know the status or nature of things. How could we draft a contract, for instance, if we do not know what it exactly is ?

Therefore, we start our brief study defining the concepts we will work with, so that we can speak the same language and get to the meaning with an efficacious comprehension.

These concepts, though, are not mere definitions, but expressions of the reality they represent.

Thus, we define :

a) **Law :** The rational ordination directed to offer the basis for the common good to be promoted by citizens, departing from their constitutive freedom;

b) **Anthropology :** The study of man in its essence, nature and individuality, as the one who can interpret his own existence and environment;

c) **Society :** Organized order founded on the natural vocation of men "to be" with others and coexist in order to develop their own selves in interdependence.

d) **Rule Of Law :** The respect of the form of Law, sustaining its contempt, departing from the human nature and constitutive freedom and aiming its flourishment and the common good .

These are the meanings we attribute for each concept, so that we can reflect in a logical way and get further in our conclusions.

3. Latin America Political Situation

To be a tirant is not to be and not let others be. — ***Quevedo***

Although nowadays we have extraordinary means of communication, we all know that sometimes news is deeply manipulated; hiding facts; exaggerating; nudging the thought or simply lying, as we could see in Latin America with our neighbors from Venezuela, for example. Since Chavez, a populist who got to the power by deceiving the poor, we have exactly the opposite of a Rule of Law, with the empowerment of the Executive branch, which also absorbed - but in a disguised way - the Legislative Power and the Supreme Court as well, in a perfect Dictatorship.

Maduro, who followed Chavez, took harsher measures, violently persecuting opponents, since students to political parties and even civil population. The government also took medicines and food, which were only offered to those who supported the party. Even the beautiful places in the country were forbidden to those who are against the political situation.

This populism is common in America, where paternalism is a "comfortable" way to survive, accepting the rules of the Government just to receive benefits in change. Mutatis mutandis, we can also find this regrettable attitude in Bolivia, Argentina, Colombia and so on.

Among these nations, Brazil fought hard for the impeachment of the President, who wanted to impose a similar regime to Cuba and Venezuela, and is now confronting the institutional corruption and scandals in the management of public money. The Nation is really trying to survive and get out of the crisis, giving an example for the continent, although it is still far way of a stable solution. Despite the difficulties departing from those who want to keep power and mainly economic benefits, there are serious projects in discussions on tax, labor law, politics, in social security and to end up with a large and predatory bureaucracy, which consumes almost all the public budget.

But to sustain these reforms and give them continuity, there is a very important issue that is, all things considered, the source of the institutional corruption: the educational system: when people are ignorant and it is much easier to manipulate them. Let us see how it works.

4. Education and Ideology

Only those who are educated can be free. **—*Epicteto***

Education should be the light in the darkness for these countries since it is impossible to have a solid structural change without personal changes. Thus, an ethical project could mean an important step way out of the crisis: to make people reflect to be able to transform political and social life.

Philosophy, since Aristotle with his "Nichomachean Ethics", showed itself as a way of reflection about the individual and the polis. After the II World War, Hannah Arendt also helped us to reflect with the "Origins of Totalitarianism". Today, Professor Michael Sandel, in Harvard, stimulates students to think about the ethical limits of the market, for instance. However, creating the habit of reflection can be a challenge for Latin America, including Brazil, because this is not fostered nor expected from people, who are "nudged" in a bad way through the reign ideology.

Actually, superficial slogans substitute academic freedom and students are caught up in their laziness, finding it hard to study and think. Their own ignorance is the weapon to manipulate them. Then, sunk in technology - with no temperance - and empty novels on TV, which replace books, we have a whole handicapped generation. But, we cannot underestimate student´s rational and relational capacity, full of ideals and desire for excellence, truth and the good. They are simply waiting for a real help: professors can´t have a pact on mediocrity. As Lon Fuller would say, we change society, not with wrists, but with elbows . It is urgent to face the threat since education in Latin America is not a priority in investments, but ideology is. As we can see, for instance, a recent report in a famous newspaper stated the most important aspect referred in the last Cense of Superior Education is the fall of the numbers of students at the Universities. People get enough learning technics, without thinking. Besides, last OCDE reports show the insufficient budgets and expenses in education, compared to the maintenance of an extent bureaucracy. The level of basic education is very low. Besides, by the end of their final high school year, 40% of all Brazilian students are illiterate. The rate of teachers' absence during the year is high and those who manage to start university have real difficulty to achieve a degree. In this context, it is also hard to value the job of a teacher as fundamental to the development of the country. As Professor Mary Paula Arends-Kuenning of University of Illinois states : “children who had good teachers are generally successful adults economically”. And we could also add other areas too which are basal for a complete flourishment.

Through this brief essay we hope to show the key role humanities could play in this scenario so that education could maximize freedom and self-determination towards the common good, like other samples we have in history. The words of a famous Brazilian, author, Guimaraes Rosa, could be applied to this academic enterprise : “living we learn, but what we most learn is to ask more questions, the biggest ones” and get to the radical and constitutive answers humanities can lead us to, so that we can really do something for our time and nations.

5. Fundamentals of Anthropology in Education : An Experience

Practice needs to be built over a good theory, always. —***Leonardo da Vinci***

When we speak about improving education we don´t only refer to general knowledge, but specifically, about humanities. And among the different branches, we thought about starting with Philosophical Anthropology, since it is basic to reflect on what is the man - the main question in this science - and what is society for, with all consequences.

Thus, we started a pilot plan at Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, with graduation students, so that they could also think about the role of their jobs regarding society.

Though it was an optional subject, the classes were full and people would come from different courses to join it: Law, Journalism, Education, Management and so on. They were interested in all themes and would exclaim : “that´s me” or “that makes sense!”. Every week they could come with new experiences of reflections, departing from movies they watched; professional issues; family problems, etc., where they could apply the concepts they learned to the reality which surrounded them in order to give deeper and better solutions.

Some of them changed their professional choices, dedicating themselves to the academic life, for example, but mainly because each of them started to think about helping society and making the unique difference they could give by putting their talents in service of the community.

Other colleagues decided to implement this same course for future politicians of any party to help they think about a vocation regarding the public life and not only a way to earn money, stability and control interests. Therefore, in the last elections, without corrupted campaigns, some of these students won the polls through values.

The topics we developed during a semester were basically the following :

1. Anthropology as a Science.

2. The Meaning of Man, Individual and Person.
3. Reason and Language.
4. Will, Feelings and Emotions.
5. Virtues and Freedom.
6. Family and Interpersonal Relationships.
7. Environment, Culture and Sustainability.
8. Technology and Values.
9. Work and Economics.
10. Social Life and Institutions.
11. Education and Development.
12. Justice and the Rule of Law.

The main results we check were a deep view of three fundamental concepts :

1. The personal responsibility towards society, realizing that all you do can be prosperous for the common good as well, founded in our relational nature.

   As John Finnis states :

   The essence of friendship is this: A is interested in B's well-being for B's sake, and B in A's for A's sake; and so A has reason to be interested in A's own well-being not only for its own sake but also for B's; and B likewise. So the interest of neither person comes to rest solely on that person's own well-being, nor solely on the other person's well-being. Thus the relationships of interest (will, choice, action, affection) is, and is directed towards, a truly common good. This common good gives their relationships its self-sufficient point. Egoistic self-love is transcended. Or rather, it becomes clear that egoism is a form of self-mutilation, a dead-end deviation from the way to integral human fulfilment.

2. The second main point is to respect freedom, understanding its real meaning, that is, in a positive way. With this capacity we are able to be creative and direct ourselves to the good, serving others with our talents and gifts. Thus, other´s freedom is not a limit for oneself´s freedom, but an addition and a common treasure to be developed and cultivated. Therefore, respect in this sense is not an opposition. On the other hand, freedom is not conceived in an absolute way. It is ruled by the law of nature. We should not be doing whatever we want, like killing, stealing, cheating, lying, for example. That would mean to enslave a whole society.

   As Lon Fuller states, since we are children, we know :

   "I am not supposed to do that!". This is a way to freedom, in an aristotelian conception . If we live like this individually and in families, we can also think it bigger, applying to the State :

If a State, through the Law, guaranties personal freedom of all citizens it accomplishes its most ethical goal, and, in this sense, the richiest in self determination. The political progress should not be understood in a negative way, where one´s exercise of freedom prevent the exercise of freedom of others, but in a positive way, where one's exercise of freedom potencializes the exercise of freedom of the others. A historical task, difficult and arduous, but possible.

3. The third would be the necessity of a deep education, in the sense that it is not only all about knowledge, but to build up a character and teach to act ethically so that people are really prepared to help the society with an efficacious practice. Indeed, as Hannah Arendt states :

   "Education is the point at which we decide whether we love the world enough to assume responsibility for it, and by the same token save it from that ruin which except for renewal, except for the coming of the new and young, would be inevitable. And education, too, is where we decide whether we love our children enough not to expel them from our world and leave them to their own devices, not to strike from their hands their chance of undertaking something new, something unforeseen by us, but to prepare them in advance for the task of renewing a common world".

6. Ethical and Efficacious Practice Towards the Rule of Law

But what does it mean to live under rules, governed by "the concept of ordered liberty" ?

—George P. Fletcher

When citizens area formed to care about their own society is much easier to get to a fair and just social order where the rules are respected. As Robert Frost wrote :

"good fences make good neighbors".

But what is exactly a Rule of Law and why anthropological-philosophical knowledge could lead to an ethical and efficacious practice regarding it?

Basically, the Rule of Law is the successful result of the enterprise of setting rules by the people and for the people, respecting nature and constitutive freedom as a principle of social order to allow the flourishment of the common good.

Three components are elemental for the consecution of a Rule of Law :

a) laws which respect nature and democracy as well;

b) independence of powers (mainly three : Executive; Legislative and Courts) and in some cases a Constitutional Tribunal;

c) protection of institutions through the form and content of the Law.

But the background to foster this ideal are people who can face and undertake this job in a serious, constant, and transcendent way, namely, not self-interested.

Therefore, with an ethical and deeper education which teaches to reflect to act in an "all things considered style", we get to better results in all senses, including efficiency and economic targets.

In this sense, after graduation students are ready, or at least warned, to be judges, lawyers, politicians, legislators, entrepreneurs and so on, thinking bigger and not squared by narrow minded goals. Knowing what real freedom or a political society means or what the laws are for and which are the constitutional rights and if they really recognize the constitutive rights of a human being.

The Rule of Law would be like a musical score for citizens to compose and play a free symphony, organizing the society in a melodious, harmonic and peaceful way.

7. Conclusion

Are short term goals sufficient? A short-term meaning may not compensate a long term broad purpose. ***—Peter Kreeft***

We realize that the lack of knowledge added to a lack of sense and meaning, except economic - personal or group - interests to be achieved by the subjection of the populace with an almost "bread and circus" politics is the cause of institutional corruption.

Our proposal may be capillary and may take time but can be a solid one. Sometimes people want changes but don´t want to change. To help this situation we must treat them as rational and relational, offering knowledge and values so that they can open themselves to hope and freely give their contribution to build a better social order. Philosophical Anthropology can be the right path for that.

Besides, if we start to get deeper in the topics we brought up in this brief study we will never be the same again, like the hobbit of the Lord of the Rings, who left his zone of comfort to fight injustice in the Middle-earth, but we will surely be happier and so will be the world.

Indeed, the human is the key the social : In a more colloquial approach, Mathew Kelly explains this talking about a familiar episode, while trying to start to prepare a lecture while his child spent her energies with a puzzle of the world map. When he saw that the boy finished the task in a very quick way, he asked him how he could have done that. He showed the reverse side where there was a figure of a man, concluding with simplicity : "If you get the man right, you get the world right!".

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17

Happiness in the Age of Artificial Intelligence

Gagan Jain* and Mukta Singhvi**

The pursuit of happiness is central to all human endeavors. Employment is one of the major contributing factors in human happiness. But what will happen when many of the present job industries will be taken over by advanced robots. With the advancement in Artificial intelligence the prospects of mass unemployment are looming large. This paper discuss about the role of work in human happiness and despite being the business becoming more efficient and life become more easy with sophisticated new artificial intelligence there would be no guarantee of the enhancement of human happiness, specifically in context of joblessness. The job is not just a means to provide monetary benefits, but also contributes psychologically and socially in one's life in a positive way. The monetary benefits can be compensated with the universal basic income but what about the purpose and meaning of life which are also defined by ones job. Various aspects related to job and human happiness has been discussed and at last it is recommended that the healthy and balance discussion regarding the opportunities and challenges. Artificial intelligence will bring in the society should be discussed before it is too late.

[**Keywords :** Artificial intelligence and happiness, Unemployment, Automation, Well being, Work force]

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1. Introduction

We stand at the beginning of a new era. What was once a science fiction is fast becoming reality? The fast pacing development of Artificial intelligence is ready to transform war, crime, justice, jobs and society- and our very sense of what it means to be human (Tegmark, 2017).

Any technology is supposed to be neutral in its nature. As it promises to contribute in flourishing the human values and its well being, so is also poses a threat to disrupt the prevailing social harmony. The most profound threat coming from the advancement of Artificial intelligence is of shifting the jobs from the hands of the human beings to the algorithm driven machines due to their increasing efficiency and cheaper cost. This in turn will eradicate the need of unskilled and semi skilled workforce from the market thus causing mass unemployment, inequality and consequently, widespread impoverishment-around the globe.

Happiness is central to all human endeavors. From the very trivial act of scratching the skin to climbing the Mount Everest leads to some form of happiness. Although happiness is quite a subjective state, but there are some common factors among the general population which play a pivotal role in determining happiness such as relationships, health, finance, self esteem , employment etc. Employment is one of the leading factors which affect one's happiness. What will happen if variety of jobs will be taken away by computer assisted machines, and people will be jobless? Job doesn't give just a material gain in terms of money etc, which can be compensated through the universal basic income, but also the psychological rewards such as self esteem, purpose of life etc, which can't be compensated so easily.

This work provides an outlook about the prospects of future happiness in this technological driven era specifically of Artificial intelligence. What is Artificial Intelligence and the positive and negative aspects related to it will be discussed firstly. Then the term happiness and its relation with unemployment will be derived from the past research. And at last various social and psychological aspects of jobs, impact of artificial intelligence on it and the need of timely and balanced debate related to the issue will be discussed.

1·1 Artificial Intelligence

Artificial intelligence (AI) is an area of research whose main focus is on making machines such as computers, robot increasingly capable of executing various tasks which require human like intelligence. The researchers of AI test the machine's proficiency in key parameters: learning, reasoning, problem-solving, perception, and language. In other words Artificial Intelligence (deep learning especially) is a mechanized, simplified version of human neural networks and cognitive processing (Panova, 2017). The synthesis of several technological advancements has enabled AI researchers to achieve breakthroughs and become commercially available.

Innovations in technology is the driving force behind economic growth, prosperity and improvements in living standards. It boosts productivity, thereby increasing per capita income and consumption. Technology also influ-ences the nature and quality of work, as well as the structure of societies. The impact of smart phones and computers are the clear and most recent example of it. In other words it can be said that technology, institutions and society tend to evolve together (Geels, 2005). Technology disperses slowly and gradually over time, involving improvements and adaptations of existing technology. However, sometimes, technological change is so rapid and disruptive that it results in major advancement that, under the right circumstances, has ultimately transformed the organizational structure of societies and economies (Freeman,1988). There are many areas such as nanotech, robotics etc which are blooming with the help of growing ability of artificial intelligence (AI) systems to autonomously solve complex problems (Davis 2017). The lower cost of decentralized cloud-based computing, the availability of Big Data and the increasing sophistication of algorithmic machine learning play a major role in the advancement of AI (Rosso, 2017).

1·2 Artificial Intelligence and Work

The advent of artificial intelligence is considered as a 4th Industrial revolution in the discussions centered on new technology. Once designed and deployed, modern AI can form its own rules to interpret new data and design solutions with minimal or no human participation. Whereas the first industrial revolution was applied to tasks that required muscle power, AI is being applied to tasks that require brainpower. There is a sense of uncertainty prevailing regarding the impact of AI on jobs. Protagonists says that as it happened in the previous times, any new technology disrupt the existing financial market but with the passing time open a whole new avenue of jobs which were not imagined earlier. The very same thing will be happened with the AI too. On the other hand, many studies conducted on the impact of AI on job prospects bring a gloomy picture. According to them many of the jobs which are more manual and less cognitive, repetitive, does not require creativity will be snatched from the humans to the machines. Many tasks which require creativity, discretion, problem solving, flexibility and human interaction are unlikely to be automated, thus considered as safe. This general trend will likely to be persisting in the near future. However, the combination of big data, AI and rapidly expanding computational power makes automation increasingly viable in less routine tasks, such as diagnosing diseases, legal writing or navigating a car through busy streets (Brynjolfsson and McAfee 2014). The impact of automation will be hard on developing countries than the developed ones due to the concentration of less skilled workforce there.

Workers with low and medium levels of education are more prone to fall prey to the job automation. Some studies suggest that in both developed and developing countries, workers with low and medium levels of education face greater risks of job automation (McKinsey Global Institute 2017). This make up the bulk of the workforce in the sectors that are potentially most affected.

1·3 Happiness and Unemployment

The subject of happiness has been the focus of study since time immemorial. Aristotle defined happiness with the term "eudemonia" which means indentifying one's virtue, cultivating and the exercising them and living life in accord (Gupta, 2012). Fisher (2010) has described happiness in the form of pleasant moods and positive emotions, subjective well-being and positive attitudes. According to Diener and Diener (1996), happiness appears in form of joy and is a basic human emotion, felling happy is crucial to experience as human. With the advent of positive psychology, the research on positive psychology has become more main stream.

Martin Seligman (2006) founder of positive psychology has said that indentifying and cultivating fundamental strengths and using them every day in every aspect of life is the key to authentic happiness. Other scholars such as Fredrickson and Losada (2005) has said that growing, flourishing and thriving life and the motive of making this world a better place is what happiness is all about.

Employment plays a very important role in achieving happiness. It just not gives the monetary benefit but also a sense of purpose and meaning to one's life. Feather (1990) provides an excellent overview of the link between unemployment and well-being. A major contribution is Johoda's Functional Approach, which posits that participation in paid employment generates a range of functions in addition to income that are important for psychological well-being, such as a time-structure to the day, social interaction, self-identity and purpose (Jahoda 1982). Unemployment thus results in deprivation of these functions. Empirical studies finding an adverse impact of unemployment on happiness include Frijters et al (2003); Clark, Georgellis and Sanfey (2001) and Winkelmann and Winkelmann (1998). Di Tella et al. (2003) found that the unemployed are quite negatively affected by the loss of their jobs - even if this was controlled for income effects: Their study unveils that the mere fact of not having a job leads to a reduction in life satisfaction. Clark and Oswald (1994 : 655) claimed that "joblessness depressed well-being more than any other single characteristic, including important negative ones such as divorce and separation".

Even though the negative relationship between unemployment and happiness seems well established the causation can be questioned: For example, unhappy people might be less effective co-workers and hence lose their jobs. Although unsatisfied workers perform worse than satisfied ones, Winkelmann and Winkelmann (1998) showed with the help of longitudinal studies that the main causation runs from unemployment to life satisfaction.

As we have seen, the reference group is an important notion in regard to life satisfaction. For instance, the social norm of having a job might be weakened if many people lose their jobs. As self-esteem can be maintained due to the fact that it is more likely a general phenomenon than one's own fault, a stabilization effect occurs.

2. Discussion

The prospects of joblessness of large segment of society is looming large due to the increasing machine intelligence, thus automating variety of jobs. And unemployment significantly contributes in human unhappiness.

The automation of various jobs with the more efficient artificial intelligence will leave us with a lot of free time and freedom from the demands of work. But does that free time will improve the human well-being significantly is the question needs to be ponder upon. Protagonists of artificial intelligence are talking about the universal basic income to compensate the loss of job, but the 2013 Gallup poll found that 68% would not quit their job even after winning a million dollars lottery (The Guardian, 2016). Work not just gives a monetary benefit but also infuses meaning and sense of purpose in the lives of doers. The happiest people in the world are those who experience both purpose and pleasure in their lives. Not all kinds of work and jobs create meaning or give a profound sense of purpose to the worker; rather many of it are quite unpleasant and make one's life terrible. Many people hate their jobs for various reasons and want to come out of it, given their financial needs are met. For such people transfer of jobs to the robots through automation and universal basic income is of great help. But the challenge with this proposition is this that robots are not just replacing individuals but entire industries. There are indeed people who enjoy their work, but new smart robots are going to prey both satisfied and dissatisfied people with their jobs alike across various industries like, driving, manufacturing, accountants etc.

One of the most important aspects of artificial intelligence is not just that it will make the businesses more efficient, but also it proves to be beneficial for the society. For example, more than million people die in road accidents every year. If manual driving is replaced with the sensor based automated driving many lives can be saved globally. But to make a balance between this ethical aspect of artificial intelligence and newly found unhappiness of joblessness would be a tough task. If free time provided by the automation can be invested in an act one would find valuable, it presents as a moral imperative.

The identification with work is quite strong in a population. When two strangers meet the very next question after the name comes about the nature of work. With such a strong identification with work it is not clear whether one can conceive the meaning of life totally disconnected from one's job. Work plays a central role in one's psychological well being. Purpose and meaning in life are quite a subjective issue. There is no such activity which is universally happy or unhappy in nature. Each person defines what pleasure and purpose means for himself. If people are able to free from their mental schema of meaning in life beyond their job, then only the psychological benefits of automation can be enjoyed in a true sense.

Presently in the society most people are conditioned to find their meaning in life only in their work or in other words they are schema of self is strongly influenced by their perception of work. Unless people change their perception they will not be able to reap the benefits of automation in a true sense.

But apart from value and meaning work also has other role to play in one's life. In workplace person encounters with his fellow beings on a day today basis finding solution to the common problem. This personal encounter fosters love and solidarity among them. If the work is outsourced to robots how the relations would be sustained is an important question.

Skeptics also argue that Artificial intelligence is a double edge sword. On the one hand it will give free time to the people to do the things they really want to do, but on the other hand it will deprive them of the skill they need to use their time meaningfully. People were robbed of opportunities to improve themselves and lacked the initiative to find new ones.

Apart from the prospects of joblessness Artificial intelligence in social media and smart phone applications will increase overall digital user engagement time, along with the associated social problems of attention deficit, isolation, and sleep disorders. As artificial intelligence rises, so will the demand for face-to-face human counseling and connection.

Well, it is true that artificial intelligence endangers many of the present occupations in the coming decade, thus causing mass unemployment, there is no reason to put moratorium on its development. People by nature are largely risk-averse and tend to avoid discomfort and uncertainty. And as Artificial intelligence is here to disrupt the long held notions of work, people are becoming more anxious. History showed that, whenever new technology arrives, initially it presents a gloomy picture of mass unemployment as is happened in the industrial revolution but, also bring with it many types of new jobs which were unthinkable earlier. Who knows, the same might happen with artificial intelligence. In fact given the advantages it gives to humanity, it is it is immoral to put brakes on its development. But it might be too late to think on the moral, psychological and social consequences of Artificial intelligence, when technology will arrive. The conversation must begin now.

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18

Unfinished Fight for Transparent India : Indian Ombudsman 'Lokpal'

*Triranjan Raj**

The year 2011 is remembered in India as the year of the campaign against corruption and for the Jan Lokpal Bill. The campaign began in January 2011 in the backdrop of the publicity that accompanied the several mega-scams that surfaced in 2010, notably those relating to the Commonwealth Games and the telecom spectrum allocations. It caught the public imagination with Anna Hazare's fast at Jantar Mantar in New Delhi in April 2011. That forced the UPA government to constitute a joint drafting committee for a Lokpal bill. The civil society representatives in the committee proposed a bill called the Jan Lokpal bill, which became the basis for discussions. The basic principles on which the bill was drafted were culled from the United Nations Convention against Corruption, which required all countries to put in place anti-corruption investigative agencies that would be independent of the executive government and would have the jurisdiction to investigate all public servants for corruption. In the background of the Jan Lokpal movement The Lokpal and Lokayukta Bill was passed by the parliament on 18th December,2013 which finally became an act after receiving assent from the president on January 1, 2014, and came into force from January 16, 2014. But even after its passage the not established the body called the 'Lokpal'. The bureaucratic strategy of delay followed by the government shows the reluctance and lack of sincerity on the part of government to constitute Lokpal which is essential to curb corruption which is acting as the greatest menace to our democracy and development.

[**Keywords :** Lokpal, Lokayukta, Ombudsman, Democracy, Accountability, Transparency, Governance, Legitimacy]

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1. Introduction

India's effort to have an anti-graft ombudsman in the form of a Lokpal institution may have caught national attention only now. But parliament has made eight attempts since 1968 to pass a Lokpal bill, a different version each time, all in vain. The bill was first brought before the fourth Lok Sabha in 1968 and passed in 1969. However, the house was dissolved, resulting in the first death of the bill. The legislation was revived in 1971, 1977, 1985, 1989, 1996, 1998, and 2001, but never survived. Prime Minister Manmohan Singh said the Congress-led United Progressive Alliance (UPA) government would lose no time in enacting the bill. It finally took a mass mobilization by Anna Hazare and his associates in April 2011 to get the government to work on the Lokpal bill and getting it passed through parliament.

Social movements are understood as organized collective efforts working towards achieving change. All social movements have an ideology to identify what is wrong with the present and what needs to be done in the future. One of the most recent social movements witnessed in India was the campaign on 'India against Corruption', spearheaded by a group of social activists led by an octogenarian Gandhian - Anna Hazare. Anna Hazare, a follower of Gandhian principles, opted for fasting unto death and demanded the enactment of the long pending Jan Lokpal Bill (Anti-Corruption Law). The movement is considered to be a milestone in the constitutional history of India forcing the government to accept civil society's demand to have a say in drafting the stringent anti-corruption law, the Lokpal Bill.

Interestingly, the movement also successfully galvanized mass support and enticed the media took up the topic so much so that today corruption is highlighted as a major social issue in India, after remaining invisible for decades after Independence. One remarkable trend that it has exhibited is the shift in the nature of the social movements in India from being predominantly rural to now including urban citizens. The major combatants of the Anna campaign are educated and urbane. Hence, this movement as well as similar citizen's protests, with the educated and conscious youth at their centre demanding accountability and governance reforms has enough potential to make democracy more inclusive and participatory. The Lokpal & Lokayukta Act has not been operationalized since its notification in January 2014 and the government even after several amendments has not been able to constitute the body called Lokpal.

Recently a petition has been filed in the Supreme Court seeking directions to the Centre to set up expeditiously an autonomous Lokpal in spirit of the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act, 2013.The plea also seeks to provide adequate budget, infrastructure and manpower, essential for the Lokpal's effective functioning. The petitioner also sought simultaneous directions to all the states to establish independent Lokayukta with all the requisite facilities. The Lokpal and Lokayukta Act, 2013, received assent from the president on January 1, 2014, and came into force from January 16, 2014, but the executive has not established the body to be called the 'Lokpal' in spirit of Section 3 of the Act. Though it is essential to curb corruption, it is the greatest menace to our democracy and development. The petitioner also mentioned of state governments deliberate attempt to weaken the Lokayukta by not providing adequate infrastructure, sufficient budget and workforce.

2. Institution of Ombudsman

The word "ombudsman" is of Swedish word, meaning a representative or agent of the people, or group of people. The world's first parliamentary ombudsman was appointed by the Swedish Parliament in 1809.[1] The functions of the institution were to supervise the courts and other public authorities, to deal with complaints from citizens, and to prosecute officials and government ministers who behaved unlawfully. The ombudsman concept is based on the idea that citizen should be entitled to complain against the ruler and their complaint should be independently investigated. Ombudsman presents an attractive alternative to the courts. Not only do they overcome the procedural difficulties with litigation but they provide them remedies which are quick effective and inexpensive.[2] there are two main models or ideal types of ombudsmen systems, first one is Redress Type and the other one is Control Type. The primary function of redress ombudsman is to offer and facilitate alternative dispute resolution. The control ombudsman primary function is general supervision of state authorities, rather than resolution of disputes.[3]

2·1 Development of Concept

In the 1950s there was considerable discussion in many countries outside Scandinavia about establishing a process to examine things undertaken by governmental administration. This was to be along side and beyond the formal means of redress available through the courts or Parliament, or a free Press. The welfare state models in many countries had produced very large government bureaucracies. There was concern in many quarters that a simple independent means of redress needed to be provided for the individual citizen. The matter was neatly put in the following way by Professor D. C. Rowat in article suggesting an Ombudsman Institution in Canada "It is quite possible nowadays for a citizen's right to be accidentally crushed by the vast juggernaut of the government's administrative machine. In this age of the welfare estate, thousands of administrative decisions are made each year by governments or their agencies, many of them by lowly officials; and if some of these decisions are arbitrary or unjustified, there is no easy way for the ordinary citizen to gain redress."[4] It was simply no longer possible to say that every person adversely affected in an unfair manner by action of a governmental official, would have the resources or means to engage a lawyer. Court procedures could be both lengthy and expensive. The right of a person to consult their individual Parliamentary representative, write to the newspaper, organize a petition or raise a deputation to see a Government Official or Minister, may have been no more effective.

Ombudsman is an institution through which countries have attempted to reduce or eliminate administrative inefficiencies, government corruption and human right violation by government officials. A well functional ombudsman is one of the various public sector mechanisms that can contribute to the strengthening of democratic governance. It is very difficult for an ombudsman to operate with any success in a state that dies not have some form of democratic governance. If the state is a functional democracy, its qualitative aspect will influence the ability of the ombudsmen to exercise its function effectively. In a democratic state ombudsman can lead to the improvement in the accountability of the administrative branch of the government to the members of the public.[5]

Democracy and the rule of law profoundly affect and shape the broader political and institutional context in which the ombudsman institution functions and which condition its capacity to serve citizens and to enhance their ability better to enjoy their rights. Rule of law describes a condition in which all members of society live under the law, and where no one is outside or above the law. Under the rule of law, every person is subject to ordinary law and not to extraordinary or exceptional arrangements. In order to check arbitrary exercise of power by authorities the democratic countries need to develop institutions like ombudsman.

Broadly speaking there are two different variants of democracy and this difference is based on the way the system ensures accountability in the way it functions. To be accountable means to have the duty to provide an account : that is, to explain and justify one's actions in terms of appropriate criteria and in sufficient detail. The criteria and level of detail that are required depend on the context. The concept of accountability also includes liability to some form of sanction, if the performance revealed by the account is considered unsatisfactory. The sanction may be legal or, in a broad sense, political. in a democracy, public criticism can be a significant form of sanction. In the first variant of democracy, the natural concomitant of the idea that the winners of an election can legitimately claim a plenary right to exercise power on behalf of the sovereign people is that government is accountable only to the sovereign people at the moment of periodic elections. The sanction attached to such accountability is that, if electors deem a government's performance unsatisfactory, they can vote it out of office. Other forms of accountability are excluded as potentially limiting and constraining the sovereign people, as represented by those whom they have elected. Modern democracies have also developed other institutions of continuous or horizontal accountability to scrutinize the actions of public authorities, call them to account and provide information, analysis and redress. To give a few examples, there are: public auditors, information commissioners, ethics and standards committees, electoral commissions, data protectors and, not least, ombudsmen.

The ombudsman can be characterized as both a horizontal and a vertical accountability mechanism. While examining the administrative aspect of governance, public accountability is identified as one of the indicators of its legitimacy.[6] Stephen Owen defines public accountability in the context of administrative governance as "government officials must be accountable to the public for the fair, honest and open exercise of statutory discretions. This requires due process in administrative decision-making which provides the interested public with access to information, protection of privacy, notice of decisions that will significantly affect them, opportunities for hearing and reasoned decisions from public officials. Public accountability for the protection of these rights is provided through ombudsman offices, human rights commission, and freedom of information and privacy commissioners, anti-corruption and conflict of interest commissioners."[7]

Stephen Owen states that an effective democratic state relies on legislative, administrative and judicial governance institutions which incorporate substantial public participation.[8] he states that "legitimacy of any particular governance function will be measured by its effectiveness in engaging, representing, serving and protecting the public in a meaningful and effective way."[9] a well functional ombudsman can serve an important element of administrative governance by enhancing accountability of government.

There are two ways through which accountability can be secured in the functioning of government bodies, one is horizontal accountability and the other one is vertical accountability.[10] Vertical accountability is imposed on government by voters through periodic free and fair elections. Horizontal accountability can be defined as "the capacity of state institutions to check abuses by other public agencies and branches of government."[11] these oversight institutions or watchdog agencies include courts of all kinds, electoral commissions, state auditors, anti-corruption agencies, conflict of interest commissioners, ombudsman and human right commissioners.[12] The ombudsman improves legal, constitutional and administrative horizontal accountability of government by impartially investigating the conduct of public administration. Ombudsman can supply legal, administrative and financial horizontal accountability with their focus on misuse of public funds, frauds, conflict of interest etc.[13]

The ombudsman institution can be examined from the perspective of the level of accountability provided by self-regulatory state institutions. Scheduler states that the concept of political accountability is composed of 'answerability' and 'enforcement' elements.[14] Answerability is defined as the power given to an institution to ask accountable actors to give information on decisions and to explain the facts and the reasons upon which these decisions were based, whereas the enforcement element of accountability is composed of punishment or other negative sanctions for inappropriate behavior.[15] An important aspect of such continuous accountability of public authorities' is the implication that it provides citizens with multiple opportunities and structures through which to hold public authorities accountable on a continuous basis. Indeed, it is important to point out that citizenship encompasses a dynamic component transcending legal rights and duties and involving engagement with public authorities to exercise rights, including accountability rights, and to fulfill obligations.

Ombudsman and other national human rights institutions are referred to by the UNDP and UN human right bodies as mechanism that contribute to building good governance in a state. Many organizations and states support the establishment of the ombudsman as part of their good governance and human rights program. The role of ombudsman in building good governance is now being heavily recognized by most of the states which is evident from the fact that this institution being adopted and made part of constitution.[16]

2·2 Ombudsman can contribute to Good Governance

Ombudsman in a state can also promote good governance. In the context of public administration, public participation, transparency of public administration, the accountability of the public authorities to the public and justice or fairness is essential components of good governance. Classical ombudsman helps build governance in public administration by working to improve all of its core elements: public participation in governance, transparency of public administration, the accountability of public authorities to the people and fairness in administration.[17]

Public participation involves asking the public for input and views on proposed government actions and feedback on government actions already taken. Effective participation in governance requires access to information, the courts and government institutions and the existence of agencies where members of the public can submit complaints about government and have them addressed.[18] ombudsman institutions are mechanisms which enable members of the public to participate in the regulation of the conduct of public administration by lodging complaints that lead to impartial investigation of faulty administration, allegations of human right violations and financial impropriety.[19]

Transparency in the context of public administration includes: transparency and understandability of the processes in which public bodies make decisions, provisions of reasons for the decisions and public availability of the information on which these decisions are based. Transparency of government conduct can be heightened through formal objective scrutiny on complaints by ombudsman. The ombudsman can also investigate, on the basis of a complaint or own motion, complaints of lack of transparency in public administration. He can even make recommendations for changes in law and practice to increase transparency.[20]

Accountability can be defined as "answerability for the performance of an office, a charge, or a duty. It is not an entirely legal concept. It refers to standards of conduct of ethical, institutional and legal nature."[21] Accountability involves establishing appropriate lines or forms of accountability between the government and the public, which can include access to information, transparency in decision-making and rules of due process or procedural fairness such as notice of proceedings, holding hearings and communicating decisions along with reasons on which these decisions are based to the citizens. Accountability of administration can be improved through the institution of ombudsman as he has the power to investigate into complaints of any wrongdoing or can scrutinize the behavior of administration according to standard of law.[22]

Fairness is composed of substantive and procedural elements. Substantive fairness requires fairness of results whereas procedural fairness requires that the processes of representation, decision-making and enforcement in an institution are clearly specified, non-discretionary and internally consistent. Fairness of government in both its procedural and substantive aspect is enhanced by the ombudsman. An ombudsman is expressly mandated to investigate broad areas of administrative legality and injustice to improve procedural fairness in administration. The ombudsman can also be considered as a mechanism to improve procedural human rights by providing an avenue for members of the public to complain about illegality and unfairness in public administration. Ombudsman can build both procedural and substantive fairness by making recommendations for changes in law and policy.[23]

2·3 The Contribution of the Ombudsman to the Quality of Democracy

The institution of the ombudsman can help maintain and improve the quality of democracy both directly, through promoting accountability and active citizenship, and indirectly by reinforcing the rule of law and thus the balance between equality and liberty that constitutes so salient a feature of the pluralist variant of democracy. Its capacity to do so depends on being demonstrably impartial and non-partisan in carrying out its functions. This is the rationale for the independence of the ombudsman, which, in constitutional systems where parliamentary scrutiny of the Executive is well-developed, is often secured by a privileged relationship with the legislature.[24] Like a court, an ombudsman not only considers the individual case but also asks how similar cases should be treated by public authorities in the future. One of the characteristics of the ombudsman institution is that it can carry out the task of establishing guidelines for future conduct not only on a reactive, case-by-case basis, but also in a proactive way. For example, the ombudsman may produce checklists of good administrative practices, publish codes of good administrative behavior and take initiatives to tackle systemic mal-administration. While for the courts the major realm of activity and concern is to ensure adherence to legality on the part of state and citizens, for the ombudsman the equivalent realm is the promotion of good administration and the avoidance of mal-administration.

The citizen's right to a judicial remedy against the public administration is, of course, fundamental to the rule of law. However, there is lately increasing recognition, not least by judges, that court proceedings are not always the most appropriate way to resolve disputes between citizens and public administration. Broadly, there are two reasons for this .In some cases, the non-judicial remedy of the ombudsman can provide a cheaper and quicker alternative than court proceedings. In cases that the complainant would otherwise have taken to court, use of the alternative non-judicial remedy helps to avoid an overload of the court system and consequent delays. Moreover, since the ombudsman's services are free at the point of use, complainants who could not afford to bring judicial proceedings may nonetheless obtain an effective remedy, thus widening access to justice.[25]

3. The Lokpal and Lokayukta Bill 2013

Lokpal is Indian version of Ombudsman. In India, the institution was given legal status after Anna Hazare movement. In 2013 Lokpal and Lokayukta Bill was passed by the parliament. The Lokpal bill 2013 referred as "The Lokpal and Lokayukta Bill 2013" is an anti-corruption law which will provide for the establishment of the institution of Lokpal to inquire into the cases of corruption against public functionaries. It aims to prevent and control corruption through the setting up of an independent body at the central level, called the Lokpal that would receive complaints relating to corruption against most categories of public servants. The Lokpal is supposed to complete the inquiry in a time-bound manner with the assistance of special courts. The act also makes it incumbent on each state to pass within a year, a law for setting up a body, Lokayukta similar to that of Lokpal at the state level.[26]

3·1 Evolution

In 1963, L. M Singhvi talked of setting parliamentary commission to inquire cases of corruption in administration. In 1966, administrative Reform Commission recommended the establishment of Lokpal. Based on the report of ARC in 1968, the Lokpal and was placed in 4th Lok Sabha. 1971, 1977, 1985, 1989, 1996, 1998, 2001, 2011, 2013.It was only in 2013 that the bill was passed and got president assent on 1st January 2014 after which it became act. The term "Lokpal" was coined by Dr. L.M.Singhvi in1963. The concept of a constitutional ombudsman was first proposed in parliament by Law Minister Ashoke Kumar Sen in the early 1960s. The first Jan Lokpal Bill was proposed by Shanti Bhushan in 1968 and passed in the 4thLok Sabha in 1969, but did not pass through the Rajya Sabha.[27] Subsequently, 'Lokpal Bills' were introduced in1971, 1977, 1985, again by Ashoke Kumar Sen, while serving as Law Minister in the Rajiv Gandhi cabinet, and again in 1989, 1996, 1998, 2001, 2005 and in 2008, yet they were never passed.3a Forty five years after its first introduction, the Lokpal Bill is finally enacted in India on 18 December 2013.The Lokpal Bill provides for the filing, with the ombudsman, of complaints of corruption against the prime minister, other ministers, and MPs.

The Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) recommended the enacting of the Office of a Lokpal, convinced that such an institution was justified, not only for removing the sense of injustice from the minds of citizens, but also to instill public confidence in the efficiency of the administrative machinery. Following this, the Lokpal Bill was, for the first time, presented during the fourth Lok Sabha in 1968, and was passed there in 1969. However, while it was pending in the Rajya Sabha, the Lok Sabha was dissolved, and thus the bill was not passed. The bill was revived several times in subsequent years, including in 2011. Each time, after the bill was introduced to the House, it was referred to a committee for improvements, to a joint committee of parliament, or to departmental standing committee of the Home Ministry. Before the government could take a final stand on the issue, the house was dissolved again. The basic idea of a Lokpal is borrowed from the Office of the Ombudsman, which has the Administrative Reforms Committee of a Lokpal at the Centre, and Lokayukta(s) in the states. Anna Hazare fought to get this bill passed and it did got passed on 18th December 2013.[28] Lokpal and Lokayukta Bill 2013 is a step to ensure clean and responsive government. This Act came in the background of India signing UN Declaration against corruption in May 2011. After signing this declaration it was obligatory on the part of all signatory countries to have an anti-corruption institution like Lokpal in place.[29]

3·2 Coverage

Any board, commission or authorities, fully or partially financed by the government created by an act of parliament are covered under it.[30]

3·3 Composition

The Lokpal shall consist of one Chairperson and eight members. The chairperson of Lokpal can be one who is or has been a chief justice of India or has been a judge of the Supreme Court or an eminent person. The total members of Lokpal should not exceed eight out of which fifty percent shall be judicial members. In this act there is also provision for representation of SC, ST, OBC, minorities and women. The act states that fifty percent of members of Lokpal shall be from amongst the SC, ST, OBC, minorities and women.[31]

3·4 Qualification of Judicial Members

A person shall be eligible for appointment as a judicial member if he is or has been a judge of the Supreme Court or is or has been a chief justice of High Court.[32]

3·5 Qualification of Non-judicial Members

For person to be appointed as a non-judicial member he should be a person of impeccable integrity and outstanding ability having special knowledge and expertise of not less than twenty-five years in a matter relating to anti-corruption policy, public administration, vigilance, finance including insurance and banking, law and management.[33]

3·6 Disqualification

The Chairperson or a Member shall not be :

- A Member of Parliament or a member of the Legislature of any State or Union territory;
- A person convicted of any offence involving moral turpitude;
- A person of less than forty-five years of age, on the date of assuming office as the Chairperson or Member, as the case may be;
- A member of any Panchayat or Municipality;
- A person who has been removed or dismissed from the service of the Union or a State, and shall not hold any office of trust or profit (other than his office as the Chairperson or a Member) or be affiliated with any political party or carry on any business or practice any Profession and, accordingly, before he enters upon his office, a person appointed as the Chairperson or a Member, as the case may be, shall, if :
  - He holds any office of trust or profit, resign from such office; or
  - He is carrying on any business, sever his connection with the conduct and management of such business; or
  - He is practicing any profession, cease to practice such profession.[34]

3·7 Appointment of Chairperson and Members of Lokpal

The chairperson and the members of Lokpal shall be appointed by the president after obtaining the recommendation of Selection Committee.[35]

The selection committee will have five members :

- The Prime Minister-Chairperson;
- The Speaker of the House of the People-Member;
- The Leader of Opposition in the House of the People-Member;
- The Chief Justice of India or a Judge of the Supreme Court nominated by Him-Member;
- One eminent jurist, as recommended by the Chairperson and Members referred to in clauses (a) to (d) above, to be nominated by the President-Member

The Selection Committee will constitute a Search Committee of Seven Members for the selection of Chairperson and Members of Lokpal. Fifty percent of search committee members should belong to SC, ST, OBC, Women and minorities. The selection committee has the right to select anyone who is not recommended by Search Committee.[36]

3·8 Appointment

The chairperson and members shall be appointed by the president on the recommendation of Selection Committee.[37]

3·9 Term

The chairperson and every member will hold office for five years from the date on which he enters upon his office or until he attains the age of seventy-five, whichever is earlier.[38]

In order to check political interference and ensure impartiality in the functioning of Lokpal, the chairperson and every member shall be ineligible to be reappointed as the chairperson or a member of Lokpal. Secondly he cannot be employed to any office of profit under the government of India or the government of the state. Thirdly he cannot contest election of president or vice-president or member of either house of parliament or state legislature or municipality or panchayat within a period of five year from the date of relinquishing the post. Salary of Chairperson will be as that chief justice of India and members to that of judge of Supreme Court.[39]

3·10 Jurisdiction

Prime minister is under the preview of Lokpal but cases of corruption against him can only be taken up when two-third of full bench of Lokpal approves it and the chairperson also approves it. The proceeding of such a complaint will be done under camera. If Lokpal dismisses the complaint than the report need not be published or shared.[40]

3·11 Functioning of Lokpal

Lokpal will have under him Secretary, Director of Inquiry, and Director of Prosecution. The appointment of officers and other staff of the Lokpal shall be made by the chairperson or such member or officer of Lokpal as the chairperson may direct. Lokpal will have two different wings to carry on the investigation against the public servant. On is the inquiry wing headed by the Director of inquiry and the other one is the Prosecution wing headed by the Director of Prosecution for the purpose of prosecution of public servant in relation to any complaint by the Lokpal under this Act.[41]

After receiving the complaint the Lokpal can initiate the inquiry either through his Director of inquiry wing or can engage CBI. The Lokpal can supervise the working of CBI only in those cases which have been referred to CBI by Lokpal. Lokpal can also ask for the progress report but cannot influence the direction of inquiry. The Lokpal shall also call the public official to explain his position on the complaint which has been filed against him so as to ascertain that whether there exists a prima facie case or not. The inquiry wing is supposed to submit its report to the Lokpal within a stipulated time frame. If the inquiry wing finds that a prima-facie case exists then Lokpal can order prosecution wing to initiate prosecution in special courts. The website of Lokpal will display the status of all the complaints.[42]

3·12 Special courts

The central government shall constitute such number of special courts as recommended by the Lokpal. The special courts are supposed to pronounce its verdict in one year. An extension of three months can be given with reasons of extension. In total the time should not exceed two years which means that four extensions can be given with reasons specified by special courts.[43]

3·13 Complaints against the chairperson and members of Lokpal

The Lokpal shall not inquire into any complaints against the chairperson or any member. President can remove chairperson or any member if there is a complaint which is given to him by 100 Member of Parliament and when the case is established by the Supreme Court. Till the time the case is pending in Supreme Court the president can order suspension of such member or chairman.[44]

3·14 Finance

Finance for the maintenance and operation of Lokpal will come from consolidated fund of India and the accounts will be audited by CAG.[45]

3·15 Declaration of Assets

Each government official is supposed to declare his assets before 31st July. Along with it every government employee is supposed to file an annual return of such assets. Assets not declared in return will be presumed to be acquired through corruption.[46]

3·16 False or frivolous Complaint

In this act there are also provisions to have a check on the filing of false an frivolous complaints. A person found guilty of filing false and frivolous complaint can be punished for one year or with a fine of one lack. He is also liable to pay compensation to pay compensation to the public servant in addition to the legal expenses as decided by the special courts.[47]

3·17 Establishment of The Lokayukta

Every State shall establish a body to be known as the Lokayukta for the State, if not so established, constituted or appointed, by a law made by the State Legislature, to deal with complaints relating to corruption against certain public functionaries, within a period of one year from the date of commencement of this Act.[48]

4. The Lokpal and Lokayuktas and other related Law (Amended) Bill, 2014

The Lokpal and Lokayuktas Act, 2013 provides for the establishment of a body of Lokpal for the Union and making enabling provision for establishment of

Lokayukta for States to inquire into allegations of corruption against certain public functionaries, was enacted and brought into force with effect from 16th January, 2014.The Lokpal and Lokayuktas Act, 2013 (the Lokpal Act) provides for a Selection Committee for making recommendations to the President for appointment of the Chairperson and Members of the Lokpal. As per the existing provision the Leader of Opposition in the House of the People is one of the Members of the said Selection Committee but the Act of 2013 does not contain any provision as to how the eminent jurist is to be recommended for nomination by the President or how the Search Committee shall be constituted by the Selection Committee when there is no Leader of Opposition recognized as such in the House of the People. Therefore, it is considered appropriate to amend clause of the Lokpal Act and make enabling provision for inclusion of the Leader of the single largest Opposition Party in the House of the People as a Member of the said Committee. Further, the 2013 Act does not specify any tenure for the eminent jurist. It is, therefore, proposed to insert a proviso so as to lay down that the eminent jurist shall be nominated for a period of three years and shall not be eligible for re-nomination.[49]

It is also proposed to amend sub-section (2) of section 4 so as to provide that no appointment of a Chairperson or a Member or the nomination of an eminent jurist shall be invalid merely by reason of any vacancy or absence of a Member in the Selection Committee, on the lines of the recent amendment made in the Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946. Similarly, it is proposed to add a proviso to sub-section (3) of section 4 so as to provide that no appointment of a person in the Search Committee or the proceedings of the Search Committee shall be invalid merely by reason of any vacancy or absence of a Member in the Selection Committee or absence of a person in the Search Committee, as the case may be.[50]

It is proposed to amend section 44, in regard to the way "public servant" is defined, which, inter alia, includes Prime Minister, Ministers and the Members of either House of Parliament. Section 44 of the Act makes provision for declaration of assets and liabilities by the public servants. In this regard, the Representation of the People Act, 1951 (43 of 1951) makes detailed provisions which provide for conduct of elections of the Members of Parliament, their qualifications and disqualifications for the membership of the Houses, corrupt practices and other offences, etc. The said Act and the rules framed thereunder make elaborate provisions for filing of affidavits giving full details of the movable and immovable property and the consequences of filing false affidavits, etc. In view of this, it is proposed to provide that the provisions of the Representation of the People Act should be applicable to them as regards the manner of filing of information regarding their assets and liabilities, instead of making a different provision under the Lokpal Act.[51]

4·1 Lokpal and Lokayukta (Amendment) Bill, 2016

The parliament in July 2016 passed an amendment to the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act, 2013 to extend the deadline for filing asset declarations beyond 31

July for 50 lakh central government employees and NGOs receiving government funds. The amended Lokpal and Lokayukta Act 2013 is now called the Lokpal and Lokayukta (Amendment) Bill, 2016. This amendment is significant and controversial because it dilutes a provision in the Lokpal Act, 2013 which was one of the results of the India Against Corruption movement which had shaken the country in 2011 and 2012. This amendment affects only Section 44 of the Lokpal Act, which in turn deals with the declaration of assets and liabilities of the public servants and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) who come under the purview of the Act. The NGOs which receive over Rs 1 crore in government grants and donations above Rs10 lakh come under the purview of the Act. Earlier, as per rules notified under the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act, 2013, every public servant was supposed to file declaration, information and annual returns pertaining to his or her assets and liabilities on 31 March every year or on or before 31 July of that year. For 2014, the last date for filing returns was 15 September of that year. It was first extended till December 2014, then till30April, 2015. The third extension was up to 15 October. The date was then extended to15 April this year for filing of returns for 2014 and 2015.But in April, the deadline was extended yet again till 31 July. With the latest amendment, the deadline for declaration has now gone beyond 31 July. Apart from the obvious problem that the deadline for declaration has been continuously extended since 2014, the amendment also does not provide any further details of when and how the public servants and NGOs will make their declaration.[52]

The amendment just states that the public servants will make a declaration in such form and manner "as may be prescribed". The amendment also exempts the spouse and dependent children of public servants from declaring their assets, something which further reduces the transparency of the original Act. The amendment also came amid criticism that the government was diluting the transparency law by classifying NGO officials as public servants. The TOI report also said that the provisions which were affected by the amendment had been made part of the Act during UPA rule in the aftermath of the India Against Corruption movement led by Anna Hazare which had sought to bring about more transparency in governance. Because of yet another deadline extension and exemption of family members of public servants from declaration, the government was criticized for attempting to dilute the Lokpal Act after the amendment was passed in Lok Sabha.[53]

4·2 Shortcomings

One of the major demands during India Against Corruption movement led by Anna Hazare was that Whistle blower Protection clause should came under the ambit of Lokpal. Whistle blower protection clause is missing from the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act according to which it should have been the responsibility of Lokpal to provide protection to whistle blowers, witnesses and victims of corruption. It should have been the responsibility of the Lokpal to ensure the safety and security of honest public officials who dare to expose the wrong doing within administration. But in the present bill there is no provision for the security of whistle blower under Lokpal. One of the major demands during the Anna Hazare movement was to bring whistle blower protection under the Lokpal but the government didn't accepted this proposal by justifying that there will be a separate bill to ensure whistle blower protection. The government did came up with a separate whistle blower act 2011 which received the assent of the President on the9th May, 2014. The Act seeks to protect whistle blowers, i.e. persons making a public interest disclosure related to an act of corruption, misuse of power, or criminal offense by a public servant. Any public servant or any other person including a non-governmental organization may make such a disclosure to the Central or State Vigilance Commission. In order to ensure proper protection to the public servant it would have be wiser and prudent to bring it under the Lokpal or Lokauktas rather than having it under a body like CVC which is under the direct control of centre government. Transferring of such a power to a separate entity like CVC has created doubts about the efficacy of the whole proposal for the security of whistle blower.

The Lokpal established under the Lokpal & Lokayuktas Act, 2013 becomes, will have no role to play in the scheme of protection of Whistle blowers unless the Central and State Government notify them as competent authorities. Under the Lokpal Act any person may make a complaint about an act of corruption allegedly committed by the Prime Minister to the Lokpal. However the Whistle blower Bill does not say what will happen to an allegation of corruption against a Prime Minister if sent to the Central Vigilance Commission. Ideally, the Lokpal should also have been mentioned as a competent authority under the WBP Act for the purpose of receiving complaints. Further, under the Lokpal and Lokayuktas Act, complaints of corruption allegedly committed by officers of the three elite All India Services must be made to the Lokpal. The Central Vigilance Commission cannot inquire into such complaints without the direction of the Lokpal. What will happen to whistle blower complaints against officers of these elite services when made under the WBP Act must be clarified in the WBP Rules.[54]

Though the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act envisages that the Lokpal may use any agency it chooses to enquire or investigate complaints under its jurisdiction, in actual fact there are very few choices at the moment apart from the CBI. But, in order to ensure that such investigations, many of which might involve very senior and powerful members of the government, are fair and professional, the CBI must be functionally independent of the central government. The Act also envisages that the Lokpal will have powers of "superintendence" over the CBI. However, experience has shown that such powers are meaningless without instruments to ensure actual administrative control. The Act empowers the Lokpal with partial administrative control over the CBI as it states that transfer of CBI officers investigating cases referred by the Lokpal can be done only with the approval of the Lokpal. Unfortunately, all this is still not adequate to provide the required functional independence to the CBI. The central government still controls the budget of the CBI, appoints its officials, and is the receiving authority for the annual confidential reports of senior CBI officials, thereby making them vulnerable to pressure from the government. It would have been much better if the CBI had been brought under the comprehensive administrative and financial control of the Lokpal, whose own expenditure is chargeable to the consolidated fund of India. Or at the very least, the appointment and removal of senior CBI officers should have required the approval of the Lokpal and for officers working on cases referred by the Lokpal, the chairperson of the Lokpal should have been the receiving authority for the annual confidential reports.[55]

The biggest shortcoming of the Act is that while it makes it mandatory for Lokayuktas to be set up in each state within one year, state legislatures will be free to determine the powers and jurisdiction of the Lokayukta. The apprehension is that this could result in very weak and ineffective Lokayuktas being set up in many of the states, with limited jurisdiction. As much of the corruption that affects the common person, especially the poor and marginalized, occurs under the jurisdiction of the state government, the absence of strong and effective state Lokayuktas would deny the majority of Indians, especially those who are most in need of relief, any respite from rampant corruption. The Act envisages that all the nearly 30 lakh groups C and D public servants[30] would be covered by the CVC. However, it does not specify how a CVC, located in Delhi, would receive complaints, conduct preliminary enquiries, and exercise superintendence and issue directions on investigations, against l lakhs of employees who are spread across thousands of post offices and manned railway crossings, for example, in the villages of India.[56]

Under the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act, parliamentarians conduct in the parliament cannot be questioned by the Lokpal. What parliamentarians speak, how they vote in parliament on crucial issues is not covered in this act. We have recently seen cases where parliamentarians were accused of raising issues in parliament after taking money. Similarly there were cases were they voted in a particular manner after taking money from various political parties. Similarly citizen charter which was a essential demand during the Anna Hazare movement which talks of certain stands and time bound delivery of services is also missing. If the Lokpal and Lokayukta Act is properly implemented, it should provide a significant deterrent to corruption, especially the high level of corruption that seems to have become increasingly common in India. Of course ,in order to achieve that, it has to be ensured that the right sorts of people are appointed to the Lokpal, that they and the agencies assisting them are provided adequate and appropriate human and financial resources, and that there is political will, especially among the top political and bureaucratic leadership, to make this institution succeed. But the true success of this bill can only be analyzed after its actual implementation and its capacity to initiate inquiry and convict corrupt officials.

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19

Empowerment of Rural Women through Self-help Groups : A Sociological Study

Mamta Rani*

The study examines women empowerment through SHGs. It focuses on the socio-economic profile of the rural women. Empowerment is a process of change by which individuals or groups gain power and ability to take control over their lives, it involves access to resources, resulting into increased participation in decision-making and bargaining power and increased control over benefits, resources and own life, increased self-confidence, self-esteem and self-respect, increased well being. Empowerment requires that power can change. The researcher has decides to investigate the phenomenon by using interview and observation technique at Bhawan Kheri Village in District Amroha of Uttar Pradesh. This study reveals that there is so many positive consequences of SGHs. The good consequences of SGHs are improved self image also in our society, increase family income; condition of house, self-employment, facility of electricity, children education can affect our behavior of other members.

[**Keywords :** Empowerment, Rural Women, Self-help Groups, Decision- making, Policies of exclusion]

1. The Background

This paper examines women empowerment by self help group. Focuses on the socio-economic profile of the rural women; Empowerment is a process of

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change by which individuals or groups gain power and ability to take control over their lives, it involves access to resources, resulting into increased participation in decision-making and bargaining power and increased control over benefits, resources and own life, increased self-confidence, self-esteem and self-respect, increased well being. Empowerment requires that power can change. The researcher has decides to investigate the phenomenon by using interview and observation technique at Bhawan Kheri Village in District Amroha of Uttar Pradesh. The result shows that majority of the rural women empowerment are sub caste, (Muslim) lower class, Muslim female; line in nuclear and joint family and in poor living condition, engaged in self occupation, agriculture, labor and house wife. Work, have low in come, lower education but they are aware about way of life. It appears that the concept of women empowerment by self help group in rural areas is relatives to their socio-economic condition. Most of the women are engaged in own occupation careful about their family. They do work rise early morning. Every day, self help group is a financial support group that is formed at the village level. They pool together their savings until the capital is sufficient to begin tending. The interest charged on these loans is less than what is charged by moneylenders. Regular savings may entitle the group for bigger loans from a bank. These loans are utilized to generate self-employment, self help group function as a source of access to micro-credit for women in village. They are also instrumental in ensuring community - based decision making self help group also reduce transactional costs associated with lending.

The "Policies of Exclusion" of the so called patriarchal societies throughout the world, especially in least developed and developing countries are primarily responsible for marginalization of the women, both covertly and overtly. The practice of exclusion is widespread and it encompasses every sphere of society-political, social and economic and so on. It makes resources and organizations inaccessible to women. However, of late, it has been realized that the best way to improve the overall condition of the women folk is to adopt "Policies of Inclusion" in which every women should get a chance to participate in the decision-making process, express their view against exploitation and get themselves involved in the group activities meant for their socio-economic betterment.

2. Self-help Groups and Women's Empowerment

A systematic and scientific approach in the formation of SGHs is as paramount importance to the long term sustainability of these. Informal community based organizations (Rao, 1999). SGHs formed and promoted for limited purposes of availing subsidy laced bank loons, grants and other materialistic benefit generally disintegrate, (Fernandes, 1992). The SGHs developed for genuine purpose of self help in the wake of needs which had much better chances of long term sustainability, (Srinivash & Rao, 1996). SGHs like any other type of groups have distinct phases through which they pass over a period of time, there have been well over 100 theories to describe the development stages of groups (Johnson & Johnson, 1997).

The most famous of these theories has been proposed by (Tuckman, 1965) and (Tuckman & Johnson, 1977). Tuckman studied a number of groups of varying nature and objectives such as therapy, training and focus groups and identified four distinct development stages, viz. forming, storming, norming and performing. These distinct stages are characterized by the specific focus attributed by the groups during each stage and the related consequences on the behavior of the members.

The sociologists (Malagave, A. & Patil, D.A., 2011; Chatterji, Shankar, 2009; Ingarsal, A. & Balakrishnan, Dr. A., 2008; Divy Ninand Kaul & Giresh Mohan, 2009; Sangmitra Choudhary, 2008; Amarjeet Kaur, 2008; Arjun, Y. Pangannavar, 2008; T. Ramachandran & S. Balakrishanan, 2008; H. S. Shylendra, 2008; Renu Verma, 2008; Y. K. Singh & S. S. Gautam, 2007; B. Sugana & G. Sandhya Rani, 2007; Sreeramula Gooru & P. Hushen Khan, 2008) study the various aspects of women empowerment by SGHs. The resulting into increased participation in decision-making and bargaining power and increased. Control over benefits, resources and own life, increased self confidence, self-esteem and self-respect, in creased well being.

Study the various aspects of women empowerment by SGHs, the resulting women all over the world are over whelming. Concerned with the issue of gender equality, through women's empowerment in our society. Women have needs for food, housing, cash, education, health care, social support and protection from violence and above all for power within their families, communities and political units. Without economic and decision making power, one is dependent on other for the resources one needs, when resources are scare, dependency is a sure route to deprivation. They are many studies on different aspects of women empowerment but there are a few studies on, SGHs by rural women, so there is need to conduct such type of study which is based on women empowerment by self help groups.

3. The Objectives and Methodology of Present Study

This study focused the role of SHGs. In the light of above mentioned frame work following objectives have been undertaken to delineate the socio-economic profile of the rural women. The first objective to study the socio-economic profile of the respondents in terns of age, religion, caste, education, occupation, family type, family size, per year income, land holding etc. The second objective to study the empowerment of rural women by self help groups the respondents in terms have been included as sources of income, skill up gradation, change of living pattern, understanding the banking operations, skill of communication, awareness, decision making etc. The third objective to study the consequences of SGHs on rural women's life style in terms have been included as improved self image, increase family income, condition of residence, self employment, behaviors of other caste, children education etc.

Our study based on Bawan Kheri Village in district Amroha of Uttar Pradesh. The village is situated at Hasanpur Amroha road, Hasanpur Block and Tehsil combining Amroha, Dhanaura and Hasanpur. The distance of this village is 5 kms from Hasanpur Block and 27 km. from Amroha head quarter. The total population of this village is (2787) n which male 1476 and female 1311. Sex ratio 892 female per 1000 male literacy rate of male is 64.6% and female is 36.4%. There are two communities namely Hindu and Muslim in the village. There are no facilities like education marketing and other facilities in this village.

The data for the present study have been collected from 50 respondents for the require fulfillment of the information, respondents have been selected by using the purposive sampling, purposive sample representing the participants of (different categories) Muslim categories of age, religion, caste, education, occupation, income, condition of residence have been selected. Data have been collected with the help of some specific research techniques like-observation, interview guide/schedule. At the first stage observation technique has been used to collect the information, interview guide/schedule have been used a the second phase of date collection. Initially some case studies have been undertaken to understand the maximum possible aspects. The data have been classified by simple statistical techniques, by using the simple classification and tabulation to arrive at the findings.

4. The Findings

We have attempted to find out the facts have been observed on the socio-economic profile of the rural women, their empowerment and attitudes towards change in life and condition of poor women. The field observations are very clear that socio-cultural and economic background play and important role regarding the self help groups, it affects every aspect of respondents day to day life. In the socio-economic profile the following variables have been included as age religion, caste, education, occupation family type, family size, per year income, land holding of the respondent.

The respondents belong to deferent socio-economic profile, like the large number (38%) of the respondents belong to the age group (41-50), whereas a small number (12%) of the respondents belong to the age group of 51 and above. All respondent belong to the Muslim religion. The majority (78%) of the respondents belong to the Pathan caste; while the small number (6%) of the respondents belongs to the Naai caste. The majority (88%) of the respondents is illiterate and few number (12%) of the are belong to Primary pass. The majority (52%) of the respondents is engaged in self occupation and a few numbers (6%) of the respondents belong to agriculture. The large majority (92%) of the respondents belongs to the nuclear family and the small number (8%) of the respondents belong tot he joint family.

The majority (50%) of the respondents belongs to the small size family and few numbers (8%) of the respondents belong to the large size family. The large majority (74%) of the respondents belongs to the 10,000 - 20,000 income earn per year and the small number (26%) of the respondents belong to the 21,000 - 30,000 income per year. The large number (16%) of the respondents belongs to 1 to 5 beegha land and small number (12%) of the respondents belong to 6 to 10 beegha land.

The above facts reveal that majority of the rural women are Muslim caste. The women belong to the age group (41-50), education to primary level and illiterate respondents. The large number of the respondents is engaged in self occupation, have there income up to Rs. 10,000 - 20,000.

With The second objective of this study find out the great contribution for the empowerment of rural women through Self Help Groups. Empowerment by self help groups Empowerment is the most important factors which affect the rural women, but sociologists told that empowerment is related to socio-cultural and economic condition of society. Empowerment of rural women by self help groups in terms of sources of income, skill up gradation, change of living pattern, understanding the banking operations, skill of communication, awareness and decision-making etc.

The majority of the respondents (52%) are belong to self occupation and few number of the respondents (6%) are belong to agriculture. The majority of the respondents (58%) are skill up gradation in family, and small number of the respondents (42%) is skill up gradation in group. The large number of the respondents (46%) is change of food pattern and small number of the respondents (26%) is change of dress pattern. The majority of the respondents (54%) are alone understanding the banking operations and few number of the respondents (10%) are with family understand the banking operations. The large number of the respondents (44%) is skill of communication in family and few number of the respondents (18%) are skill of communication in Bank Staff. The majority of the respondents (54%) are aware for education and few number of the respondent (4%) are aware for politics. The majority of the respondents (64%). They are take decision related to family matter and small number of the respondents (32%). They are take decision related to group.

During the intensive survey of the village, it is found that the question of sources of income, skill up gradation, change of living pattern, skill of communication, awareness, decision-making. It is observed that women of this region are aware of own life, the concept of women in rural areas is relative to their social condition.

This study reveals that there is so many positive consequences of SGHs. The good consequences of SGHs are improved self image also in our society, increase family income; condition of house, self-employment, facility of electricity, children education can affect our behavior of other members.

The facts about that are as the majority (72%) of the respondents are the improved status in family, (28%) of the respondents are the improved status in group. The large number of the respondents (44%) is belonging to embroidery and small number of the respondents (18%) is belong to animal husbandry. The majority oft he respondents (82%) lives in Kachha house whereas (18%) lives in Pakka house. The large number of the respondents (48%) are middle educated and few number of the respondents (14%) are higher educated. The large number of the respondents (44%) is behavior good in group members, and few numbers of the respondents (18%) are normal behavior of other members in villagers.

During the field observation it is also found that the majority of the respondents improved status in family. It is surprising facts that in the rural women all the respondents improved status; are belong to embroidery as their occupation and they used to do hard work in their field. The lives in Kachha house in their village, most of the rural women are middle education our children. The rural women are good behavior of other members in villagers.

5. Conclusions

We have got some conclusion after processing and analyzing the whole data. It is found that majority of the rural is Muslim caste, the children educated up to middle level. The large number of the respondents is engaged in self occupation, belong to poor income group. They live in small Kaccha house, house light and ventilation in their houses and have not separate Kitchen, toilets and bathrooms facility in their houses. It is observed the women of this region are aware for self employment and decision-making, most of the women are engaged in sources of income, are careful about their children, feel good about their improved status. During the field visit it is found that majority of the respondents change of living pattern, thus rural women seems to be very punctual about their skill up gradation. It is surprising facts that in the rural society women are aware decision-making. They are very careful about their family, it was noticed that in initial stage of poor condition, most of the rural women are engaged self help group and improved poor condition.

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20

Technical Education Graduates : A Critical Study of Skills-Set Requirements of Indian Industries across Different Verticals

Sheetal Singh*, Ravindra Kumar**, Alka Agarwal***

Acquisition of skilled and competent manpower at entry levels in different verticals of the industries in India is one of their most critical concerns. The present study presents a lucid analysis of the job descriptions of different profiles offered by Indian companies during their campus placement drives in technical education institutions in Uttar Pradesh. Authors have attempted to analyze the job descriptions and the corresponding skills-set required by companies and the endeavors made by the institutions to empower their students with those required skills-set for ensuring their placements with suitable CTC packages. Job descriptions and skills-set requirements of 28 companies operating in diverse industry verticals and offering entry level positions to under-graduate and post-graduate students of a technical education institution constituted the sample of the study. Personality development endeavors undertaken of the institution to match requisite manpower requirements of the companies were critically analyzed to draw a best fit solution. Since globally recruits at entry levels in companies are supposed to possess necessary skills-set matching industry expectations and requirements, therefore the

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findings of the study will throw pointers to educational institutions to impart industry specific tailor-made skills-set to their students for their successful placements. Though there are many theoretical and evidence-based researches targeting skills-set, competency development and competency mapping of students in higher education system; however, an in-depth analysis of the job descriptions offered by different companies has scarcely been carried out exclusively in the context of the skills-set development efforts made by the technical education institutions.

[**Keywords :** Industry expectations, Job description, Skills-set, Technical education]

1. Introduction

During campus placement drives, companies operating under different industry segments invariably require graduating technical education students possessing different skills-set for being inducted at the entry levels in their different operation verticals. The students meeting the prescribed and the expected skills-set are offered placements in different CTC brackets based on their competencies and capabilities. Therefore, the competency and capability inputs provided by the institutions concerned in grooming their students to come-up to the expectations of the industries is of critical importance. Hence, the prime emphasis of the institutions is to raise the efficiency bar of their students to ideally fit into the prescribed person specifications criterions of the company/industry concerned. However, it has been an open secret that graduating students of most tier 2 and tier 3 institutions have not come to the expectations of the industries in terms of expected skills-set and thus remains unemployable. This scenario in turn adversely impact the market image of the institutions concerned resulting into poor enrollment of students, frequent turnover of faculty and support staff, and lastly financial hardships to their management in smooth conduct of various operations.

Through a meta-analysis, Osmani et al. (2015) recognized teamwork, communication, problem solving, information technology (IT), interpersonal, leadership, creativity, self-management, adaptability and critical thinking as the most commonly used skills and attributes in employability studies. Studies also reveal shortage of employability skills for management (Wilton, 2008), accounting (Lim et al., 2016) and marketing (Dacko, 2006) graduates. While knowledge and development of required skills is increasingly viewed to improve one's career prospects after graduation (Baker and Henson, 2010) as mostly industries recruit technical graduate at entry levels through campus recruitment processes. One of the recently published report (Economics Time, 23rd August 2016) based on 690 respondents has mentioned that the recruiters scan skills and experience of the prospective candidates first in their resume and majority of recruiters look for non-technical/soft skills-set for their job roles.

Researchers have tried to identify the specific skills-set requirements of the Indian industries from technical education graduates at the entry levels.

Researchers have collected information from Indian industries who recruit technical graduates through campus selection processes and identified a few skills critical for technical graduate at entry levels in different industry segments.

2. Literature Review

Takey and de Carvalho (2015) defined competencies as an "ability to mobilize, integrate, and transfer knowledge, skills, and resources to reach or surpass the configured performance in work assignments, and adding economic and social value to the organization and the individual". Moreover, there has been a progressively increasing realization among industries about the need to find human resource practices upon factors that are more manageable than intelligence and aptitude (Viitala, 2005).

In science and engineering-based businesses, technical competency is pivotally important (Soong et al., 2001). In an energy utility company, these are competencies that are specifically required for those carrying out technical and professional operations. The eight competencies emerged as important competencies for technicians and professional staff without supervisory responsibilities included communication, decision making, flexibility, initiative, problem solving, quality, team orientation, and technology acumen. These critical competencies represent the ability of non-supervisory employees to independently evaluate, assess, and implement projects. Competencies in fact provide organizations with a way to define in behavioral terms what people need to do or demonstrate to produce the results that the organization desires, in a way that is aligned with the company culture (Kochanski, 1996; Sanghi, 2016). Cameron and Green (2015) opined that since organizational changes act through the employees, therefore, competencies are the enablers of the same.

Baker et al. (1997) have proposed the following five classifications of competencies that every successful organization should possess :

1. **Strategic competence :** the degree of alignment between a firm's business strategy and the external environmental forces;
2. **Distinctive competence :** employee skills common at multiple organizational levels that provide a firm its competitive advantage;
3. **Functional competence :** the degree with which the strengths within a function align with the competitive priorities of a firm;
4. **Individual competence :** skills individual employees need to perform a specified job; and
5. **Competitive competence :** the alignment of the core business processes of the firm with the best practice standards within its industry.

Albrecht and Sack (2000) have emphasized the need for a quicker and more decisive action by the Management for operating in an environment wherein there are emergence of new companies or industries and ever changing and challenging requirements are for new professional services and skills. It is therefore the responsibility of the higher educational institutions (HEIs) to instill the desired employability skills in graduates (Ayoubi et al., 2017).

Leadership qualities and skills play an important role in any organization. Employers and managers consider leadership as an important skill for graduates to gain employment and deliver performance (Yang et al., 2014; Rosenberg et al., 2012; Bhanugopan and Fish, 2009). Since education and industry are inter-related as output of the education system is an input to the industry; therefore B-schools need to understand what skills the customers (industry) need (Rosenberg et al., 2012; McQuade and Maguire, 2005) and how to transfer those skills to students during a program of study (Holmes, 2013).

Identification of employability skills can also be used as a developmental tool to make students think about employability in terms of their strengths and possible areas for improvements (Pool et al., 2014). Majority of earlier studies on employability, investigated the skills of accounting (Jackling and Natoli, 2015), business (McMurray et al., 2016; Jackson and Chapman, 2012), engineering (Ramadi et al., 2016) and nursing graduates in a variety of industries. Some studies also measured employability skills of graduates from a variety of disciplines (Boahin and Hofman, 2013) for a variety of industries (Collet et al., 2015). Somehow, a few studies attempted to identify the employability skills of real estate (Poon, 2012), library and information management (Warraich and Ameen, 2011), tourism (Dhiman, 2012) and hospitality (Yang et al., 2015; Wang and Tsai, 2014) graduates in a single industry like surveying firms, hotels, restaurants and health care. Radhakrishna and Bruening (1994) compared undergraduates' and employers' perceptions about importance of skills across five broad areas of interpersonal, communication, technical, computer and business-economic and reported that the students consistently ranked all areas higher in importance than their potential employers. In another study involving undergraduate business students and employers, Gabric and McFadden (2000) found that both the students and employers ranked verbal communication, problem-solving and listening skills as the top three general business skills, but for other skills there were clear differences. Against this backdrop, to promote employability of graduates, B-schools need to make sure that graduates are able to utilize softer business-related skills and abilities as well (Andrews and Higson, 2008).

3. Research Methodology

A western Uttar Pradesh based reputed technical institution run by a well-known industrial family and offering various UG and PG programs in different academic and professional education verticals was selected for the study. The entry levels manpower requirements, in terms of job profiles and skills-set expectations, received from different companies and industries during a period of three years were analyzed against the Institute's endeavors for personality development of its students, by identifying and deploying in-house and outside resources and expertise. Different job descriptions of 28 companies were studied to analyze the industry-specific skill-set expectations from passing out technical education graduates.

4. Analysis

The following tabular statement speaks about various openings in different industry segments and the expected skills-set requirements from potential candidates. While subject matter knowledge including IT was found to be as one of the desired expectations of the industries, simultaneously greater emphasis was on strong leadership, communication (written and oral), analytical and man-management skills. While some of these openings offered by the industries required students to be tested on aptitude and technical tests; majority of them relied exclusively on group discussion and HR/personal interviews to judge the suitability of the students for the profiles offered.

Table-1 : List of 28 Companies under 14 Different Industry Verticals

Sl. No.	Industry Segment	Profile of Company	Position Offered	Target Groups	Skill-Sets Required	Mode of Selection
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1.	Engineering and Technology	Software engineering services	Graduate Engineer Trainee	B. Tech. (CSE, IT, ECE)	Good dressing sense, communicati-on skill and technical knowledge.	GET programming aptitude test, programming test and personal interview.
2.	IT and Software	Solutions Creation and delivery of innovative workforce solutions and services that enable clients to win in the changing world of work	Software Developer, Programmer, Manual Tester	B. Tech. (CSE, IT & ECE)	65% throughout in academics	Group discussion, online aptitude test, online technical test followed by document verification and personal interview

3.	IT and Software	Solutions Telecom products and software solutions company	Software Services -Trainee	B. Tech. (CSE, IT) & MCA	Excellent written and verbal communication skills, Excellent organizational, analytical, and documentation skills Understanding of the IT project lifecycle and project co-ordination.	Aptitude test/ group discussion, technical interview, HR interview.
4.	IT and Software Testing	Document Management Solutions.	Software Testing	B. Tech. (CS, IT	Technical knowledge.	Group discussion and personal interview.
5.	IT and Software Testing	Mobility solutions for Business of Tomorrows	Software Testing Engineer	BCA, B. Sc. (IT/CS)		Online test and personal interview.
6.	IT and Software Solutions	Customer Interaction Management Technology	Application Engineer	B. Tech. (CSE, IT)	Knowledge in data structures, OOPs and algorithms, and Knowledge in Java, C++ and C Development, Knowledge of SQL/NoSQL, relational databases and other data storage solutions, Candidates should have strong programming skills	3 Technical coding test, multiple rounds of face to face interviews
7.	IT and Software Solutions	Microsoft Certified Software Outsourcing & Development service provider offering outsourced product development, custom software development and IT outsourcing services globally.	BD Trainee	B. Tech/MCA/ or B. Tech/BCA + MBA	Technical knowledge, team handling, excellent communication and negotiation skills.	Interview

8.	Telecommunication	Telecom service provider	Project management trainee	B. Tech. (ECE, EE)	Leadership, Communication and Management Skills.	Aptitude and technical test, group discussion, technical round and personal interview.
9.	Telecommunication	Telecommunication	Associate TOC (Tower Operation Center) Alarm Monitoring and Fault Management	B. Tech (ECE)	Technical and communication skills.	Interview
10.	Telecommuni-cation	Telecommuni-cation	CMCC Associates	BBA/BCA/B.Sc./ MBA/	PGDM Good communication skills.	Interview
11.	Manufacturing Industry (Batteries)	Manufacturing of widest range of storage batteries.	Sales Trainees	PGDM, MBA	Marketing and Sales Specialization (Major - Marketing/ Sales)	Interview
12.	Manufacturing (Aluminum Architectural Products)	Qualitative and high strength Aluminum Architectural product	Trainee engineer, marketing officer, graphic designer, customer executive.	B. Tech (CS, IT, ME), MBA and PGDM	Communication skills Professionalism, Management skills	Group discussion and personal interview.
13.	Argo-business	Diversified agribusiness company and agricultural inputs, improved seeds fertilizers, bio-fertilizers, pesticides, cattle feeds, and poultry feeds	HR Executive Trainee	PGDM (HR)	Good communication skills.	Interview

14.	Pharmaceutical	Promoting and preserving good health	Medical representative	B. Pharma. and B. Sc. (Biotech)	Subject knowledge, good communication skills.	Group discussion followed by Interview (Technical + HR)
15.	Pharmaceutical	Pharmaceutical company	Institutional sales, management trainee - sales	B. Pharm., MBA and PGDM	Good communication and analytical skills and good personality	PPT followed by group discussion and personal interview.
16.	Healthcare and Business Services	Productivity improvements, Process Improvements & Transformations	Medical Coder	B. Pharma. and B. Sc. (Biotech)	Understanding the client requirements, knowledge of coding, able to maintain records of client.	Interview and group discussion.
17.	Power Distribution	Global player in manufacturing, distributing and maintaining 66 KVDDG and associated distribution system.	Electrical Site engineer	B. Tech (EE)	60% throughout in academics	Written test and personal interview
18.	Construction and Infrastructure Development	Infrastructure development in sectors like Mining, Building Construction, ROBs, Bridge & Flyover, Airports, Tunnels, Highways, Expressways & Roads, Other Civil Construction.	Graduate Engineer Trainee (GET)	B. Tech. (Civil)		Aptitude and technical test, group discussion, and personal interview
19.	Infrastructure Developers	Working on projects for US based clients.	Java Developers	B. Tech. (CSE, IT)		Written test followed by personal interview

20.	Advertisements and Public Relations	Airport advertising and largest network of outdoor advertising inventor.	Business Development profile for their Mobile and Internet	PGDM, MBA	Hard core sales professional, good team motivation skills, pleasing personality, well groomed, computer/internet proficient, proficiency in English and local / regional language, good inter- personal skills and good understanding of customer needs.	Interview
21.	Publication House	Publishing high quality books at affordable prices	Proof Reader, Editors/ Sub Editors, Subject Matter Experts, Content Developers, and Sales & Marketing Executives	B. Tech (CS, IT, ECE, EE, ME, Civil), PGDM, MBA, MCA, B. Pharm. & Diploma (ME, EE)	50% throughout in academic, well-versed in written and oral English, detailed understanding of the language and grammar, must be creative to give suggestions, ability to explain the concepts in a crystal-clear manner, complete projects within tight deadlines, and write in a creative and innovative way.	Written test, group discussion and interview
22.	Supply Chain Management	India's largest Fashion-led hypermarket chain	DM/ASM	MBA & PGDM	Good communication and analytical skills	PPT followed by group discussion and HR interview
23.	Customer Management		Advisor/ SME	Any non-technical graduate.	Excellent verbal and written communication, good typing speed (40wpm with 90% accuracy), and flexible to work in shifts.	Extempore, written test and interview.
24.	Health Insurance	A Specialist Health Insurer engaged in the distribution and servicing of health insurance products.	Management Trainee	BBA, MBA and PGDM	Good communication and analytical skills.	PPT followed by group discussion and personal interview.
25.	Financial Market Trainer	Pioneer institute in the field of Education, Certification, Mentoring programs, and Training and Developmental workshops	Management trainee	MBA/PGDM	Excellent communication and negotiation skills, good public speaking skills, highly motivated and energetic, conviction and problem solver, honest in terms of efforts and intent, good team player and multitasking.	Group discussion and interview

26.	Digital Market Research and Technology	Digital market research and technology company.	Management trainee	PGDM & MBA	MBA/PGDBM - with excellent written and verbal communication and strong interpersonal and communication skills. Able to solve problems and offer creative/logical solutions, handle multiple projects simultaneously within tight deadlines, strong attention to detail, proficient with Access, Excel, Word; strong internet knowledge, and knowledge of market research methodologies.	Written test followed by interview (Technical + HR)
27.	Manpower Solutions	Recruitment solutions, outsourced manpower, startup module, training and development solutions.	HR Recruiter	MBA, PGDM	Technical knowledge, team handling, excellent communication and negotiation skills	PPT, group discussion followed by personal interview.
28.	Manpower Recruiters and Solutions	Leading assessment company helping organizations in identify talent.	Research and Develpment Engineer	B. Tech (CSE, IT, ECE, EE)	70% throughout in academics	Technical round, publication and competition participation, personal interview.

Table-2 : Categories of 14 Industry Vertical Companies

Industry Vertical Companies	No. of Companies visited Institute's Campus
Engineering technology	1
IT and software solutions	6
Engineering technology	1
IT and software solutions	6
Telecommunication	3
Manufacturing	2
Agro business	1
Pharmaceutical and healthcare	4

Power distribution	1
Construction and infrastructure development	2
Advertisement and public relation	1
Publication houses	1
Marketing and customer management	2
Financial market	1
Research	1
Human Resource management	2

From the above Table, it is evident that majority of companies (6) who visited the campus representing IT and software solutions were hunting students with IT background having strong technical knowledge, and communication and negotiation skills. Telecommunication and Pharmaceutical related companies (3 each) were looking for technical and management graduates and life science graduates respectively. Construction and Manufacturing companies (2 each) visited the campus were basically looking for engineering students with civil engineering background.

Remaining other companies representing different industry verticals were specific in terms of manpower required at their entry level positions. Students having UG/PG management background were on their radar. Same was the case with companies looking for students in HR domain, who have strong academic records, sound subject matter knowledge, and communication skills. The publication house companies have various openings targeting students both from technical and non-technical backgrounds.

Table-3 : Skills-set Requirement by different Industry Verticals

Skills-set required from Technical graduates	**Industry Verticals**
Communication Skills	Engineering and technology, IT and Software Solution, Telecommunication, Manufacturing, Agro-business, Pharmaceutical and Healthcare, Marketing and Customer Management, Publication House, Financial Market, Human Resource Management.
Technical Skills	Engineering and Technology, IT and Software Solution, Telecommunication, Publication House, Research, HR.
Subject Knowledge	IT and Software Solution, Pharmaceutical and Healthcare, Publication House, Research.
Analytical Skills	IT and Software Solution, Manufacturing, Pharmaceutical and Healthcare, Marketing and Customer Management, Publication House, Financial Market, Research.

Team and Leadership Skills	IT and Software Solution, Telecommunication, Financial Market, HR.
Negotiation Skill	IT and Software Solution, HR.
Presentation Skill	Engineering and Technology, Pharmaceutical and Healthcare, Research, HR.
Interpersonal Skills	Marketing and Customer Management, Financial Market, HR.

Critical analysis of Table-3 reveals that as regards the skills-set, the prime focus of all these companies were on sound subject matter knowledge, communication skills - written and verbal, analytical skills, team work and leadership skills. Communication skills - written and verbal were much sought after skills required across all industries verticals. Further, certain skills have been found prominently in the expected skills-set at the different levels. In the case of openings in IT sector, while sound subject matter knowledge is essential, companies look for candidates having strong communication and negotiation skills so as to beg new projects at negotiating prices in the competitive market. This is an emerging trend, which needs to be taken care of by the technical education institutions. Another interesting trend which has been noticed is that even the students looking for career in financial market sector should have excellent communication, negotiation and public speaking skills to climb up ladder in their organizational hierarchy. This requirement is an addition to their subject matter knowledge and the intricacies involved in financial market operations. Certain openings were targeting students having strong interpersonal skills necessary for their induction into the marketing teams to understand and handle customer needs at different levels.

Thus a mix bag of job opportunities were thrown open by the visiting companies to students meeting their prescribed expectations and requirements. In nutshell the focus was on finding the best available talent for induction at the entry levels.

The primary mode of the selection was aptitude test, group discussion and round of interface with HR teams of the company to assess their knowledge, skills, and aptitudes perfectly matching various job requirements.

5. Suggestions

It has been observed that since the Institution was aware about the skills-set expectations and requirements of the different industry verticals from its students pursuing various academic/professional streams, for recruiting them at various entry level positions, it is therefore suggested that the Institute can design its training and development programs sharply focusing on the required skills-set by the specific industry. Industry need-based and customized training capsule can be delivered to students for building their competency as per industry needs. It can be helpful in designing curriculum and pedagogy appropriate for developing the required skills-set. In-house and industry-specific expertise be mobilized in designing and delivering such competency development interventions so as to keep pace with the latest development and advancements in the concerned industry sector. Since industries are expected to handle both the national and international clients, better would be if certain amount of exposure about the work culture of the international clients/organizations is also given to students to mould themselves accordingly.

6. Conclusions

It is apparent that all the industry segments certainly and exclusively look for manpower equipped with industry-specific skills-set requirements. Moreover these requirements register fast changes in the context of emerging business scenario at national and international levels. Hence technical education institutions' entire endeavors have to be in tune and consonance with such requirements along with the time horizon. This is indeed a big and challenging agenda but can be successfully met only with the mobilization and deployment at adequate resources at different junctions and point of time to make students the 'best fit' to the particular industry segment. Institutions falling outside the ambit of tier-1 institutions have to really fasten their belts in this regard if they wish to keep their necks high among their contemporaries.

7. Limitations

Relying exclusively only on the available inputs from a western UP based technical education institution and drawing inferences and conclusions will certainly not be faire enough to apply the same on wider population. Resource constraints were one of the major limitations of the study.

8. Future Scope

Wide spectrum of companies falling under different industry verticals could be studied for better understanding of the skills-set expectation from the technical education graduates. Baseline data of the newly admitted students on the identified parameters need to be captured at various intervals - pre, during and post implementation stage of the intervention programs and implementation strategies so as to gauge the efficacy of the interventions introduced and take suitable needed remedial measures in time.

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21

Participation of Women in Panchayati Raj Institutions

Deepa Sharma*

Panchayats have been the backbone of grassroot democracy in the Indian villages since its beginning. Gandhi had aptly favoured the panchayati raj and his dream got translated with the passage of the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992 (or simply the Panchayati Raj Act), which introduced the three-tier Panchayati Raj system to ensure people's participation in rural reconstruction in general and that of women in particular. It came into force with effect from April 24, 1993. The present paper is an attempt yo analyze the participation of women in Panchayati Raj Institutions. It has been suggested that there is a need to train the women leaders at regular intervals to enable them to manage the responsibilities assigned to them in the Panchayats at all the levels.

[**Keywords :** Participation of women, Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), Good governance]

1. Introduction

Village panchayats have a long history in India. They represent a system of governance prevalent in ancient India. Gandhi ji had aptly remarked that independence must begin at the bottom. Every village ought to be a republic or Panchayat with the authority and resource to realize the potential for economics and social development of the village. Gandhi ji's views found articulation in

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article 40 of the Constitutions. It enjoins that the states shall take steps to organize village panchayats with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government. During the last fifty five years , several attempts have been made to bring about effective decentralization both political and economic, with limited success. However, the year 1992 marks a new era in the federal democratic set up of the country. The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992 conferred constitutional status on the panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) It envisages the establishment of a democratic decentralized development process through people's participation in decision-making, implementation and delivery.

Panchayati raj institution have always been considered as a mean to good governance and 73rd constitutional amendment was done with the hope that it would lead to better governance and provide political space to the weaker section of the society like schedule cast schedule tribes, and women. The women who are elected are not always treated with due respect, many elected women complained that their suggestions were not considered seriously nor they where consulted while decisions were being made. Some felt that their views were ignored only because they are women at times. They were pressurized by their husbands to approve their decision made by the male dominated panchayat.

2. Review of literature

Palanithuri (1997) in a case study 'New Panchayati Raj System at work : An Evaluation of Tamil Nadu' reported that they were not informed or invited to the meetings in male headed Gram Panchayat. Women members have always projected the issues relating to women. It is common that the husbands of the members used to accompany them (women) when they come to attend the meetings.

Pai (1998) according to his field notes in Meerut District 'Pradhanis in New Panchayats' revealed that many of the Pradhan's were illiterate and only able to put their signatures on official papers. Regarding their roles, the study revealed that they were almost insignificant in the functioning of gram and block Panchayat bodies. As they belonged to better off families in the villages, they do not work outside their homes. They agreed to stand for elections due to family pressure and also the decision of their community and not because they were keen to do so.

Gowda (1998) also showed that the women leaders had links with one or the other political party as such members were persuaded and astonished by their political mentors who were already in politics. Till date we come across that women are supported by political parties reason being affiliation to such political and constitutional change is making women to some extent as a puppet in such organizations. This is also fact that there is a change in number of women coming into political activity and is struggling hard. However, it is too early to access the impact of women's entry into formal structures of the government.

Panda (1999) study observed that the most of the women entered the Panchayat Raj Institution due to persuasion by their family members and pressure from the village community, pressure from political party and their personal interests.

Kumtakar's (1999) study revealed that a majority of women leaders admitted that their husbands discouraged them from attending the meetings or hindered their activities. In most cases, it is the husband who made the decisions for Panchyat and the wives put their signature or thumb impressions on the official documents forced them to contest elections on provision of reservation and has not led them to participate in decision-making in local bodies.

Ambedkar (2000) showed that larger size of participation of women in Panchayati Raj Institution could take place because of reservation of seats for the women candidates.

Nambiar (2001) in her study of 'Making the Gram Sabha Work' noted the difference utilities in organizing the Gram Sabha Majority of women reported that they were not informed or invited to the meeting. While other were hesitant in Participating in meetings in the presence of a large number of elder members . However they have to forego their day's wages or household duties just to identify beneficiaries as to convey what the gram panchayat would do in future.

Nambiar (2001) stated that women were hesitant to attend such meetings because of frustration of not being heard and are only to communicate to the beneficiaries the plan of action of gram panchayat. Panchayati Raj Institution could take place because of reservation of seats for the women candidates.

Mandal (2003) also reported that 28% of the total women members took refutation of their points in the meetings without any form of protest or any pressure to take note of their views.

Ambedkar (2006) also highlights that almost 50% of the women Panchayat leaders belong to one or the other political party. Only few mentioned that they had no particular political affiliation and contested as independent candidate.

Ambedkar (2006) reported that women entry into political arena particularly at the state level depended on their support within the party than support from electorate . 20 of the respondents contested elections for non-availability of women representative in panchayat.

Nanda (2006) also reveals that in spite having a constitution and the 73rd amendment act which reinforces the equity and equality and social justice, women is insignificant and not into decision making in such bodies/organizations.

3. Aims and Objectives of the New Panchayati Raj Systems

The PRIs include the followings :

1. Establishment of Gram Sabha and there tiers of Panchayats (Panchayat, Panchayat Samitis and Zila Parishads) at the village block and district levels .

2. Regular elections every given year.
3. Reservation of not less than one third seats for women as members and chairpersons at all the three levels.
4. Reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward communities.
5. Constitution of State Election Commission.
6. PRIs are to function as institutions of self-governance and they have been endowed with powers and authority to formulate and implement their plans for economic development and social justice.

4. Challenges of Panchayati Raj Systems

Though the new panchayti Raj Institutions have now got constitutional legitimacy, some prerequisites for the successful working of the PRIs in fulfilling the socio-economic aspirations of the rural masses need to be taken care of. The structural short-comings of the Constitutional Seventy Third Amendment Act 1992 and the existing socio-economic power structure in the rural areas of the country are likely to affect the successful working of the PRIs and thereby people's aspirations.

- The 1992 Act empowers the State Legislature to decide the PRIs structures, their powers and functions, very little real powers in each subject area owing to poor delegation which is against the objectives of the decentralization of powers. As a result, to make Panchayats as an institution of local self-government has been ignored in much recent State legislation.
- The Governor is empowered to appoint Finance Commission by passing the two layers Panchayat Samiti and Zila Parishad. Financial matters in these structures need to be discussed.
- The very concept of decentralized governance based on the donated funds from the governments (central/state) is a false concept of decentralization. Because it cultivates attitude of patronage, irresponsibility, corruption, misuse of public money, exploitation and nepotism.
- No separate cadre for the PRIs has been provided in the 1992 Act to ascertain accountability.
- No inner PRIs relationship has been laid down.
- The act may encourage antagonistic relationship between the state bureaucracy and the elected PRIs body, authorizing the state legislature.
- The eleventh schedule leaves out law and order, judicial function. In the circumstance, calling the panchayats as units of social self-government's misnomer. It is only an instrument to carry out development schemes.

- Unorganized weaker sections of the rural society go unrepresented despite reservation of seats. In class, caste divided and hierarchical society of India, reservation of seats for women, SCs and STs has no relevance and not feasible.
- The 1992 Act ignores the highly exploitative power-structure in our rural areas. It also ignores the reality that the poor and highly unorganized masses are in no position to use their votes for their own benefits, giving them powers without doing anything about exploitative structure is surely going to be a futile exercise.

5. Preconditions for the Success of PRIs

Preconditions for the success of PRIs are as follows :

- The elected representatives of the Panchayats should exercise superintendence and control over government officials, i.e; serving the panchayats instead of playing a subordinate role.
- The power of dissolution and accountability of lower level panchayat units rest with the next higher levels of Panchayats and not with government officials in order to establish peer group accountability.
- An effort to revitalize PRIs is in attempt to reconstruct Indian policy by way of bringing so far deprived sections to their active participation at all levels of Panchayats.
- To ensure reservation of seats for women, they have to be governed, support services like health care, child care, maternity benefit and provision of minimum employment. Literacy is also a major step towards the emancipation of women as it means self-confidence and assurance.
- Provision of Separate PRIs cadres is necessary. The PRIs functionaries need to be trained in the panchayats legal provisions, the objectives and functions of the PRIs system of rural society : growth potential of their areas and skills of planning for overall development of the their areas.
- The panchayat should be entrusted with policing and judicial powers to maintain law and order at village levels and to settle petty cases both criminal and civil nature.
- Political will of the State government is the most important precondition for the successful working of the PRIs. But Political will be the product of the politico-ideological commitment of the party in power. Any amount of legal reform will not bear any fruit unless there is a political will to achieve them.
- Constitutional sanction is not end in itself. It is not an antidote to the ills that the panchayats system in the country is suffering from. What is absolutely necessary is a basic change in the socio-economic environment

of the panchayats through land reforms and restructuring of central-state relations to make the state government more powerful. A healthy state government can have birth to a healthy local self-government. It is needed to evolve power from the Center to states, states to districts and districts to the panchayats.

- PRIs should be treated as the single agency for development of the rural local level.
- Panchayats cannot develop as genuine units of self-governance without corresponding drastic reduction and restructuring of powers and administrative set up of the central and the state governments should be at least included in the eleventh schedule of the constitution.
- Single ministry for both the panchayats and nagar palikas (Municipalities) is suggested.
- In the preparation and implementation of plans for economic development and social justice, NGOs and cooperatives should be functionally associated with PRIs.
- Numerous Central and state acts, rules, regulations, manuals and government orders going against devolution of powers and functions to panchayats need to be identified for appropriate remedial legislative and executive action by the central and state governments. This task should be done by the law commission or other expert body at priority basis.
- Powers and functions should be determined by the legislature. There should not be any scope for executive failure in this regard.
- To become self-governing institutions , there should be true decentralized planning so that the district level schemes should be sponsored by panchayat (village) or Panchayat Samiti (intermediate) or Zila Parishad (District) but not handed over to them from above.
- Panchayats should be constituted for every part of the country including there as covered under the 5th and the 6th schedules of the constitution . In these areas. The basic principles of the 73rd Amendment act should be harmonized with the local ethos, traditions and institutions so as to have democracy with continuity. The central law contemplated in article 243 M of the Constitution needs to be amended to be amended as early as possible.
- Merely constitutional amendment cannot improve the access of the poor masses in the highest level of decision-making bodies. To ensure this, it calls for efforts in other areas like developing multi-level frame-work, including strengthening micro level planning processes, integration of the PRIs with planning and administration.
- To strength the poor so as to protect them from the exploitative behavior of the rural rich. The power structure that exists today in our rural areas is

likely to exploit the without panchayati Raj. If the benefits of the PRIs have to flow to the poor and if the poor are to be enabled to participate in PRIs activities, It is necessary that their positions is strengthened by various means.

- To ensure reservation of seats for women, they have to be given support services like health care, child care , maternity benefits and provision of minimum employment. Literacy is also a major step towards the empowerment of women as it means self-confidence and assurance.

6. Suggestions

It is evident that men's attitude towards women's entry into politics has begun to change from that of total rejection to limited encouragement and in some cases even to active encouragement. This trend needs to be strengthened through orientation courses and training programmers for officials and elected representatives, both men and women. Besides there is a need to train the women leaders at regular intervals to enable them to manage the responsibilities assigned to them in the Panchayats at all the levels. Some of the suggestions for making PRIs more effective and responsible are as follows :

1. Since the women members found it difficult to forgo their wages for attending training programmers, these must be organized at their doorstep and some of the articulate Panchayat leaders should be involved as the trainers.
2. Another important effort required for real empowerment of rural women is to bring about an attitudinal change in both men and women. The feeling that women are meant for household activities and acquiring children needs to be transformed into a feeling of equal partnership of women and men .To inculcate this they should be imparted education for bringing about social and political awareness among both.
3. Studies on women in politics have emphasized that contact with outside world makes women more alert and also active in the political process. There could be two ways of doing it. Firstly, interaction between enlightened rural women and illiterate elected one's should be encouraged. Secondly, these women could be taken out to the urban areas and their interaction with educated urban elected women representatives be arranged.
4. The women should also be encouraged to organize themselves The Mahila Mandals in the village can be effectively used as instruments to mobilize them for this purpose. Some successful women's organizations can also act as catalytic agents for encouraging the women's participation in social and political activities. The government should provide finances and infra-structure to some of the deserving and successful women organizations to take up the responsibility of encouraging the women elected representatives.

The leaders of women's movement in the country could also take up this task. They too can provide support to sensitize the rural women.

5. Incentives play a vital role in ensuring the participation of elected representatives in decision-making.

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22

Emerging Role of Women in Nation Building

Neelam Juneja* and D. D. Aggarwal**

Women constitute approximately nearly half of the population of our country. If they are given the task for the development of the country, they can make a wonder because they are more dedicated, more hard working, more sincere, more devoted to the cause. Now, the women are coming out of their inferiority complex and are shouldering all kinds of responsibilities with men. The present paper is an attempt to analyze emerging role of women in nation building with suitable examples. It has been shown that women have struggled hard to establish an identity of their own after independence in India

[**Keywords :** Status, Emerging role, Nation building, Indian society]

If all is well with women it will be well with the society and ultimately the nation. In India women constitute nearly 50% or half of the total population. The role and contribution of women towards family in particular and towards society and nation building in general is of immense importance in the backdrop of rapidly changing Indian society in the context of liberalization, privatization and globalization. In India and elsewhere in the world, women play a significant role both in care (home) economy and market economy. Going by the saying that "an educated mother creates a educated nation" is very apt if we are to build a nation in terms of peace and harmony. Educated mothers can inculcate their values and

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morals amongst their children in effective manner. Rural women are although illiterate or less educated, but they are developing spiritual, scientific and leadership skills by doing yoga, exercising and social work in specific areas.

As a mother, women want secured environment for their children and better future. She wants to see them prosper and make their hopes a reality. She transmits the moral values to their children, reduce the stress by motivating/ educating their children and equipping them with the qualities of values to face the challenges in the life. She is a pillar of home. Women's role in the family is extremely significant which cannot be described in words.

After performing her duties towards family and domestic jobs, she wants sense of relief, a sense of dignity and sense of freedom by involving herself in social activities, job in specific area, welfare of the society and help the needy people.

Women's status can be assessed by the respect and their position in society. No country can be developed and achieve objectives without taking advantage of women's potentialities and rational decision. Any business/ industrial enterprise is a key to economic development of a country, which cannot be possible without having rational decision of women entrepreneurs, as I feel. Women play a vital role in the social, economic and political development of the society provided they are conscious of their rights and responsibilities.

Women's role is varied from time to time starting from ancient to modern times. After independence women in India have advanced in many fields. In some fields her progress is a landmark, particularly in the field of education, management, health care and office administration. Women now outnumber men in urban areas. No body could imagine that such tremendous achievements, she could gain in a few decades. Women have become effective in each and every sphere of life.

I would like to opine that education is very effective tool for settling the problems amongst all human beings. Education creates leadership quality especially in women and young girls that is why modern women are inclined towards the social activities and improving their social status. They attend social functions and value her importance in social life. Women are participating in economic and political activities too. Today's Indian women are excelling in all the fields such as, medicine, engineering, horticulture agriculture, music, writing etc..

In depth analysis of history would reveal that optimum progress of a nation depends mainly on how the women are treated by the society. If all is well with women it will be well with the whole nation. Impediments in women's progress sprout from many sources : religion, customs, traditions and all other which can be avoided for the betterment of women.

Here are the names of some inspirational women who were the first Indian women to make history in their chosen field of work and became motivational force for women community :

Pratibha Devisingh Patil ji, born 19 December 1934, is an Indian politician who served as the 12^{th} President of India from 2007 to 2012; She was the first woman to hold the office.

Kalpana Chawla (March 17, 1962-February 1, 2003) was born in Karnal, India. She was the first Indian-American astronaut and first Indian woman in space. She first flew on Space Shuttle Columbia in 1997 as a mission specialist and primary robotic arm operator.

Bachendri Pal, born 24 May 1954 in a village in the Himalayas, is an Indian mountaineer, who on the 23^{rd} of May 1984 became the first Indian woman to reach the summit of Mount Everest. She was a gifted student who came from a family of moderate means, and encountered stiff opposition from her family and relatives when she decided to opt for a career as a professional mountaineer rather than as a school teacher.

Kiran Bedi ji, the First Indian Woman to become an IPS Officer, born on 9 June 1949 in Amritsar, Punjab, is an Indian politician, social activist, former tennis player and a retired police officer. Bedi joined the Indian Police Service (IPS) in 1972, becoming its first woman officer.

Indira Gandhi ji, who served as the India's Prime Minister from 1966 to 1977 and then again from 1980 until her assassination in 1984, is the second-longest-serving Prime Minister of India and the only woman to hold the office. Indira Gandhi was the only child of Indian Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru.

Kanchan Chaudhry Bhattacharya was the first woman to become Director General of Police of a state and retired on 31 October 2007 from service. She was the second woman IPS officer in the country after Kiran Bedi.

Flight Lt. Harita Kaur Deol was a pilot with the Indian Air Force. She was the first woman pilot to fly solo in the Indian Air Force. The flight was on 2^{nd} September 1994 in an Avro HS-748, when she was 22 years old.

Savitribai Jyotirao Phule (3 January 1831-10 March 1897), the first woman Teacher in India…without whom women could not possibly be educated so much as they are today, was an Indian social reformer and a poet. Along with her husband, Jyotirao Phule, played an important role in improving women's rights in India during the British rule. The couple founded the first women's school at Bhide Wadai in Pune in 1848. She also worked to abolish discrimination and unfair treatment of people based on caste and gender.

Sarojini Naidu was the first Indian woman to become the president of the Indian National Congress and the first woman to become governor of Uttar Pradesh. She began writing at the age of 13.

Vandana Luthra, a big name in the corporate and entrepreneurial world, is the founder of VLCC Health Care Ltd.; a beauty and wellness brand represented in Asia, the Gulf Cooperation Council and the Africa. She was born in New Delhi on

12th July 1950 to a mechanical engineer father and a mother who ran a charitable yoga ashram along with an Ayurveda doctor. VLCC was incorporated in 1989 as a beauty, slimming and wellness centre at Safdarjung Development Area in New Delhi when Vandana's elder daughter was merely 3 years old. she wanted to promote health and fitness, moreover, she loved cutting giving hairstyles to people and experimenting facials on her mother's face which later turned out to be an implementation in the form of such a huge empire.

Mrs. Sudha Gupta is an extra ordinary educationist who had the will power and courage to turn her dreams into reality. She is truly a pioneer in the field of early education and is accredited to have started the first chain of pre-schools in India, Mothers Pride. She envisions children as the future of entire mankind and firmly believes that instilling lifelong moral values in toddlers could be a tiny step forward towards creating global citizens, which in turn could make the world a better place to live in.

Mrs. Sudha Gupta was like any other Indian house wife. Her life revolved around her children, her husband and family. One day Mrs. Sudha approached a reputed pre-school to enrol her son, but to her disappointment her son was denied admission. This sparked off an amazing idea, she thought about starting her very own pre-school which would employ a holistic approach for the all-round development of the child. Thus in the year 1996, she started her very own pre-school, Mothers Pride in Paschim Vihar, Delhi with a motto "Love Blossoms Here".

Thus, it must be emphasized that women have struggled hard to establish an identity of their own after independence in India. In the present chaotic world, only women can handle any difficulty with patience and perseverance.

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Role of Government in eradication of Rural Poverty and Enhancing Employment in India

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Rural employment is not up to satisfactory level and most of the villagers are facing the severe problems of different types of unemployment due to that a large number of the youths are turning to unethical activities. Many literate, skilled and willing people are looking for the employment but their all efforts are like the tracing of needle in the dark. Though there are many types of unemployment prevailing in our society. The most widespread type of unemployment is disguised unemployment. It is a situation in which more people are engaged in an activity than the required ones. The people who are actually engaged in such as activity appear to be employed but in real sense they are not fully employed. This problem is particularly acute in rural areas. It is also known as underemployment. The absence of alternative employment opportunities in rural areas leads to this situation. Government should take strong action to overcome such problems because the target set in the present years to achieve the growth rate of 9 to 10% can be attained through the overall development of all the sectors of the economy and the fruits of economic development are shared by every citizen of our country. Hard decisions should be taken to compete in the race of economic development in the world, otherwise the gap between the urban and the rural prosperity will become biggest obstacle in our peace and prosperity.

[**Keywords :** Rural Economy, Population Growth, Unemployment, Poverty, Poverty Alleviation]

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1. Introduction

Employment has in itself the fruits of prosperity and development of the rural economy as well as the country as a whole. Employment can be helpful in removing the problems of poverty, illiteracy among the rural poor and superstitious people which would ultimately help in maintaining their decent standard of living. This will in turn help in the best utilization of the available resources like financial, human and natural resources. It will also help in the economic security and stability of the rural section.

But the present status of rural employment is not up to satisfactory level and most of the villagers are facing the severe problems of different types of unemployment due to that a large number of the youths are turning to unethical activities. Many literate, skilled and willing people are looking for the employment but their all efforts are like the tracing of needle in the dark. Though there are many types of unemployment prevailing in our society. The most widespread type of unemployment is disguised unemployment. It is a situation in which more people are engaged in an activity than the required ones. The people who are actually engaged in such as activity appear to be employed but in real sense they are not fully employed. This problem is particularly acute in rural areas. It is also known as underemployment. The absence of alternative employment opportunities in rural areas leads to this situation.

Though, population growth is also considered as one of the major cause of unemployment in India. Population in India has increased at a rapid rate, but the employment opportunities have not increased to that extent due to slow pace of economic development. The rapid population growth has created an army of labour force. Effective and meaningful measures are needed to control population. This needs to be accompanied by creation of necessary conditions for employment opportunities particularly in rural areas.

2. Rural Poverty in India

"Meeting the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs", was a definition produced by the Brundtland report (WCED, 1987). Stephen Lewis, former Canadian ambassador to the United Nations points out that the message of the Brundtland Report, which spoke on issues of the poor and the homeless, and of literacy and of the vulnerable and the disadvantaged, has largely been disregarded by Western society which is interested in balance sheets and in whether a given project results in more or less than "permissible" levels of environmental degradation.

There is a higher incidence of poverty in rural areas as compared to urban areas. This is testified by the Planning Commission's estimate for 2011-12 that 25.7 per cent of the rural population was living below the poverty line (Rs 816 per capita per month for rural areas) while for urban areas the proportion was 13.7 per cent of the population being below the poverty line (Rs 1,000 per capita per month for urban areas). Thus while more than a tenth of the urban population was living below the urban poverty line in 2011-12, a quarter of the rural population was living below the rural poverty line (Planning Commission, 2013). Poverty alleviation programmes in India thus become important especially in the case of rural India.

3. Rural Poverty in the Planning Process

Poverty is one of the most Important problems that India is facing today poverty is a situation in which a person in unable to get minimum basic necessities of life, i.e. food, clothing and shatter for his or her substance. In our daily life, we come across many people who we think are poor. They could be landless labourers in villages or people living in overcrowded jhuggies in cities. They could be daily wage workers at construction cities or child workers in dhabas. They could also be beggars with children in tatters. We see poverty all around us. In fact, every forth person in India is poor. This means, roughly 260 million (or 26 crore) people in India live in poverty. This also means that India has the largest single concentration of the poor in the world.

Mahatma Gandhi always insisted that India would be truly independent only when the poorest of its people become free of human suffering. At line centre of the discussion poverty is usually the concepts of the poverty line.

In rural areas, geographical factors as an externality can be predominant in influencing poverty, as for example, in how droughts can act to increase rural poverty by decreasing incomes from agricultural production. There can also be issues over the delivery of institutional quality in remote rural areas. Institutional quality can affect poverty alleviation and this is brought out in a study by Perera & Lee (2016) The study found that while some aspects of institutional quality such as improvements towards a stable government and a better law and order regime act to reduce poverty, other aspects such as improvement, in bureaucratic quality and democratic accountability along with corruption act to increase poverty due tc their association with an increase in the inequality of income distribution.

It can be added that improvements in bureaucratic quality and democratic accountability make the economic system more centrally determined, thus negating a multi-determined economics whereby income distribution can be more centrally determined unless policy leads otherwise. The correct policy configuration, however, can act to foster more equitable income distribution. This necessitates the penetration of public policy in poverty alleviation programmes in India. While in urban areas the policy infrastructure can be more far reaching, in rural areas great attention is required in terms of delivery mechanisms of public policy. There can be issues over the delivery of institutional quality in rural locations in India due to their distance from hubs of policy organization. poverty alleviation programmes in India that have a focus on rural poverty can greatly assist public policy in working for the betterment of the rural populations.

India has a legacy of high incidence of poverty, and as such it is considered a very important aspect of the developmental process in India by policymakers in the planning process. The Niti Aayog, the chief planning body for the Government of India has a Task Force dedicated to this purpose. In estimating poverty however, the first step is enumeration of poverty, and in this fixing a poverty line (with incomes below, which coming under the category of absolute poverty) becomes very important, and its exact value is usually widely debated after being fixed. On the basis of market prices in 1960-61, the earliest poverty line for rural populations was fixed at Rs. 20 per capita per month. Although it was not the official poverty line, it led to extensive discussions on estimating poverty in the planning commission of India.

These discussions on poverty in India culminated in an expert committee being appointed by the planning commission 1n 1977 under the economist Y. K. Alagh that looked to produce a methodology for measuring poverty in India. A report was submitted by the committee in 1979 that set the rural poverty line at Rs 49.09 per capita per month in terms of market prices of 1973-74. The report also suggested setting different rural and urban poverty lines. This was followed by the Lakdawala Committee which suggested a methodology to update the poverty lines over time in 1993. The Alagh and Lakdawala committee recommendations remained the basis for national estimates on measuring poverty until 2004-05. Towards the end of 2005, the Planning commission appointed the Tendulkar committee which submitted its report in 200g which made upward adjustments to the poverty line such that it could be updated. What is now referred to as the Tendulkar poverty line is used in estimating the poverty line in India (Niti Aayog, 2016).The values used in the poverty line however, remain a contentious issue.

The poverty line can play a very crucial role in certain poverty alleviation programmes in India in the Identification of poverty, the regional tracking of poverty and in estimations of expenditure for these programmes, Although the poverty line plays a crucial role in targeted poverty alleviation programmes it is not important in universal poverty alleviation programmes. In universal poverty alleviation programmes it India the benefits of the programme can be available to all rural households and are not hugely depended on exact estimates of poverty. An example of a universal poverty alleviation programme is the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MNREGA). In targeted programmes information on poverty is necessary and expenditure allocations are sometimes made on alternative criteria that do not depend on estimates of the poverty line used.

While determining the poverty line in India, a minimum level of food requirement, clothing, footwear, fuel and light education and medical requirement etc. are determined for subsistence. These physical quantities are multiplied by their prices in rupees the present formula for food requirement while estimating the poverty line is based on the desired calories requirement. Food items such as pulses, vegetables, milk, oil, sugars depending on age, Sex and the type of work that a person does the accepted average calories requirement in India is 2400 calories per person per day in rural areas. The ratio of poor people is not the same in every state, although state level poverty has witnessed a secular decline from the levels of early seventies, the success rate of reducing poverty varies from state to state. Recent estimates show that in 20 states and Union territories, the poverty ration is less than the national, average on the other hand, poverty is still a serious problem in Orissa, Bihar, Assam, Tripura and U.P. Orissa and Bihar continue to be the two poorest states with poverty rations of 47% and 43% respectively.

Removal of poverty has been one of the major objectives of India development strategy. The current anti poverty strategy of the government is based broadly on two plans. 1. Economic growth 2. Targeted anti-poverty programmes.

4. Rural Poverty Alleviation Programmes in India

Several poverty alleviation programmes in India meant to address poverty alleviation directly or indirectly have been launched by the incumbent government such as the Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) - a financial Inclusion scheme, the Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana - a housing scheme for the rural poor, the Atal Pension Yojana (APY) - aimed at increasing pension scheme beneficiaries in India, the Sansad Adarsh Gram Yojana (SAGY) - aimed at fostering infrastructure development in rural areas, the Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (PMFBY) - a crop insurance scheme, the Pradhan Mantri Gram Sinchai Yojana - aimed at attracting irrigation investments, the Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana (DDUGKY) - for skill development of rural youth, being some examples (Sarkari Yojana, 2018).

Many of these schemes are quite nascent and performance evaluations of these schemes are rather difficult. In the decades shortly after the turn of the century, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) and the Public Distribution system (PDS) are prominent examples of the running policies for poverty alleviation in rural India. Before the MGNREGA and the PDS working under new legislation, the Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP), the Mid-Day Meal Scheme (MDMS), the National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS) and the National old Age pension scheme (No Aps) represent some of the older schemes aimed at benefitting poor people in rural India. The MGNREGA came into force in 2006 and the scheme guarantees 150 days of paid work a year to people in rural areas. The policy aims to improve opportunities for rural people in gaining employment by providing guaranteed wage employment for unskilled manual work. By 2018, 1.5 million households were registered under the MGNREGA (Ministry of Rural Development, GOI, 2018).

The Public Distribution system (PDS) is another programme that helps in improving the quality of life of impoverished populations in India. The National Food security Act (NFSA), 2013 ties up with the PDS for distribution of food in India for providing subsidized food grains. About 50 per cent of the urban population and about 75 per cent of the rural population is covered by the purview of the Act and beneficiaries are entitled to receive 5 kg of food grains in a month per person at subsidized rates of Rso 3/2/1per kg of rice, wheat or coarse grains respectively. The Act has been implemented in all of the states and union territories in India and the government claims that out of a coverage target of 13.4 million people, the policy has reached 807.2 million people in total for both rural and urban areas (GOI, 2018). There are some discrepancies however, over the implementation of certain provisions of the Act by some state s (ET, 2017).

An example in terms of an older government scheme for the benefit of rural India is the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). The policy came into force in 1979 and aimed to help micro-enterprises by extending loans to beneficiaries for the purchase of assets and by subsidizing asset costs by between 25 and 50 per cent. Although some of the poor made moderate progress as a result of the policy, the IRDP has succeeded in helping only 1 in 5 people in crossing the poverty line (Saxena, 2013). Some rural poverty alleviation programmes in India are listed below :

Table-1 : Government Programmes to Eliminate the Poverty

Name of Programme	Purpose	Date of coming into force
Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)	Helping micro-enterprises by extending loans to beneficiaries for the purchase of assets and by subsidizing asset costs.	1979
Public Distribution System (PDS)	Distribution of subsidized food and non-food items to India's poor.	1992
Mid-Day Meal Scheme (MDMS)	Providing meals to school children and improving their nutritional status.	1995
National Family Benefit Scheme (NFBS)	Financial compensation provided to kin in case of the natural death of a below poverty line primary breadwinner.	1995
National Old Age pension Scheme (NOAPS)	A pension scheme for people of old age.	1995
Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)	Help in providing livelihood security by guaranteeing minimum days of work for rural labour.	2006

Pradhan Mantri Jan Dhan Yojana (PMJDY)	To ensure financial inclusion by ensuring access to financial services in an affordable manner.	2014
Pradhan Mantri Gramin Awaas Yojana	A housing scheme for the rural poor.	2017

With greater revenue available for social programmes, policy-makers can now look forward to more far- reaching poverty alleviation programmes in India. The Niti Aayog constituted a task force for the elimination of poverty on March 16, 2015 headed by Dr. Arvind Panagariya, the vice chairman at the Niti Aayog. Using the methodology described by the recommendations of the Tendulkar committee, the task force fixed that those earning less than Rs. 27.20 in rural areas are below the poverty line. The estimate was controversial and generated much debate in policy circles. Based on these estimates which fixed the poverty line in urban areas at Rs. 33.33 per day in urban areas in addition to the low income in rural areas, 22 percent of the people in the country could be classified as poor (ET, 2017). Many believed that the proportion of the poo can be much larger in India while others questioned the extremely low income cited as the poverty line. This is important since many of the government's rural poverty alleviation programmes in India are target schemes.

In contemporary times enumerative devices such as one's UIDAI is also assuming importance in terms of policy orientation in rural poverty alleviation programmes in India. For example, after the 20j5-16 budget, insurance schemes were introduced that made use of bank accounts linked to the Adhaar scheme. New poverty alleviation programmes in India such as the Jan Dhan Yojana make use of Adhaar identification. The UIDAI in poverty alleviation can be important given that many of the target beneficiaries do informal work. It can also help in establishing regimes of identification for poorer people at the margins such that their needs can be addressed by policy. Using one's Adhaar card to collect compensation in the event of a natural disaster such as floods is one example.

The use of mobile cum banking is also gaining prominence in financial transactions although many in rural India still prefer d6aling in cash. One good however, is that access to cash has been made easier in rural areas by the Intervention of government schemes. The problem for rural areas has for a long time been a lack of access to financial support or opportunities. Rural poverty alleviation programmes in India look to improve access to employment, food, finances and other such basic needs for people in rural India, many of whom can sometimes live in remote areas outsole the purview of large-scale development. A basic needs approach is all the more necessary in addition to fixing a poverty line in rural areas given that access to developmental processes and facilities might be more limited in far-flung rural areas.

With the advent of foreign capital in our country, the cities have abundant employment but the rural people are still short of these opportunities. Many business men are establishing their industries near the cities, neglecting the rural people which lead to the economic instability in our country. Due to lack of employment opportunities in rural areas many qualified people are forced to do low level jobs, which is waste of our talent. Many educated people of rural areas are working as labourers too.

To remove this burning problem, government should take some hand-care decision's government should take effective measures to check from time to time the development of the plans and policies announced for the rural people.

Government should take strong action to overcome such problems because the target set in the present years to achieve the growth rate of 9 to 10% can be attained through the overall development of all the sectors of the economy and the fruits of economic development are shared by every citizen of our country. Hard decisions should be taken to compete in the race of economic development in the world, otherwise the gap between the urban and the rural prosperity will become biggest obstacle in our peace and prosperity.

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