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- ❖ **Nehru & Democratic Socialism**
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Trump's Trade War

The US President Donald Trump's recent move to impose tariffs on up to \$60 billion of Chinese imports has virtually stirred up a hornet's nest globally. Media reports indicate that while driving fears about the impact on global economy, this move has reportedly fueled the biggest percentage declines in Wall Street's three leading indexes along with slump in US stocks. The presidential memorandum signed by President Trump aims at targeting the Chinese imports only after a consultation period and China will have space to respond, reducing the risk of immediate retaliation from Beijing.

Openly describing his approach in a tweet as a 'trade war', President Trump is perhaps aware that this move entails the potential of escalating into something much more disruptive. According to media reports, the European Union, Canada and Britain immediately objected to Trump's move, making the case that they were not breaking the rules didn't deserve to be caught up in Trump's anachronistic power play. China has brooked no delay in responding to Trump's move and has unveiled its plans to impose tariffs on up to \$3 billion of U.S. imports in retaliation against U.S. tariffs on Chinese steel and aluminum products. Media reports also indicate that Beijing is contemplating a 15 percent tariff on U.S. products including dried fruit, wine and steel pipes and a 25 percent tariff on pork products and recycled aluminum. China has reportedly assembled a list of 128 U.S. products in total that could be targeted if the two countries are unable to reach an agreement on trade issues.

History is witness to the fact that tariff retaliation begets tariff retaliation. During the closing decades of the nineteenth century, Italian move of raising tariffs to protect its industries from French competition was met with French refusal to negotiate and instead Paris threatened Italy with punitive tariffs if Italy didn't lower its own tariffs. While incurring the costs of the trade war, both Italy and France suffered heavily in terms of drastic fall in trade and dislocations in countries where they got supplies. The US-Canada tariff retaliation moves during the second half of the nineteenth century also attest to similar outcomes. Experts opine that the trade wars that ensued the Republican passage of the protectionist Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act of 1930 in US, which hiked duties on hundreds of imports, identically contain illustrative lessons for the current scenario.

Political economist Joseph M. Jones Jr., in his widely cited study from 1934, provided a warning about the trade wars that can arise when a single nation's tariff policy "threatens with ruin" specialized industries in other countries, arousing "bitterness" throughout their populations. India's official response to President Trump's move of raising tariffs is that New Delhi is waiting for the US notification on hike in import tariff on steel and aluminium to gauge its impact on domestic players amid global outcry over the America's decision to increase duties beyond its commitment at the WTO. It becomes discernible from recent media reports that the Trump administration has been threatening that it will act against countries which do not improve the trade deficit with the US. In 2017, the US had a trade deficit of \$22.9 billion with India. One expert has opined that if Trump acts to 'correct these imbalances', given his domestic policy and political agenda, and, of course, his core constituencies, the Indian economy may suddenly find itself in big trouble.

Tension between New Delhi and Washington has been escalating on any number of issues since Trump came to power, especially over trade issues, with Washington pushing for cutting tariffs. The US officials are reported to have been insisting on India making greater efforts to lower barriers to trade, including tariff and non-tariff barriers, which will lower prices to consumers, promote development of value chains in India. The fact that Trump is a different kind of president – unpredictable and often vindictive, should not give any reason for India to take a pusillanimous stand. Many experts are unanimous on the fact that in case the impending trade war does take place, India ought to take a clear stand and it must make common cause with whichever country or bloc that is going to take on the US – China, the EU, whoever. — BK

Nehru's Vision of Democratic Socialism

Mrs. S.P. Selvamani* & Dr. V. Veeramuthu**

[Democratic socialism is one of the most discussed and controversial issues in political theory and practice all over the globe. The word 'Socialist' appears to have been first used in the Owenite Cooperative Magazine to designate the followers of Owen's Cooperative doctrines. Comte Henri de Saint-Simon is often called the father of French socialism. He was one of the first writer on a new style of social reform. Hereafter, the word seems to have recurred in several writings. By 1840 the term 'Socialism' was commonly used throughout Europe to connote the doctrine that the ownership and control of the means of production capital, land or property should be held by the community as a whole and administered in the interests of all. After a century or so the doctrine spread far and wide and engulfed the Soviet Union and other regimes in Eastern Europe.]

Indian Democratic Socialist movement emerged in the early thirties of the 20th century in the midst of the struggle for freedom. Democratic Socialist ideas became quite popular with the Indian radicals engaged in struggle against British imperialism. Socialism in India developed due to the impact of Western education, thought, science and experience. It started as an intellectual movement. The first contact of resurgent India with socialist thought was through Raja Ram Mohan Roy, who had met Robert Owen in England. The Socialist leader Owen sought to convert Roy to socialism but Roy was more interested in social reforms than in socialism.

Rabindranath Tagore in his article "Socialism" in 1892 continued this tradition. He wrote "Socialist wants that the production and distribution should be vested in the society in general and not in the hands of some powerful individuals, socialism seeks to distribute wealth equally among all and thereby reunify society. Its object is a reconciliation of community and freedom in human society."

Later, in 1886, Swami Vivekananda declared, "I am a socialist." The socialism of Tagore or Vivekananda was an adoption of Western ideas to what was progressive in the religious and

philosophical tradition in India. It appealed to the rich to love the poor and do justice to them. It never called for radical transformation of society through the struggle of the exploited masses.

Among the Indian leaders of the thirties who were strongly attracted to socialism were M.N. Roy, Subhas Chandra Bose and Jawaharlal Nehru. Nehru and Bose were the ideals of youth. Bose considered that socialism could tackle the problem of poverty and illiteracy. He advocated planned socialization of agriculture and industry, and felt that an Indian form of socialism would have to be devised which would be in harmony with Indian history and tradition.

M.N. Roy was one of the foremost socialist thinkers. Roy started as a Bolshevik revolutionary and pleaded for conscious organization of workers, and peasants for class struggle. Initially, he believed in violent methods and advocated revolution, mass movements and strikes for expressing discontent in a typically Marxian style for its disregard for moral values and anti-individualism. M.N. Roy introduced a section of discontented Indian intellectuals to the theory and practice of Marxism. Roy's concept of socialism was one of the social reconstructions. He identified socialism with equality and considered socialism as a matter of necessity.

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While Jai Prakash Narayan, Narendra Dev, Aruna Asaf Ali and many other socialists accepted revolution as a necessary precondition for both socialism and independence yet after independence they gradually gave up the notion of violent revolution in favor of non-violent class-struggle.

Indian socialists, highly educated intellectuals, belonged to higher middle classes. These socialists made their own interpretation of Marxism and understood that it was not opposed to democracy. They always emphasized that socialism has to be equal partner of democracy in the process of development. These socialists toiled hard to bring to the surface the democratic and humanistic aspects of Marxism and modified Marxism considerably to suit their respective societies. Socialists believed not so much in changing men individually but were more concerned with the change in institutions so that opportunity for self-development could be widened. Hence, they considered that socialism cannot be anything else except “democracy plus socialism”.

Most of the socialists in India felt that Marxism could not be applied in India without regard to certain prevailing conditions. Marxism would have to be applied not dogmatically but creatively.

The contribution of the socialists to the Indian freedom movement and their role in independent India is many-sided. They endeavored to introduce new set of values into Indian society and the working millions under modern oriented leadership dedicated equally to the causes of Indian democracy and socialism. The socialists helped to place Indian labour in the world context and rescued them from fatalistic acceptance of their lowliness in Indian society. They tried hard for social transformation and insisted on restructuring of Indian Society.

A study of Nehru’s Democratic Socialism will remain incomplete, if we ignore the factors, forces and circumstance which drew Nehru closer to the socialistic view. In his long journey

of socialism, he came into the contact of various events and circumstances which affected his mind greatly. Nehru’s socialism was designed by these events and circumstances.

Impact of Brussels Congress

A very important landmark in the evolution of Nehru’s socialist thought was the year 1926-1927 during which he came in contact with the main currents of radical thought and movement in Europe, particularly through his participation in the Brussels Congress of Oppressed Nationalities and visit to the Soviet-Union after the 10th anniversary of the October Revolution. He attended it as a representative of the Indian National Congress.

“Nehru felt more and more that the struggle for freedom was a common one, against the thing that was imperialism”. To that international gathering had come representatives of national organizations of China, Java, Indo-China, Palestine, Syria, Egypt, Arabia and North Africa and of African Negroes. Many Left-wing labour organizations of Europe were also represented. Several stalwarts of European socialist movements were present. The communities had come not as communist but as representatives of trade unions and similar organizations. The Congress formed the League against Imperialism; Nehru was elected as an executive member, which included such distinguished personalities as Einstein, Madame Sun Yat-sen, Romain Rolland and George Lansbury.

This personal contact with revolutionary leaders and men of thought, who were all engaged in the struggle against imperialism and colonialism in their own way, helped Nehru to formulate his own views on various issues particularly of politics and economics. Moreover, there he got the opportunity of meeting many Left-wing labour organizations and many socialists and communities and his earlier emotional attraction for socialism found an intellectual basis. He was much impressed by communism.

The Brussels Congress was an important factor in the evolution of his thought and in his progress

towards socialism. For the first time Nehru came to understand the common problems of colonial and dependent countries. He also acquired firsthand knowledge of the inner conflicts of the labour world of the West. Besides strengthening, the Brussels Congress added new dimensions to his thinking.

He realized that the basic problems of oppressed humanity were the same that the colonial peoples must act as allies and comrades in their struggles for liberation, that in their struggle they could confidently count upon the assistance and cooperation of the radical wings of the labour movement of the metropolitan countries, that the imperialists were the common foes of progress the world over, that the Indian nationalist leaders' concept of political freedom was too narrow and inadequate, that nationalism could be a powerful and effective urge only when it included social-economic emancipation in its programme.

So, the Brussels Congress had a profoundly radical impact on Nehru's thought. His concept of nationalism was definitely changed, from a purely political and negative phenomenon into a political, socio-economic and positive phenomenon. And through Nehru, Indian nationalism came to have a new shape, a new meaning. The genesis of some aspects of the internal and foreign policies of independent India can be traced back to that international gathering of progressives.

It was at Brussels, for example, that the idea of the Afro-Asian group was conceived by Nehru 'Indeed, the Bandung Conferences in 1955', writes M. Brecher on the basis of his personal conversation with Nehru, "may be seen as the fruition of an idea which first found emotional expression at Brussels almost thirty years earlier." Such is the importance of the Brussels Congress in the history of Indian national life.

Impact of Soviet Union

However, it was the Soviet Union where the developments of far-reaching consequences were taking place that now dominated Nehru's mind, just as it had, an unseen presence, dominated the

Brussels Congress. He read all that he could lay hands on books both by partisans and by critics about developments and conditions in that country and found much to admire. Nehru, farseeing as ever, recognized that as she grew in power Soviet Russia might develop a new type of imperialism, but he thought that there was little chance of this for a long time to come and for the moment, for reasons of self-interest, Russia was befriending all oppressed nationalities.

Later, the articles of Nehru were published in book form, "Soviet Russia" in sixteen sections, each dealing with a particular aspect of the new regime in the country he had visited. Much of what he wrote was descriptive in nature, describing not only what he had seen but also the philosophy or the theory behind them.

He tried to elicit the truth about the new dispensation in Russia, so clouded at the time with passions and prejudices of the West.

Soviet Russia, for the first time in history, concentrated the whole strength of the nation in a peaceful effort to build, and not to destroy, to rouse a backward country industrially and within a framework of socialism. Nehru wrote his Autobiography: "I had long been drawn to socialism and communism, and Russia had appealed to me".

Nehru's commendation of Soviet society was due to composite factors. He was deeply impressed by the attitude and efforts of the new rulers to bring about magnificent transformations in the Soviet economic and social structure. The education pattern had been changed.

The problems of Russia and India were considered identical in many respects: both were predominantly agricultural countries with only the beginning of industrialization and both had to face poverty and illiteracy. Russia interested him because he himself was a prominent actor in the mighty drama of India with the ultimate design of introducing social and economic liberation. He was convinced that the Russian experiments would help India in finding out a solution for her own problems. "If Russia finds a satisfactory

solution for these, our work in India is made easier.”

Not only did the Soviet system point out a solution for India’s basic problem of education, agrarian reforms and the National question; the Indian nationalists had noted that the new Russian government had sent a note to President Wilson pungently criticizing his fourteen points.

Influence of Marxian Thought

His incursion into the world of literature on Marxian socialism exerted considerable influence on Nehru and widened his understanding of socialism. In spite of his close familiarity with Marxian literature on socialism, and his boundless admiration for Marx, and the significant achievement of Russia after the Revolution of October 1917, he did not persuade himself to follow blindly or implicitly Marxian socialism. Though the humanistic aspect and socio-economic contents of Marxian socialism influenced Nehru profoundly, he eschewed without any qualm the Marxian emphasis on violence/force or violent revolution, Proletarian dictatorship and withering away of the state.

He readily accepted the Marxian stress on social and economic equality and security. Along with this, he emphasized the vital importance of the individual liberty which was not very important in the Marxian socialism or scheme of things. He whole heartedly agreed with the Marxian goal of classless society free from exploitation. But he did not fall in line with Marxian thesis of a stateless society and the withering away of the state. Here he proved more realistic and pragmatic than Marx: “His (Nehru’s) adherence to liberalism, democracy, humanism, and parliamentary system urged him to strive for accomplishing the goals of socialism within the democratic frame work and by democratic means.”

In spite of the fact that Nehru greatly admired the humanistic aspect in Marxian socialism, the socialism, both in terms of ideology and strategy, was more akin to the ideology of democratic socialism developed in such countries as Britain.

But the study of Marxism, the truth of Marxist analysis and the existence of the Soviet Union sustained the faith of many others. Nehru was one of them. To him ‘Marx’ theory of history was of an ever-changing and advancing society. Nehru wrote in his book *Discovery of India*, “Much in the Marxist philosophical outlook I could accept without difficulty: its monism and non-duality of mind and matter, the dynamics of matter and the dialectic of continuous change by evolution as well as leap though action and interaction, cause and effect, thesis, anti-thesis and synthesis. It did not satisfy me completely, nor did it answer all the questions in my mind, and almost unawares, a vague idealist approach would creep into my mind. Something rather akin to the Vedanta approach”.

He had now discovered an ideology which provided the correct answer to the ills of the contemporary world. Time and again, he pointed out that Marxism alone satisfactorily explained the contemporary world phenomenon. The ills could not be correctly diagnosed or remedied by the bourgeois economists. The only people who are quiet clear in their minds about it (the economic crisis) seem to be the communists and socialists, who find justifications for their views and theories in the breakdown of capitalism.

The Marxism theory of materialistic interpretation of history, the progress of history and institutions through development of economic system, one system replacing another which had turned obsolete inevitably led to the advent of socialism. The Marxian economic interpretation of history by emphasizing the inevitability of class struggle paved the way for Nehru’s socialistic thought. It provided the rational for justifying the advent of socialism.

The pull of Marxism was potent for Nehru not merely because it was a theory of inevitability of socialism. The prime attraction for him was the scientific method he adopted in analyzing history. Starting with his college days this pull of scientific method was the primary magnetic force to Nehru and he attributed his attraction for Marxism to the belief that “Marx surveyed

past history as a scientist and drew certain conclusion from it.

Marxism sharpened his sense of scientific enquiry and pragmatism, and gave him insight to view things in proper perspective. Speaking about the advisability of gaining some knowledge about Marxism, Nehru said, "It is well to know these theories because they are moving vast masses of men and women today and they may be of help to us in our own country."

Influence of Gandhian Thought

The young Nehru with all his Western education and aristocratic way of life should not have been attracted to Gandhi who was deeply religious and austere in living habits. Yet it was nothing but his keen desire to serve the country that brought him closer to Gandhi whose "novel but untested" method of political action pushed him into the vortex of the great movement. If in the early years, their differences were largely confined to the objective of the Indian National Congress and the efficacy of the method of nonviolence, later, they disagreed on the content of Swaraj. Despite frequent exchange of ideas, sharp difference persisted between them on the fundamental problems of industrialization, planning and economic development.

Gandhi accepted some of the ideas of his young political partner and openly acknowledged that in his thinking he was "far ahead of his surroundings" In their long and intimate contact with one another, Nehru and Gandhi used to have a repeated and prolonged discussions on all vital matters. Although they failed to convince each other, they certainly influenced each other. The letters and correspondence which they frequently exchanged also revealed not only the temperamental and fundamental differences but also the many things which they had in common.

Though Nehru's faith grew progressively in Gandhi's leadership, it did not affect adversely his socialist learnings. (It may be remembered here that the seeds of socialism were sown in Nehru's mind when he was at Cambridge. It was during that period that he was vaguely attracted

towards Fabianism and other socialistic ideas). Again, it was almost during this period that he was greatly attracted by the events that were taking place in Russia, Bolshevik Revolution and Lenin's regime subsequent to it. And yet his faith in Gandhian ideas on one hand and socialistic and communistic ideas on the other did not produce any intellectual crisis in his life.

He was, of course, aware of the colossal poverty of the Indian people and had always thought that the first problem a free India should tackle must be that of poverty. However, his first contact with the peasantry left a deep mark on his mind. When Nehru saw their misery and their appalling poverty, he was over-whelmed with a feeling of shame and sorrow at the very comfortable life he led and the petty politics of the urban areas, which did not take into account the sad plight of the poverty - stricken millions of Indian, "A new picture of India seemed to rise before me, naked, starving, crushed, and utterly miserable. And their faith in us, casual visitors from the distant city, embarrassed me and filled me with a new responsibility that frightened me".

That incident greatly strengthened Nehru's consciousness of peasant India, which had taken roots in his mind due to Gandhi's influence. The Gandhian programme of rural uplift was in complete harmony with Nehru's recently awakened consciousness of rural India. Inevitably, he drifted more and more towards Gandhi's broad-based politics. However, Gandhi called himself as a socialist, the young socialists within the Congress did not take his socialist credentials seriously. To them as well as to Nehru, Gandhian socialism was a kind of "muddled humanitarianism."

From what has been discussed above in regard to Gandhi-Nehru relationship and their views on socialism, it can be safely concluded that though Nehru was tremendously impressed by Gandhi's personality and had faith in his political wisdom, he (Nehru) did not accept many ideas of Gandhi. Nehru had the ability to arrive at his own conclusions on different issues-political and economic conclusions which at times were not

only at variance from those of Gandhi but even diametrically opposite. Moreover, he had the mental courage to place before the Indian people his point of view through his writings.

Nehru's Views on Democratic Socialism

The socialistic ideas of Nehru were formed in bourgeois background. Bernard Shaw and Bertrand Russell were his early sources of inspiration. The Bolshevik revolution in Russia in 1917 provided him further interest in socialism. Nehru's visit to European country (1927-28) and Brussels Congress strengthened his faith in socialistic ideas. To trace out the socialistic ideas of Nehru, we have to depend on his speeches and writings. Though these writing are not meant exclusively for socialists, for the first time Nehru could present his socialist views in the form of resolution which was presented in Karachi session of the Congress. Nehru himself called it short step towards socialism. The Preamble stated, "In order to end the exploitation of the masses, political freedom must include real economic freedom of the striven millions".

The resolution thereafter listed a number of fundamental rights and other items which any future constitution of India should provide. The Karachi resolution was the first concrete instance where the economic thinking of Jawaharlal was accepted, though only partially. By the moment. Jawaharlal agreed, the Congress being an organization of tenants and workers, could not leave the peasants alone when they needed their help.

The peasant struggle, if any would be economic and not political in nature. Such a close association and concern for peasants and workers was the result of his socialist orientation. On 25th November 1921, he declared at Kisan conference at Allahabad, "We should also try to have Swaraj in our country not of the capitalist but of the poor and peasant. If Swaraj means that Britisher leave India and the capitalists, the Rajas and Maharajas should come in their place, the lot of peasant cannot be improved."

Nehru was the first Indian to understand the broader social, economic and political dimensions of various problems of modern India. He was not rigid in his approach. His pragmatism, rationalism and scientific temper made him flexible and led him to accept anything that was good for the country. Hence, it is difficult to categorize him. He was a Gandhian with radical views of rapid change in society. He was a Marxist who rejected the class war. He was a socialist who was committed to civil liberty. He was a nationalist who had full faith in internationalism. In short, he stressed the need to adopt every ideology suited to the Indian conditions.

Nehru did not believe that Marx gave an absolute solution for all the problems of the world. No theory is fixed and unchangeable. In spite of Marx's extraordinary insight into social phenomena, Nehru accepted that Marx might have made some wrong statement. He thought it was an injustice to Marx to apply his theories without keeping in view the facts and conditions of a particular time and place. In spite of his deep attraction for Marxism, Nehru was not ready to call himself a communist.

Nehru incorporated socialism with nationalism, thereby making nationalism a creative urge, a natural phenomenon and a progressive movement. By joining together these two historical forces, he diverted nationalism of its negative character and saved it from becoming a degenerate and reactionary force like the nationalism of the Nazis and the Fascists. He wanted the Congress party to follow the path of socialism. In a statement to the press on 7th March, 1927, he declared: "The Indian National Congress stands for freedom of India: freedom from foreign rule and intervention, as well as liberation of the poor and oppressed from all exploitation".

Nehru also said the socialism did not merely imply changes in the economic relations in society. It involves fundamental change in the social structure, in the ways of thinking and in the ways of living. Caste and class would have no place in a socialist state. Mere material

prosperity alone would not make life rich and meaningful. Along with economic development, ethical and spiritual values should be fostered. Then alone there would be full development of the individual. When this takes place the present day acquisitive society would be replaced by a socialist one.

Conclusion

Nehru's interest in socialism could be traced to his Cambridge days when the Fabianism of Bernard Shaw and Sidney Webb attracted him. The influence of the British Fabians and progressive and the political climate of contemporary India made him prone to utopian and romantic ideas. So the first step was marked by an academic, vague, utopian and romantic attachment to socialist ideas.

During 1919-1920, Nehru came under the influence of Gandhian philosophy and he left his legal practice to join the national movement. In the ensuing years, Nehru was much influenced by the social, political and economic thinking of Gandhi and he had completely come under the spell of Mahatma Gandhi. He accepted Gandhian leadership after a thorough study of the national conditions.

Nehru admired the moral and ethical side of Gandhi's personality and leadership, it was through his contact that Nehru realized the efficacy of the Gandhian technique of peaceful non-violent methods. Nehru's attraction towards Marxism was modified by Gandhian humanism.

Nehru was plan-minded since early thirties. With the advent of freedom, he aimed at achieving social objective through planning which had done a wonderful job in a backward country like Russia. Nehru was eager to give a planned economic content to the democratic structure of Indian society so that equality might be attained. He adopted planning not as an end but as a means aiming at "the wellbeing and advancement of the people as a whole, at the opening out of opportunity to all and the growth of freedom and the method of cooperative organization and actions".

Hence, he suggested that in a planned democracy, the system of free market should be subordinated to social ownership of means of production. He described planning as a process which helps in stopping those at work which make the poor poorer.

In the words of Nehru, the plan was meant to bring about a new social order free from exploitation, poverty, unemployment and injustice. He wanted planning to be instrumental in producing the maximum wealth and making such arrangement for its distribution that it reaches all the people and does not concentrate in a few hands.

Nehru's Democratic Socialism was a synthesis among Fabianism, Gandhism liberalism and Marxism. Though all these ideologies were also understood by him not as explained by others but in accordance to be fitted in his own mental framework.

Nehru understood Democratic Socialism as formulation of three concepts that is Nationalism, Socialism and Democracy. He did not view one apart from other and sought about a synthesis. Though these seem to be different strands of thoughts, the truth is Nehru never separated them; Combining nationalism with socialism is a unique contribution of Nehru to the political thought. He gave a positive meaning to nationalism by associating it with socialism.

Nehru's Democratic Socialism allows maximum individual freedom. He could not be convinced that socialism required the discarding of liberal values. He was of the view that an individual enjoys more freedom in socialistic society than the capitalistic society.

Another thing, which is noteworthy regarding Nehru's Democratic Socialism was that it was not constant. Young Nehru's 'Socialism' was more scientific and practical which is clearly visible in his speeches in Congress' meetings. It was more Marxian. As he grew older, his socialism became more democratic and moderate. This change may be clearly felt in his

'Discovery of India, but the change was not of 'Kind' but of 'Degrees'.

Nehru's Socialism was highly flexible; it could adjust with any circumstances. Actually, it was not his "Socialism" that shaped, directed and changed the existing pattern and circumstances, rather it was opposite. This attitude of Nehru brought his "Socialism" not very close to achieve the desired goals when tested on practical experiments. Hence, no doubt that Nehru was a socialist- a democratic socialist who was never willing to stick to a particular branch of ideology. He interpreted 'socialism' by learning through experience. It was Nehru's vision of Democratic Socialism that made this ideology suitable for Indian society.

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Appraising Food Security Policies in India

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Global governance promoted by the United Nations and international NGOs is often only crystallized on paper but does not translate into action at country level. Regional organizations hold a key place in the reformed food security governance structure as they perform essential functions that guarantee the smooth linkages between global and national levels. This paper notes the substantive achievements made for food security in India, but points out areas of continuing concern, including high rates of under-nutrition, especially among women and children, and especially in rural areas. The main planks of government food security policy comprise increased agricultural production, the holding of buffer stocks, subsidized food prices for subsets of the population, and the incorporation of food and other provisions into 'transfer' schemes of various kinds, including Food for Work-type schemes. This paper recommends a transfer of resources from predominant 'supply side' towards 'demand side' strategies of this kind. This will interface squarely with production-focused policies by strengthening demand in local markets, many of which are outside mainstream marketing channels. Food-based schemes will have to continue so long as surplus stocks persist. The main objective is to know food security, various policies and suggestions.]

The G20 has failed to tackle the structural economic dimensions of food insecurity and is therefore not the most appropriate governance body for developing food security policy. Other forums, such as the UN Committee on World Food Security, have the mandate to coordinate global food security policy and should be supported to fulfill that mandate. When the G20 took up food security as a major cause in 2011, many were optimistic that it could bring about positive change on this important policy issue.

Jennifer Clapp and Sophia Murphy (2013) note that economic policy reforms should aim to reshape the structural and regulatory framework within which global food and agriculture markets operate so that they could make a substantial contribution in addressing the distributional aspects of the food crisis. Indeed, because world food production did not drop dramatically in the period of turmoil on world food markets that occurred after 2007.

As Deaton and Kozel (2005) note, Indian policy making and politics are dominated by discussions of poverty, and measures of poverty rightly attract a great deal of attention and debate. The Planning Commission of the Government of India (GOI) has been estimating the Head Count Ratio of the poor separately for rural and urban areas for over three decades. It currently uses minimum consumption expenditure, anchored in an average (food) energy adequacy norm of 2400 and 2100 kilo calories per capita per day to define State specific poverty lines, separately for rural and urban areas (Venkatesh Salagrama; 2005).

Reviews

Koc et al. (1999): The conceptualization of food security goals goes beyond the adequacy of food quantity and quality and extends to the four: availability, accessibility, acceptability and adequacy. Food security requires that a sufficient supply of food be available (quantity) and that it be accessible to all equally. Acceptability addresses food is cultural and symbolic value, that the food available and accessible should respect individual's cultural traditions. The authors define adequacy in terms of the long-term

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sustainability of food systems (quality, in the broadest sense). A sustainable food system should help to satisfy basic human needs, without compromising the ability of future generations.

Objectives

1. To know the concept of food security
2. To know the policies of food security
3. Suggestions

Statement of the Problem

India is second most populated country where food security is major problem and it deems appropriate to know as to how it is providing food security to the poor people and what are the main policies adopted.

Methodology

The necessary data information is collected through secondary source i.e., books, government reports, journals, newspapers, Internet etc.

Food Security and Access

Food and nutrition security is a complex challenge crossing many sectors, disciplines and policy areas. At the same time, it is exposed to profound dynamics at national, regional and global level. Political leaders and governments need appropriate policies to deliver food security as a public good. Technical expertise on food and nutrition security is abundant, but an adequate enabling environment is needed to use its full potential as well as important drivers of change in the food security at all levels. Land governance and partnerships are also crucial policy topics.

Food security is met when “all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (FAO, 2002). Food availability refers to the existence of sufficient food supplies to provide a country’s entire population with a nutritionally adequate diet. While national agricultural production is the principal element of food availability, food reserves, international trade, or food assistance be an important component of food availability.

Access refers to the ability of people to obtain food, by purchase, production, or by food

distribution. A substantial amount of food production in rural areas is for self-consumption, but for most people food must be purchased. The concept of “undernourishment” measures access. This measure is based on comparing the cost of available food with a country’s income distribution. Van Haften (2002) identifies income distribution as more important than overall national food availability, albeit low, as the more important source of food insecurity.

G20 has failed to tackle the structural economic dimensions of food insecurity and is therefore not the most appropriate governance body for developing food security policy. Other forums, such as the UN Committee on World Food Security, have the mandate to coordinate global food security policy and should be supported to fulfill that mandate. The G20 should limit its role in the food security arena to supporting organizations that are specifically focused on food security, particularly where it is asked to undertake regulatory reforms in the areas of agricultural trade, biofuels and financial speculation.

Food security in India

Food security act was necessary because since 2010-20 has been declared as the decade of innovation, an essential pre-requisite for achieving the position of an innovation superpower is providing an opportunity to every newborn child to achieve his innate genetic potential for physical and mental development.

The three major components of sustainable food security are availability of food in the market, which is a function of internal production and if necessary imports; access to food, which is a function of adequate purchasing power and absorption of food in the body, which is a function of clean drinking water, sanitation and primary healthcare. The proposed National Food Security Act is being designed to ensure economic access to food through legal entitlement, while factors relating to production and absorption are proposed to be included as essential enabling provisions.

Summary of key points and policy recommendations

<i>The food security challenge</i>	<i>Adopting a food systems approach</i>	<i>Meeting the challenge</i>
Food Security is fundamentally linked to both socioeconomic conditions	A food systems approach links the activities of producing, processing, retailing and consuming food with the outcomes of these activities for food security and other societal goals	Food systems of the future will need to enhance food security while minimizing further environmental degradation
Changes in climate and in other key environmental factors will significantly complicate the achievement	A food systems approach can help to show how food insecurity arises and also provides a framework for policy development to meet the food security challenge.	Multiple pathways will be needed to deliver a greener economy and greener food systems; these include reducing waste at all stages of the food system and greater involvement of the private sector in planning and decision making.
It is imperative to reduce hunger and poverty in the context of structural shifts in demand and supply, driven by population growth, income growth and global environmental change.	A food systems approach provides a framework for multi-scale, multi-level analyses of the dynamic linkages between food security, environmental concerns and development issues.	There is an urgent need to develop technologies and policies that will result in sustainable production practices.
The challenges of food security, natural resource use and environmental change call for countries to renew their efforts to work together in the management of global public goods.	Food trade needs to be enhanced to encourage secure access to nutritious food for the poorest and most vulnerable.	More integrated planning and greater cross-system coherence across the global food security agenda are needed.
	Novel institutional arrangements together with innovating and enabling policies will promote cooperation between public and private investors in food systems.	A transition to healthier diets as societies grow richer is needed to reduce both environmental and public health burdens.

Keeping in view of the above points, it is time to adopt a route to more sustainable food systems and economies, which takes many different paths and includes more sustainable use of energy and patterns of consumption, as well as sustainable

intensification of food production. Agro ecological approaches based on a range of technologies and levels of production, improved food systems understanding and enhanced management will play important roles. Poverty

reduction and greening of the economy must be regarded as complementary not competing goals, since sustainable food systems protect the assets on which the livelihoods of the poor depend. Enabling policies and institutions are therefore needed to support the creation of real opportunities for economic development among poor communities.

Some of the essential components of a National Food Security Act should include

- A lifecycle approach, to legal entitlements, starting with pregnant mothers. A “First 1,000 days Child Nutrition and Development Programme” should be organised to provide nutritional support to pregnant women so that the new born has an opportunity to express his innate intellectual potential.
- An enlarged food basket that will include nutritious millets in the Public Distribution System, thereby achieving double benefits of improving nutrition security and providing a market for the crops of dry land farmers and tribal families.
- A decentralized procurement system and a national grid of community grain banks, rural go-downs and storage structures.
- Increasing agricultural productivity to meet the food requirements of 1.2 billion human populations.
- A food-cum-drug approach in the case of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and leprosy where prolonged treatment is necessary.
- The National Food Security Act is our last hope in getting coordinated action initiated in achieving the goal of sustainable food security.

According to Ruth Kattumuri (2011), Security (food and human) is one of the major challenges

confronting the world today. Food security is inherently interlinked with other current global challenges of economy and climate change. Food security is said to exist when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Performance of PDS not only varies across states but more so between rural and urban centres. Involvement from parents and other groups in some centres contributes toward better performance; however, efforts are not coordinated or uniform across state and urban-rural public distribution systems.

Scaling up involvement of multiple stakeholders including teachers, parents, civil societies, private organisations and religious communities would enhance accountability and performance of PDS in India. Student volunteers, who might be empowered to voice any concerns, from across the country could be provided with opportunities to participate in the programme to enable regular monitoring and better implementation. The government has prioritized the development of technology, such as the unique identity card, in order to tackle misuses of the system and effective implementation of the scheme.

The government is also planning the introduction of Global Positioning Systems and Radio Frequency Identification Devices in the 11th five-year plan to track food grains and reduce leakages. Availability of PDS documents in the public domain; introduction of computerised records, biometrics and smart cards are being developed for enabling monitoring and evaluation. The e-Public Distribution Monitoring system (e-PDMS) has also been launched for enhancing transparency, efficiency and accountability (Rao, Sultan and Siddiqui 2008). This program aims to cover the entire food supply chain under PDS including Food Corporation of India (FCI), State Civil Supplies Corporation,

State Warehousing Corporation and Lead societies.

Suggestions

1. The benefit should reach to the needy
2. Policies should be implemented properly
3. Proper Monitoring

Conclusion

The issue of sustainable food production must be rooted firmly at the center of all efforts to improve food security and advance human development. Ensuring the poorest and most vulnerable have sufficient access to food means making fundamental changes in the way global economies function (including ‘greening’ the economy), coupled with social changes in terms of consumption patterns. Political action is greatly enhanced by the setting of targets, but the multi-dimensional aspects of food security mean it is difficult to measure, particularly globally. Some indices are available in respect of food availability, access and utilization (e.g., agricultural productivity, food prices, nutrition scales; and proxies such as childhood stunting), but key indicators that signal future trends in food security overall are difficult to identify.

While a composite index that combines some elements of food availability, access and utilization with measures of economic development and political stability could be useful, it needs to be recognized that trade-offs exist between these elements.

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Impact of Globalization in India

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[The question whether globalization is beneficial for the world or harmful, is still unsolved and very controversial. Besides all of its disadvantages, it is an accepted reality that globalization is expanding very rapidly throughout the world. This paper is an attempt to find out what is the true sense of globalization? How it is affecting the social, cultural and financial situations in India. Globalization is the system of interaction among the countries of the world in order to develop the global economy. Globalization refers to the integration of economics and societies all over the world. Globalization involves technological, economic, political and cultural exchanges made possible largely by advances in communication, transportation and infrastructure.]

The term globalization is used to describe the economic, political, social and cultural changes taking place in the world in the last some years, which has been facilitated by the scientific revolution. According to the sociologist, Roland Robertson, “globalization as a concept refers both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole, both concrete global interdependence and consciousness of the globe whole”. Economists refer to globalization in a narrow sense, where it involves integration of national economy with the world economy through trade, foreign direct investment, capital flows, migration and the spread of technology.

According to Mary C Waters, globalization is understood in social process in which geographical obstacles to social and cultural arrangements lose importance. One most common definition of globalization states that globalization is a process of integrating different world economies. Globalization is integration among the people, government and companies of different countries (Rothenberg, 2003). For Peter Dicken, globalization is inherently geographical and as a process it requires us to consider the way; space, place and time are configured and recognized as a result of contemporary changes in technological, economic

and political practices. Thus globalization is defined in different aspects depending upon the background we discuss it.

The term globalization started appearing in literature from 1980s. Initially it referred mainly to the economic transactions and growth of economy. Soon it started penetrating to other fields like political, with weakening authority of states, emergence of global governance order systematic. Globalization acquired cultural connotations with global culture, global civil society etc. and today the cultural connotation of globalization is also widely discussed. Thus, the term globalization acquired all these connotations and exemplifying its influence on different realms of life.

It is difficult to say what exactly constitutes globalization as it is interpreted by different schools of thought on different matters at different point of times. But all of them agree on one point that globalization has a major impact on this contemporary world. Many are not still sure whether globalization is a civilizing force or destructive force. Globalization is as fascinating term these days as modernization, development and change have been for the last 20th century. To think of the world as a global village was once a day dreamer’s delight. Not any more instead the end of the 20th century will be remembered for bringing the dream of globalization to reality.

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On the one side, several outcomes of this transformation are within the reach of a large number of human beings, availability of fax machines, smart phones and the Internet facility are its examples. Globalization as a trend would create its impact on each area of human activity. On the other side, the process of globalization has generated universal disenchantment. Those applaud its arrival are fewer. Disenchantment prevails not only in the developing but also in the developed world. It needs to be analyzed as to what lies at the root of such disenchantment.

Globalization was introduced to India in 1991, when the Indian government introduced a set of reforms for the ailing Indian economy to prevent it from further deterioration. These reforms were the Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization. Since 1991, we have seen major changes in India. Globalization has opened India to the world and has brought in the much needed exposure. Globalization has had impacts in the economic, social, cultural and political spheres of India. The most significant impact of globalization remains on the economic sector. India has seen tremendous growth since 1991. India is one of the fastest growing countries in the world and that is all due to the reforms undertaken in 1991. The role of Multi-National Corporations (MNCs) is very significant in the Indian scenario. The MNC's were brought in by Globalization.

Globalization's Impact on Socio-Cultural Aspects

Globalization has had a very profound impact on Indian culture. And this can be seen anywhere. It has had a very deep impact on our culture and has dug its way to the roots of our culture. In 1991, only 10% of the Indian urban population had access to a television. In 2009, that has increased to a whopping 85%. Cable television has made inroads into the Indian household. Foreign movies have come and have reflected their culture in it. This has made a huge impact on the minds of the Indian people.

Not to mention the easy availability of Internet whose reach even extends till rural areas. The

internet has opened up opportunities for people to learn more about foreign cultures and places. It has made Indians more acceptable and tolerant towards change. Globalization has broken all borders. As a result, the new generation of Indians is more knowledgeable, more aware and more interested in the world around them.

Women, who were once the exploited and ignored part of the population, now assert their rights of being a woman. Women now have more access to education and know more about their rights and their identity as a woman. They no longer bear the traditional role of a mere wife, mother or homemaker. Nowadays, you find women in the society who work alongside men. Male-dominated fields see the coming up of the women. Men and women are slowly being treated equally. However, this does not mean that all Indian women are fully free. In many places, exploitation still continues.

There has been both positive and negative impact of globalization on social and cultural values in India. There is no denying the fact that globalization has brought cheers to people's life by opening new vistas of employment. It has also made inroads in the cultural heritage of this country. Through the development of globalization world is getting into an identical culture that is understood by every nation, we may call it intermixing of the cultures. People of the world, especially the people of rich countries are getting less conscious about their nations' cultures and they have started emerging in world culture.

Globalization has resulted in increasing the diversity and boosting telecom and tourism sector of the world (Nigam, 2009). The very concept of globalization is a major challenge for existing conception of world culture. It is clearly being discussed by the political scientist Samuel P Huntington in his book, *The Clash of Civilizations and Remaking of the World Order*. According to him, the fundamental conflict in the world will not be ideological or political. But the great divisions among humankind and the dominating source of conflict will be cultural. He

also argued that nation states will remain the most powerful actors in world affairs, but the principal conflicts of global politics will occur between nations and groups of different civilizations.

The clash of civilizations will dominate global politics. He said, the fault lines between civilizations will be the battle lines of the future. When we talk about cultural globalization, the role of media and communication is also often discussed under this title. Globalization and communication are deeply tangled. There is a common agreement among the scholars that practically, there would be no globalization without media and communication.

Impact of Globalization on Financial Aspect

The concept of economic development refers to the process of improvement in the economic opportunities, and quality of human lives; and reduction in the poverty. Better health facilities, better education, clean environment and better utilization of resources are the important components of economic development. Moreover, the justified distribution of goods and services is also the part of economic development. A good distribution network that includes the good transportation system results in not only better delivery of goods and services but the improvement of labors mobility (Henderson, 2007).

According to (Bell, 1987), “Economic development is a field of economics which is related to the process of development. It not only focuses on ways of enhancing structural change and economic growth but also improving the potential of the mass of the population; for instance, through education, health and workplace conditions”. Globalization has changed the picture of world economy, by increasing the cross-border trade, exchanges of currency, free flow of capital, movement of people and flow of information.

Globalization has introduced the concept of border-less and integrated world economy. While transforming the businesses worldwide, globalization has facilitated the occurrence of strategic changes in the businesses, which now target markets for businesses not only at home, but the entire globe (Intriligator, 2003). Economic development refers to the improvements in quality of human life. According to a widely acceptable definition, economic development means the changes in local economies’ capacity of wealth creation (Kane & Sand, 1988).

According to traditional view, economic development refers to the economic system that might be a means to increase the absolute size of, for instance, capital or annual production regardless to the size of population but in the modern sense, economic development is used in relation to the movement in real income per head and to the potential in this respect (Robbins, 1968).

Socialization of people for improving business and financial activities across the globe can be referred as globalization. It is not a new phenomenon as people kept searching new places and avenues to increase their business activities as evident by explorations of Vasco De Gama, Columbus and East India Company. Bitter experiences from East India Companies & British rule makes the Indians little bit cautious for adventures of globalization. This has been the root cause for delay in liberalization in India.

In literary terms, globalization has been defined in several ways as evident from definitions reproduced below. In the initial sense of the term, globalization refers to the spread of new forms of non-territorial social activity. To make term more clearly, globalization has been defined as the process of rapid integration of countries and happening through greater foreign trade and foreign investment. In essence, it refers to increased possibilities for action between and among people in situations irrespective of

geographical considerations as per the definition of social theorists.

Developed countries have been trying to pursue developing countries to liberalize the trade and allow more flexibility in business policies to provide equal opportunities to multinational firms in their domestic market. International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank helped them in this endeavour. Liberalization began to hold its foot on barren lands of developing countries like India by means of reduction in excise duties on electronic goods in a fixed time frame. Indian government did the same and liberalized the trade and investment due to the pressure from World Trade Organization. Import duties were cut down phase-wise to allow MNC's operate in India on equality basis.

As a result, globalization has brought to India new technologies, new products and also the economic opportunities. Despite bureaucracy, lack of infrastructure and an ambiguous policy framework that adversely impact MNCs operating in India, MNCs are looking at India in a big way, and are making huge investments to set up R&D centers in the country. India has made a lead over other growing economies for IT, business processing, and R&D investments.

Changes in Social and Cultural Life Due to Globalization

- Cable television and foreign movies became widely available for the first time and have acted as a catalyst in bulldozing the cultural boundaries.
- All these technologies have changed perceptions and dreams of ordinary people.
- Unmarried boys and girls are sharing same apartment and staying away from their parents.
- Indian youths leaving education in mid-way and joining MNCs

- There has been an increase in the violence, particularly against women.
- Scientific and technological innovations have made life quite comfortable, fast and enjoyable.
- More availability of cheap and filthy material (CDs or DVDs of Hollywood movies, porn movies, sex toys, foreign channels like MTV) in the name of liberalization.
- In India, land-line or basic phone was a prestige symbol few years back but now you find people riding bicycle with a mobile in hand, talking or listening music.
- Society has become more open compared to its earlier conservative look due to exposure to other cultures through DTH or cable network.
- This has contributed to dating, celebration of friendship days/valentine day, and resulted in rising number of call girls and make them more prone to sexually transmitted diseases.
- People are less worried for government jobs as MNC's and private or public sector are offering more lucrative jobs.
- Extension of Internet facilities even to rural areas.
- In place of old cinema halls, multiplex theatres are coming up.
- Old restaurants are now replaced by McDonald. fast food chains and Chinese dishes have replaced juice corners and Parathas.
- More inflow of money has aggravated deep-rooted problem of corruption.
- More scandals and scams compared to pre-globalization era.

Changes in Financial Aspect Due to Globalization

- Entry of the private sector banks has completely transformed the functioning of public sector banks
- Commencement of the depository that helped common men to become the retail investors
- Fall in interest rates; smaller monthly installments made life more simple to Indian customer
- ATM's (Automated Teller Machines) made bank transactions easier to common men than few years back.
- Online trading, online purchases of various finance products and online banking have helped common men to participate in investment process.
- Salaries are now more attractive than in the nineties.
- Students get selected by the companies through campus recruitment an year before the date of completion of their technical education.
- Large salary hikes than offered few years ago.
- More emphasis on performance and not on number of years in the job.
- More flexibility in timings and work from home arrangements are becoming common.
- Office automation has helped improving efficiency of employees
- More and more recruitments are being made using job portals. Earlier ads were placed in the newspapers.
- Number of ATMs has increased from 500 in 1998 to 32300 in 2008; 1st ATM was installed by HSBC in 1987
- Computerization of banks has helped speed up the bank transactions.
- Net banking is used by 32% of saving bank account holders in 2008 compared to 1% in 1998. Likewise mobile banking was offered by 6% banks in 1998 that is now being offered by 90% banks in 2008.
- 1st debit card and 1st credit card were issued by Citibank in 1998 and 1990, respectively.
- Tax reforms have given common men more freedom to invest money and more purchasing power than ever before
- Tax concessions on interest of housing loan, and easy availability of house loans have helped common men to own a dream house. However, increase in interest rates recently has made life difficult for salaried people. Housing loan accounts have increased from 4 lakh in 1998 to 45 lakh in 2008.

Impact of globalization in India has also many other dimensions. It has wide ranging impact on everything else connected with our lives. It impacts our entire culture or the entire value system, on the milieu in which we are living. We are creating human beings who are capable of consuming certain products. The emphasis is no longer on creating the products that are required by the human beings rather creating human beings that are required for the products. This is essentially the defining feature of culture under Globalization. Human beings are reduced to the status of products who will consume the other products that capitalism produces. This entire trend of culture -consumerism, degeneration etc. creates its own atmosphere which affects every aspect of our life and society.

Conclusion

Generally, globalization can be understood as a process which compresses the world into a small space where business and technology play a predominant role in new social relations. Although globalization has started with relaxation of economic rules to accommodate free market principles and foreign players, now it has grown beyond the comprehension of economists. Today, it is a massive social process demanding an

altogether different method to understand the developments in culture, society, religion, polity and personal relations. These factors and characteristics of society need separate analysis to know the globalization fully well.

Globalization is thus an ongoing syndrome. Globalization is not only about interplays between local, regional, national and global scales, but also about the interconnectedness, flows and uneven development in the world. The strategic keys that accelerated the growth of globalization were transnational corporations, technical change, governments etc. Globalization has brought not only advantages to the globe by providing large range of imported products or by raising the basic standard of living of people; but also, has cast major impacts on the socio-political- economic and cultural realms of life by diminishing the role of state, challenging the unique culture of every society, attacking the social structures, much diversity in the global society etc. However, despite identification of risks and opportunities of globalization, the whole phenomenon is still very difficult to predict.

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Child Labour in India: Problems and Solutions

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[The problem of child labour has been more serious in developing countries due to poverty, hunger, illiteracy, ignorance, traditional thinking and lack of proper implementation of child labour laws. The problem of child labour still persists in our society where the children of age below 14 years have been working in various fields and in very hazardous conditions. The number of child labour has been increasing in our country and the number of child labour is more in our country as compared to any other country in the world. Many provisions are provided in our Constitution and in law to control child labour but socio-economic conditions prevalent in the country do not force children to get compulsory education and to enjoy right to education. An attempt has been made in this paper to provide brief account of child labour laws in our country, reasons for child labour and suggestions to control child labour. The main objective of this paper is to know the concept of child labour in India and the reasons for its persistence despite legal safeguards.]

Children are the greatest gift to humanity and childhood is an important and impressionable stage of human development as it holds the potential to the future development of any society. Children who are brought up in an environment, which is conducive to their intellectual, physical and social health, grow up to be responsible and productive members of society. Every nation links its future with the present status of its children.

By performing work when they are too young for the task, children unduly reduce their present welfare or their future income earning capabilities, either by shrinking their future external choice sets or by reducing their own future individual productive capabilities. Under extreme economic distress, children are forced to forego educational opportunities and take up jobs which are mostly exploitative as they are usually underpaid and engaged in hazardous conditions.

India accounts for the second highest number where child labour in the world is concerned. The fact is that across the length and breadth of the nation, children are in a pathetic condition,

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while experts blame the system, poverty, illiteracy and unemployment, yet the fact is that the entire nation is responsible for every crime against a child. Instead of nipping the problem in the bud, child labour in India is allowed to increase with each passing year.

Concept of child labour

The category of population that falls between the birth and physical maturity is termed as 'child'. Child means a person who has not completed his fourteenth year of age. This section of children is not at their teens. The children in this age group are in formative stage physically and mentally. Any kind of exploitation and oppression on them leads to child abuse. The working children of this age-group i.e. between 6-14 years of age are therefore, dubbed as 'child labour'. The child labour has different connotations which are elucidated as follows.

Definitions

Child labour refers to the use of children as a source of labour while depriving them of their fundamental rights in the process. Such rights include the opportunity to enjoy their childhood, attend school regularly, have peace of mind, and live a dignified life.

According to International Labour Organization (ILO), the term 'child labour' is often defined as work that deprives children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to physical and mental development.

India's Census 2001 defines child labour as, "participation of a child less than 17 years of age in any economically productive activity with or without compensation, wages or profit. Such participation could be physical or mental or both. This work includes part-time help or unpaid work on the farm, family enterprise or in any other economic activity such as cultivation and milk production for sale or domestic consumption. Indian government classifies child labours into two groups: Main workers are those who work 6 months or more per year. And marginal child workers are those who work at any time during the year but less than 6 months in a year."

Methodology

The study has been conducted on the basis of secondary data. The required data, information has been collected from books, Internet sources, articles, journals and other published and unpublished sources etc.

Objectives

1. To know the concept of child labour in India.
2. To know the reasons for child labour.
3. To offer Suggestions

Child labour in India

India is sadly the home to the largest number of child labourers in the world. The census found an increase in the number of child labourers from 11.28 million in 1991 to 12.59 million in 2001. M.V. Foundation in Andhra Pradesh found nearly 400,000 children, mostly girls between seven and 14 years of age, toiling for 14-16 hours a day in cottonseed production across the country of which 90% are employed in Andhra Pradesh. In India, 40% of the labour in a precious stone cutting sector is children. NGOs have discovered the use of child labourers in mining industry in

Bellary district in Karnataka, in spite of a harsh ban on the same. In urban areas, there is a high employment of children in the zari and embroidery industry.

Poverty and lack of social security are the main causes of child labour. The increasing gap between the rich and the poor, privatization of basic services and the neo-liberal economic policies etc., have caused major sections of the population out of employment and without basic needs. This adversely affects children more than any other group. Entry of multi-national corporations into industry without proper mechanisms to hold them accountable has led to the use of child labour.

Lack of quality universal education has also contributed to children dropping out of school and entering the labour force. A major concern is that the actual number of child labourers goes un-detected. Laws that are meant to protect children from hazardous labour are ineffective and not implemented correctly.

A growing phenomenon is using children as domestic workers in urban areas. The conditions in which children work is completely unregulated and they are often made to work without food, and very low wages, resembling situations of slavery. There are cases of physical, sexual and emotional abuse of child domestic workers. The argument for domestic work is often that families have placed their children in these homes for care and employment. There has been a recent notification by the Ministry of Labour making child domestic work as well as employment of children in dhabas, tea stalls and restaurants "hazardous" occupations.

The ILO experience is that stable economic growth, respect for labour standards, decent work, universal education, social protection, recognizing the needs and rights of the children together help tackle the root causes of child labour.

As per Census 2011, the total child population in India in the age group (5-14) years is 259.6 million of these, 10.1 million (3.9% of total child

population) are working, either as ‘main worker’ or as ‘marginal worker’. In addition, more than 42.7 million children in India are out of school. However, the good news is that the incidence of child labour has decreased in India by 2.6 million

between 2001 and 2011. However, the decline was more visible in rural areas, while the number of child workers has increased in urban areas, indicating the growing demand for child workers in menial jobs. Child labour has different ramifications in both rural and urban India.

Table-1

Child labour in India

Year	Percentage of working children (5-14)			Total number of working children(5-14)		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
2001	5.9	2.1	5.0	11.4	1.3	12.7
2011	4.3	2.9	3.9	8.1	2.0	10.1

Source-Govt of India Census 2001 and 2011

Child labour - some important reasons

Poverty: Children who come from poor families may be forced to work to support their siblings and parents or supplement the household income when expenses are more than the parents’ earnings. It is a huge problem, especially in developing countries, where parents are unable to generate income due to the lack of employment opportunities or education. Children can be found employed in mines or hawking in the streets to earn money that is used to provide basic necessities such as food and clothing for the family. Children may also be employed in factories to generate income for the family instead of attending school. Such a practice is a common phenomenon in poverty-stricken regions with large factories set up by international companies.

Low Aspiration: It is important for parents and children to understand that they can work hard and make something great of themselves. Low aspirations by parents and children are a major cause of child labour because in such a situation, being employed in a local factory, or selling grocery in the streets is the normal way of life. To these types of children and parents, success only belongs to a certain region or group of people. They do not aspire to become professionals in the society or great

entrepreneurs. It is a mindset that forms the very foundation of child labour.

Huge demand for unskilled labourers: The demand for unskilled labourers is another cause of child labour. Children are mostly unskilled and provide a cheap source of labour, making them an attractive option for many greedy employers. Child labour, by virtue of being cheap, increases the margin of profits for such entrepreneurs whose only objective is profit maximization even if it comes at the expense of ethics and good business practices. These types of employers can also force children to work under unfavorable conditions through manipulation or blatant threats.

Illiteracy: A society with many educated people understands the importance of going to school and pursuing dreams. Children have the ability and time to become whatever they aspire to be. Illiteracy, on the other hand, makes it difficult for many people to understand the importance of education. Illiterate people view education as a preserve of the privileged in the society. They will therefore not provide support to children so that they can go to school and build solid foundations for future success. The same view of life is seen among illiterate parents who prioritize children contributing to the upkeep of the family over going to school.

Early Marriages: Marrying at an early age is a major contributing factor to overpopulation.

Young parents are able to see a lot of children because they remain fertile for a long time. Having many children with little or no resources to support those leads to child labour. Older children are forced to work in order to help their parents and support the family.

High cost of education: Quality education is expensive. To many parents who live in abject poverty, priority is given to providing food for the family because education is too expensive to afford especially when there are many children to pay school fees for. Instead of letting children stay at home because there is lack of money to send them to school, parents opt to have them working as unskilled labourers to help support the family. Some parents can also only afford basic education which means that children will be forced to look for work since they cannot pursue their education further.

How to Stop Child Labour

- 1. Laws:** Bringing the laws that make it illegal for children to work until they reach a certain age makes it much easier to combat a culture of child labour. In addition, laws can be brought in to ensure that when teenagers do begin to work, they are not allowed to work beyond a certain maximum number of hours and they are paid a minimum wage. Such laws do not just provide an explicit statement that child labour and child exploitation are wrong. They also provide a framework and a set of prerogatives which mean that anyone who wants to challenge child labour has the official backing of the government.
- 2. Awareness:** Creating awareness about the illegality of child labour can also help in stemming the practice. Parents should be made aware that sending their children to work has legal ramifications and the law would take its course if they are found to be aiding and abetting this vice. It is the ignorance among many parents and members of the society that makes them participate in child labour practices. Conducting a campaign to create awareness about its harmful effects would eliminate the practice. The government, together with non-governmental organizations and the civil society, can create a strategy to make such an initiative a success.
- 3. Reduce poverty:** Poverty is a key reason for the existence of child labour. When a family lives in poverty, they may very often end up sending their children out to work at a young age-even if everyone else in the family is working as well. When wages are very low, additional child labour may be needed to support the whole family. This situation is exacerbated if one or both parents are absent, has fallen ill or has passed away. So, reducing poverty in communities helps to support families and means that they do not need to send their children out to work.
- 4. Education:** Studies show time and time again that providing free and good quality education to all children around the world helps to reduce the incidence of child labour. This is especially the case if schools provide free meals and uniforms so that poor families do not have to go without necessary things in order to send their children to school. Education widens children's perspectives and shows them that they have so many more options in life than simply to labour at arduous, low paid jobs to jump from childhood into old age.
- 5. Ethical consumerism:** By spending their money wisely or in advisedly, consumers can help to halt or can (often inadvertently) support child labour. By investigating the companies that you buy from and refusing to hand over your cash to companies that deploy child labour, you can stop funding sweatshops and other unethical businesses that are taking away the childhoods of young people across the globe. Do not be seduced by the often cheaper prices that sweatshop made goods can be associated with: these cheap prices come as a result of employing children, making adults work excessively long hours, and sometimes even employing slave labour. Child labour can also be involved in designer goods, too: many of the metals found in expensive

cell phones, for example, have been mined by children.

6. **Look after your employees:** If you run a company, make sure to set a good example in terms of how you treat your employees. Do not just adhere to the minimum legal requirements for fair labour but go beyond them, ensuring that everyone who works for you is taken great care of. If you set a shining example as an employer, you will have a knock on effect, as other employers will start to follow your example.
7. **Be alert, and ready to act:** Keep your eyes open and if you see any examples of child labour occurring, do not be afraid to report them. If you have spare time, you could also train to work on a helpline, giving advice and support to children dealing with a variety of problems-including child labour. So many people just shut their eyes to the issue of child labour, refusing to see it when it is right in front of their face or refusing to inquire as to where that brand new laptop or that cheap new pair of pants came from.
8. **Donate to charities:** Donate your money to charities that help children to escape the trap of child labour. Donate, too, to charities that work to end poverty and lack of education more generally because these are two factors that contribute especially heavily to conditions in which child labour can flourish. Sometimes, we are too busy or simply not in the right place to dedicate ourselves to the fight against child labour. Fortunately, there are dedicated charity workers out there who do spend almost every day tackling this issue and our money can help them to keep up their good work.

Conclusion

Child labour prevents children from enjoying a normal, healthy childhood and it can also prevent children from getting the best education for them. Fortunately, there are many ways in which we can act to stop child labour. These include buying wisely, donating to charity and writing to the

government to ensure that they pass and maintain laws that protect children from child labour. People who own their own companies are very well placed to ensure that they can provide a space where child labour is not tolerated. We should all act to prevent child labour, starting right away.

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NGOs' Role in Rural Development of Telangana

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[Telangana is a land of villages and the government of Telangana had been implementing larger rural development programmes for the upliftment of rural communities. Non-Government organizations with their advantage of non-rigid, locality-specific, felt need-based, beneficiary oriented and committed nature of service have established massive number of roles which can affect rural development. A number of NGOs has been playing a vital role in rural development, besides government intervention. Realizing that the government alone can't accomplish the onerous task of rural uplift, both the government organizations (GOs) and NGOs have been energetically involved in transforming the lives of the rural poor. No doubt, NGOs had been continuously working day-in and day-out to solve different problems concerning children, women, senior citizens, and environment.]

The NGO sector effectively works towards uplifting the socio-economic status of the poor. However, for an important impact in the present era of liberalisation and globalisation wherein market forces adopt a key role, it becomes essential for the NGO sector to take a lead in helping poor fight the challenges posed by the system. NGOs can help the poor by providing access to the system, information on market opportunities, training facilities, and information on sources of acknowledgment.

In order to meet the aspirations of rural poor, a unique set of training programmes are expected to extend for the better management of the organization and developmental initiatives. Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) are playing a very critical role in the process of managing development initiatives of various kinds at the rural level. Even the Government of India has recognized the critical role of the NGOs in the Five - Year Plans, as they have commitment, trustworthiness with the masses and professional approach to the people's issues unlike the charitable organizations of earlier days.

However, in spite of their good intention, a large number of NGOs find it difficult to maintain in the long run sustainability of organizations as

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well as sustainability of scheme. An attempt has been made to analyze the working of NGOs for the rural poor in this paper.

Around 70% of the population of Telangana is living in rural areas. People in rural areas should have the same quality of life as is led by people living in sub-urban and urban areas. Further, there are cascading effects of poverty, unemployment, poor and inadequate infrastructure in rural areas on urban centres causing slums and momentous social and economic tensions manifesting in economic deprivation and urban poverty. Hence, Rural Development, which is concerned with economic growth and social justice, improvement in the living standard of the rural people by providing adequate and quality social services and minimum basic needs, becomes essential.

The present strategy of rural development mainly focuses on poverty reduction, better livelihood opportunities, provision of basic amenities and infrastructure facilities through innovative programmes of wage and self-employment. The above goals can be achieved by various programmes being implemented by creating partnership with communities, non-governmental organizations, community-based organizations, institutions, PRIs and industrial establishments, while the Department of Rural Development will provide logistic support both on technical and

administrative side for programme implementation.

Other aspects that will ultimately lead to transformation of rural life are also being emphasized simultaneously. The Government's policy and programmes have laid emphasis on poverty alleviation, generation of employment and income opportunities and provision of infrastructure and basic amenities to meet the needs of the rural poor. For realising these objectives, self-employment and wage employment programmes have continued to saturate in one form or other.

As a measure to strengthen the grassroots level democracy, the Government is constantly endeavouring to empower Panchayat Raj Institutions in terms of functions, powers and finance. Gram Sabha, NGOs, Self-Help Groups and PRIs have been accorded adequate role to make participatory democracy meaningful and effective.

Background of NGOs

The international non-governmental organizations have a history dating back to at least 1839 and it has been estimated that by 1914, there were 1083 NGOs. International NGOs were important in the anti-slavery movement and the movement for women's suffrage and reached a peak at the time of the World Disarmament Conference. However, the phrase "non-governmental organization" only came into popular use with the institution of the United Nations Organization in 1945 with provisions in Article 71 of Chapter 10 of the United Nations Charter for a consultative role for organizations which are neither governments nor member states.

The definition of "international NGO" (INGO) is first given in resolution 288 (X) of ECOSOC on February 27, 1950: it is defined as "any international organization that is not founded by an international treaty". The vital role of NGOs and other "major groups" in sustainable development was recognized leading to intense arrangements for a consultative relationship between the United Nations and non-

governmental organizations of the world, rising in periods of growth and declining in periods of crisis. It has been observed that the number of INGO founded or dissolved matches this general observation.

The swift development of the non-governmental sector takes place in Western countries as a result of the processes of restructuring of the welfare state. Further globalization of that process occurred after the fall of the communist system and was an important part of the Washington Consensus. Globalization during the 20th century gave rise to the importance of NGOs. Many problems could not be solved within a nation. International treaties and international organizations such as the World Trade Organization were centred mainly on the interests of capitalist enterprises.

In an effort to counterbalance this trend, NGOs had developed to give emphasis to humanitarian issues, developmental aid and sustainable development. A prominent example of this is the World Social Forum, which is a rival gathering to the World Economic Forum held annually in January in Davos, Switzerland. The fifth World Social Forum in Porto Alegre, Brazil, in January 2005 was attended by representatives from more than 1,000 NGOs. In terms of environmental issues and sustainable development, the Earth Summit in Rio in 1992 was the first to show the power of international NGOs, when about 2,400 representatives of NGOs came to play a central role in deliberations. Some have argued that in forums like these, NGOs take the place of what should belong to popular movements of the poor. Whatever the case, NGO intercontinental networking is now extensive.

Definition of NGO

NGOs are difficult to define and classify, and the term 'NGO' is not used consistently. As a result, there are many different classifications in use. The most common use is a framework that includes orientation and level of operation. An NGO's orientation refers to the type of activities it takes on. These activities might include human

rights, environmental, or development work. An NGO's level of operation indicates the scale at which an organization works, such as local, international or national. One of the earliest mentions of the acronym "NGO" was in 1945, when the UN was created. The UN, which is an inter-governmental organization, made it possible for certain approved specialized international non-state agencies - or non-governmental organisations - to be awarded spectator status at its assemblies and some of its meetings. Later the term became to be used more widely. Today, according to the UN, any kind of private organization that is independent from government control can be termed an "NGO", provided it is not-profit, non-criminal and not simply an opposition political party.

Role for NGOs in Rural Development

As economic restructuring and liberalisation saw the Government vacating several areas to let private sector entrepreneurship flourish and contribute to the high growth rate of the economy in recent years, a similar paradigm shift is needed to transform NGOs from their dependence on aid and grants from within and outside for transforming the rural scenario in the country. This is sought to be achieved for the NGOs through attracting them in micro-finance, micro-insurance, and micro-entrepreneurship activities for the overall development of the rural areas and to promote the welfare of the people of rural India,

Improved Credibility

As NGOs get finance generated through their own activities, their credibility immensely improves and their service to rural people gets reinforced. CNRI is an apex body with over 2,000 member-NGOs engaged in multifarious activities ranging from self-help group formation, income generation, marketing, agency work for insurance companies for life and non-life products and for banks and financial institutions to environment protection, watershed management, handicrafts, textiles, traditional medicinal plants and HR development. It is completing one year of its existence.

A meeting of the NGOs is scheduled to be held soon, which will feature sessions on NGO/SHG products, finance and marketing, rural connectivity, energy needs and new technologies, employment opportunities for rural youth, role of NGOs in the field of rural education, experience sharing with the performing NGOs in the field of organic farming, value-added agriculture, food processing, animal husbandry, environment, forests and natural resource management.

Telangana NGOs

India had a long tradition of social service, social restructuring and voluntary agencies. NGOs emerged in India soon after Independence when Matamata Gandhi made an appeal for dissolving the Indian National Congress (the political party which came into power after Independence) and transforming it into a Lok Sevak Sangh (Public Service Organization). This plea was, however, rejected; nevertheless, it did not halt the formation of non-governmental organizations in India. Many Gandhi followers established voluntary agencies to work closely with the governmental programs on social and economic issues. These agencies organized handicrafts and village industries, rural development programs, credit cooperatives, educational institutions, etc.

The second stage of growth of NGOs in India was around 1960 when many individuals noticed that the governmental programs seemed to be inadequate to deal with the deprived sections of India. These groups formed organizations that worked on behalf of the poor, the landless, the tribals, the bonded labourers, and many other social groups that were being discriminated against by the policies of the state and social structure. These grassroots organizations work at the micro-level and work with limited resources and lack of coordination. Currently, most of these NGOs are engaged in following sectors:

- best possible utilization and development of renewable source of energy, including forestry through the formation of renewable energy association at the block level

- Family welfare, health and nutrition, education and relevant community programs in the field
- Water management and soil conservation
- Social welfare programs for weaker sections
- Implementation of minimum needs program
- Disaster preparedness and management.

Under the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) the Indian government envisioned a more active role for voluntary organizations to aid in making communities as self-reliant as possible. These groups were expected to show how village and indigenous resources could be used and how human resources, rural skills and local knowledge, grossly underutilized at present, could be used for their own development. NGOs because of their situation and interaction with local people can be very effective in bringing change since they are able to address issues that governments are often not able to comprehend. That is, because these organizations work at the grassroots level they are able to sense the urgency of issues and prioritize into the problem-solving mode at a quicker pace.

This advantage has also been noticed by the Indian government. In the Eight Five Year Plan the importance of NGOs is further enhanced, paying particular attention to the role of these agencies as participants in rural appraisal for drawing up development plans at a very low cost and involving the rural community. The plan document states, a nation-wide network of NGOs will be created. In order to facilitate the working of this network, three schemes relating to the creation, replication, multiplication and consultancy development had been worked out by the erstwhile Planning Commission.

Major one problem with NGOs in India, as with NGOs anywhere else in the world, has been the increasing dependency on governmental funds or donations from external (foreign) donors like the World Bank. This dependent relationship has resulted in a lack of flexibility on the part of NGOs to pick their missions and objectives since many are expected to perform certain tasks in

return for funding. But, further still, it has also created structures that have become more bureaucratic in nature and, hence, less effective in development. Nevertheless, NGOs are here to stay and will continue to work in India on political, economic or social issues, the task before them is how they will manage to produce change while keeping track for governmental documentation.

A new actor has emerged on the international stage, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) or Private Voluntary Organizations (PVOs) are increasingly making their presence felt. A decade ago, NGOs were fairly peripheral to major international diplomacy. Today, however, NGOs participate actively in various political, economic and social matters. NGOs work on their own, in conjunction with individual governments or with international organizations. As former UN Secretary-General Boutros Boutros-Ghali and other UN officials have noted, the involvement of NGOs in making decisions on the environment, sustainable development, human rights and women have increased the legitimacy and transparency of intergovernmental deliberations.

NGOs come in all sizes, shapes, ideologies, nationalities, organizing structures and styles. Some focus on nothing but local issues. Others, address issues that span whole continents, and some like Amnesty International span the entire globe. Their very diversity reflects the complexity of these organizations. NGOs encompass everything from charities and relief agencies to political parties; think tanks and academic centers to community organizations; cultural associations to continent wide farmers' networks; women's groups to environmental federations; social movements to human rights and religious groups.

NGOs are usually formed among private groups of individuals sharing specialized interests in regards to issues that can be local, national or international. While a few such organizations had existed from the early beginning of the nation-state, they were to proliferate in the transnational

era and increased even more dramatically after the Second World War. This change can be attributed to technological developments, industrialization, and urbanization. Further, still these factors are likely to continue to make the presence of NGOs be aware of the global pitch. The industrialized democracies in recent years have accounted for well over half of all memberships in international NGOs and have been headquarters for almost 90 percent of all these organizations. For example, the term NGO is used to refer to such organizations as the International Red Cross, Oxfam, Care, Amnesty International, International Chamber of Commerce, International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, International Criminal Police Organization, Salvation Army, World Federation of United Nations Associations, etc.

Hundreds of NGOs are permitted direct involvement in the activities of several UN agencies. Their tasks involve sharing information and advancing proposals as part of a web of governmental, intergovernmental, and nongovernmental efforts aimed at global problem solving. NGOs, then, are an indispensable organ of international importance.

Rural Development Schemes and NGO

The essential schemes available from Government of India for Rural Development, inter alia, include:

- Integrated Watershed Management Programme (IWMP)
- National Land Records Modernization Programme (NLRMP)
- Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)
- Swarnjayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojna (SGSY)
- Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojna (PMGSY)

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP)

The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) is a rural development program of the

Government of India launched in Financial Year 1978 and comprehensively throughout India by 1980. It is a self-employment program intended to raise the income-generation competence of target groups among the poor. The target group consists largely of small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans living below the poverty line. The blueprint of subsidy is 25 per cent for small farmers, 33-1/3 per cent for marginal farmers, agricultural labourers and rural artisans and 50 per cent for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes families and physically handicapped persons.

The ceiling for subsidy is Rs.6000/- for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes families and the physically handicapped; for others, it is Rs.4000/- in non-DPAP/non-DDP areas and Rs.5000/- in DPAP and DDP areas. Within the target group, there is an assured coverage of 50 per cent for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, 40 per cent for women and 3 per cent for the physically handicapped. Priority in assistance is also given to the families belonging to the assignees of ceiling of excess land, Green Card Holders covered under the Family Welfare Programme and freed bonded labourers.

The RDP is the most important self-employment programme for poverty alleviation. The objectives of IRDP are to provide suitable income generating assets through a mix of subsidy and credit to Below Poverty Line families with a view to bring them above the Poverty Line. A family with an annual income of Rs. 20,000/- and below per annum is considered to be below the poverty line based on the 1998 below Poverty Line Census.

The aims are to raise beneficiary above the poverty line by providing ample opportunities for self-employment. During the 7th five-year plan, the total expenditure under the program was Rs 33.2 million, and Rs 53.7 million of term credit was mobilized. Some 13 million new families participated, bringing total coverage under the program to more than 18 million families. These development programs had played an important role in increased agricultural

production by educating farmers and providing them with financial and other inputs to increase yields.

The objective of IRDP is to make possible identified rural poor families to cross the poverty line as long as fruitful assets and inputs are provided to the target groups. The assets which could be in primary, secondary or tertiary sector are provided through financial assistance in the form of subsidy by the government and term credit highly developed by financial institutions. The program is applied in all the blocks in the country as a centrally-sponsored scheme funded on 50:50 basis by the Centre and State. The Scheme is amalgamated with another Scheme named Swarnajayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY) since April 1, 1999.

The Government runs its large-scale rural development schemes mainly through the Ministry of Rural Development, National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD), and Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC). Besides, some self-governing bodies like District Rural Development Agency (DRDA), National Institute of Rural Development (NIRD), National Rural Roads Development Agency (NRRDA) etc., also play the assigned roles.

Agriculture-Connected Programs

The abundant activities can be undertaken under agriculture sector. The jobs and projects like distributing planting materials, cattle, poultry, safe drinking water for animals.

Health Programmes For Human and Non-Human Beings

As works like pit drainage, housing, conception of smokeless environment, good drinking water for animals and human beings, regular health checkup camps etc. will get better the health conditions of the human and non-human beings.

Society Development Programs

The society development programs like adopting villages for development, ethical support during

flood and famine period, supply of food and drinking water during drought, common well, training programs for the rural youths, housing projects, repair and renovation of houses etc., will make rural people happy by meeting their basic requirements. The vital program like training programs for the rural poor will hold the youths from rural mass migration. Even this type of training program may also be extended for the rural women, so that we can expect self-sustenance among the community.

Human Resource Growth Programs

The individuality development programs, proficiency development programs, educational programs, integrated development projects etc., fall under this category.

Operative Industrial Promotion

The significant problem in the present context is availability of the market for the products of rural enterprises. Therefore, an NGO has a direct link with the government for marketing of the goods. Apart from this, NGO can also go for imparting training to the rural youths in fabrication works, wood works, beedi rolling, agarbathi manufacturing, printing press etc.

Government Support

The government (central, state or local) support at all level is predictable for rural development. NGOs alone cannot do miracles overnight. Therefore, the government should watch and ward the working of NGOs at phase-wise manner. Thus, the fund or whatever may be directly should move to the beneficiaries. The NGOs should be accountable for the funds.

Some Observations on NGO'S

- A few NGOs have been operating without proper direction, organizational development, good management practices and specific mission.
- It is also experienced from the existing literature that some NGOs are lacking in the areas like decision-making for right kind of

developmental intervention, managing socio-economic change and attaining sustainability,

- There is a direct correlation between the donor funding and the continuation of the projects undertaken by NGOs in rural areas.

Suggestions

The following suggestions and policy implications have been made for the further improvement in the working of NGOs.

- A diminutive term training programme for strengthening the managerial capabilities of NGOs will go a long way in improving their performance and effectiveness significantly.
- The overdependence of NGOs on funding agencies and the syndrome of dependency should be reduced by involving the government directly in funding activities.
- Donor agencies should also take active initiative in selecting the funding projects and even selecting of NGOs too.
- The donor agencies should go for surveying the viable projects for NGOs and the needs of the people.

Conclusion

The NGO is urbanized, all set to face the new challenges like shortage of funds, stoppage of funds, it would be complicated for them to sustain. Rural Telangana continues to suffer from lack of employment and self-employment opportunities owing to its narrow economic base. In the recent past, substantial success has been achieved in uplifting rural poor through entrepreneurship

development approach which focuses on selectively utilizing local talent, appropriately developing them through training involvement and linking them with relevant business opportunities. EDI execute Rural Entrepreneurship Development (RED) Approach, in collaboration with NGOs by training their development workers. One of the major hurdles faced in the process is non-availability of obligatory and timely financial support to trained entrepreneurs. It was, therefore, felt that the desired achievement rate could not be achieved in REDPs notwithstanding best possible training inputs, because of non-availability of resources from banks to the trainees.

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PERSPECTIVES ON WOMEN

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Prison conditions in North-East India

Keshabananda Borah*

[The prime objective of prison is the correction of an individual who had committed a crime and send him back to the very same society and it is also a part of the criminal justice system of every nation. But crime in our society is going in a cyclical way 'Crime-Prison-Bail-Crime-Prison-Bail-Crime'. The condition of Indian prisons for long was deplorable and disorganized. Overcrowding, undertrial prisoners, lack of adequate drinking water, health and sanitation facilities, clothing and bedding, lack of staff, absence of women jail wardens etc., are some of the common problems in the jails of India. But with the changing concept of punishment, under modern correctional philosophy, complete deprivation of prisoners' rights has become unrealistic.]

It is now legally accepted that prisoner continues to enjoy some rights, even during imprisonment. The second jail reform committee in 1862 expressed concern for the insanitary conditions of the Indian prisoners which resulted into death of several prisoners due to illness and disease. While talking about punishment in India no uniform civil code is followed. In spite of these, prisoners in India are treated with hatred and there is no updating of jail manuals in most of the states in India.

Imprisonment also has some ill effect. Many instances are found where the main family earner is imprisoned then the entire family is pushed into grim poverty. Imprisonment disrupts social cohesion and family relation. It creates mental trauma among prisoners and ultimately they generally try to commit suicide or to seek opportunity to run away from the jail. The Prison statistics in 2015 mention that in single year 1,584 prisoners were dead in all over India and among them 77 had committed suicide, 1469 died of natural disease, 11 died by murder and 7 deaths occurred due to assault by outside element. As per NCRB, (2015) data, number of different complaints received from the NHRC and SHRC is 268. It is also seen from the statistics that 89 prisoners fled from the jail in 2015. It is pertinent to mention that 187 number of incidence of clashes/group clashes occurred during 2015 in India.¹

According to Human Rights Watch report published on 19 December 2016, nearly 600 people died in

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Indian police custody from 2009-15.2 The NCRB crimes' statistics state that despite having been convicted and being jailed for three times, there are several criminals who are showing that they do not mind going back to the jail. This only shows that correctional service in prisons across the country is not enough to bring about a change in the behaviour of prisoners.

In India, 37, 90,812 people were arrested out of which 34, 94,966 were new offenders. Among the old offenders, 2, 34,896 had served a prison sentence once, 47,844 went to jail at least twice and 12,930 were convicted more than thrice. Over all, the percentage of recidivist³ is 7.8 in 2014 when compared to the crime statistics for 2013, when the percentage of recidivist was 7.2.2 Under such circumstances there is urgent need of prison reforms in India. In fact, father of nation, M.K. Gandhi once remarked, all criminals should be treated as patients and jails should be hospitals admitting this class of patients for treatment and cure.

In case of the North-Eastern states in India, the condition of prisons and prisoners is uniformly deplorable. They are mostly housed in makeshift temporary buildings without proper security arrangements. There have been a number of attempts, quite a few of them successful, at jail breaking. All the hard work that goes into the arrest of an extremist comes to naught when the insurgents are so crowded that all types of prisoners are put together in these temporary structures.

The dangerous criminals are getting mixed up with the ordinary criminals. The security arrangements need to be tightened. Some of the jails are being used to propagate the extremist philosophy and have become source of recruitment for the insurgents. Proper jail buildings should be constructed without proper delay.

Lack of adequate jails

It is quite natural that in every state there are different categories of prisoners. They may be undertrial, convicted, women, juvenile and civil prisoners. The Jail Act of 1894 clearly mentions that concerned states should arrange adequate jail building to each class of prisoners. But if one looks at the availability of all these types of jails in all the eight North-Eastern states of India then a dark picture brings to light.

Table-1.1

State wise distribution of different types of jails in the North-Eastern states of India at the end of 2015.

SL. No.	States	Central Jail	District Jail	Sub-Jail	Women Jail	Borstal School	Open Jail	Special Jail	Others	Total
1	Assam	6	22	1	0	0	1	1	0	31
2	Arunachal Pradesh	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
3	Manipur	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
4	Meghalaya	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
5	Mizoram	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
6	Nagaland	1	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
7	Sikkim	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
8	Tripura	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: ncrb.nic.in

Due to the absence of sufficient number of jails, prisoners in North-East India are living in a deplorable condition. Data shows that there is no Women Jail and Borstal jail in all the eight North-Eastern states of India. As a matter of fact, both women and minor juveniles are kept within the same jail where convicted and undertrial prisoners are also housed. In Arunachal Pradesh there is only two

district jails, therefore prisoners are usually sent to the jails in Assam. Likewise, in Manipur and Sikkim, there are only two jails. The table (1.1) also shows that except in Assam, there is no sub-jail in the other states.

Table 2.1 Capacity of Jails, Inmate Population and Occupancy Rate at the end of 2015

SL. No.	States	Available Capacity			Inmate Population			Occupancy Rate (in %)		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Assam	7706	586	8292	8780	317	9097	113.9	54.1	109.7
2	Arunachal Pradesh	7984	899	8883	7481	416	7897	93.7	46.3	88.9
3	Manipur	860	110	970	611	40	651	71	36.4	67.1
4	Meghalaya	485	45	530	935	8	943	192.8	17.8	177.9
5	Mizoram	1126	185	1311	1151	93	1244	102.2	50.3	94.9
6	Nagaland	1290	160	1450	481	9	490	37.3	5.6	33.8
7	Sikkim	206	47	253	238	13	251	115.5	27.7	99.2
8	Tripura	2051	122	2173	997	42	1039	48.6	34.4	47.8

Source: ncrb.nic.in

Occupancy rate means the number of inmates accommodated in a jail against an authorized

capacity of 100 inmates. If the occupancy rate is more than 100 percent, then the bureau considers it overcrowding. The table (2.1) shows the available capacity, inmate population and occupancy rate of different prisons in eight North-Eastern states of India. The table highlights that the occupancy rate in Meghalaya (177.9) and Assam (109.7) is too high in comparison to other states. It also reflects two underlying problems- overcrowding and undertrials that generally enhance the occupancy rate in two states.

Data also show that though the occupancy rate in Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura is low but in some states the proportion of male inmates is higher than the actual prison capacity. For instance, in Mizoram, the authorized capacity of male inmates is 1126 but 1151 inmates are there. Likewise, in Assam registered capacity is 7706 but 8780 inmates are living there, in Tripura registered capacity of male prisoners is 2051 but 2173 inmates were living there as on the end of 2015.

Table 3.1 Distribution of Undertrial Prisoners in different jails at the end of 2015

SL. No.	States	Central Jail	District Jail	Sub-Jail	Women Jail	Borstal School	Open Jail	Special Jail	Others	Total
1	Assam	2167	3314	56	0	0	0	164	0	5696
2	Arunachal Pradesh	0	136	0	0	0	0	0	0	136
3	Manipur	533	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	533
4	Meghalaya	0	862	0	0	0	0	0	0	862
5	Mizoram	277	331	0	0	0	0	0	0	608
6	Nagaland	83	307	0	0	0	0	0	0	390
7	Sikkim	69	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	140
8	Tripura	202	54	202	0	0	0	0	0	458

Source: ncrb.nic.in

The table (3.1) shows the number of existing undertrial prisoners in different states in North-East India. It highlights that Assam (5696) has the highest number of undertrial prisoners, followed by Meghalaya (862) at end of 2015. The undertrial prisoners create a number of problems in jail like overcrowding, lack of adequate clothing and bedding, healthcare facilities, sanitation facilities, drinking water facilities etc.

The Prison Statistics Report-2015 published by National Crime Record Bureau (NCRB) mentions

overcrowding as ‘one of the biggest problems faced by prison inmates.’ It results in poor hygiene and lack of sleep among other problems. It is essential that they should be given reasonable space and facilities keeping in view with the human rights of the prisoners.⁴

According to the report, two-thirds of the prisoners are undertrials that constitute sixty-seven percent of the total prison population in Indian jails. Three states from the North-East also had a high proportion of undertrials: Meghalaya (91.4 percent), Manipur (81.9 percent) and Nagaland (79.6 percent).

Table 4.1 Number of prison inmates imparted Training under different vocations during 2015.

SL. No.	State	Agriculture	Carpentry	Canning	Tailoring	Weaving	Making of soap	Hand -loom	Others	Total
1	Assam	0	4	123	59	77	0	0	139	402
2	Arunachal Pradesh	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	30	55
3	Manipur	0	0	0	15	0	15	0	27	57
4	Meghalaya	0	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	34

5	Mizoram	0	45	0	5	0	0	15	10	75
6	Nagaland	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	10
7	Sikkim	15	17	28	5	0	0	0	30	95
8	Tripura	138	0	34	31	20	0	0	21	244

Source: ncrb.nic.in

The education and vocational training and work programme is important for the overall development of prisoners. By changing their outlook, habits, the total perspective of life, modeling their character and behaviour, removing depressing thoughts; education and vocational training helps in proper reintegration of prisoners into society. Training through vocational means fosters unity, solidarity and creativity of prisoners as well. Vocational training

for prisoner is also necessary because after released from prison they will lead to an independent and dignified life.

Data reveals that in case of the North-Eastern states, Assam (402) is leading in exercising vocational training programme followed by Tripura (244) and Mizoram (75) which is not enough. If the objective of punishment is reformation and rehabilitation then government must take up this issue with sincerely and honestly.

Table 5.1 Details of educational facilities to prisoners during the year 2015.

SL.No.	State/UT	No. of prisoners benefitted by			
		Elementary	Adult	Higher	Computer
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2	Assam	471	295	16	34
3	Arunachal Pradesh	0	0	0	0
4	Manipur	0	0	0	15
5	Meghalaya	0	19	1	0
6	Mizoram	0	30	18	0
7	Nagaland	0	0	0	0
8	Sikkim	0	0	0	0
9	Tripura	1	18	3	7

Source: ncrb.nic.in

The table (5.1) highlights a dismal picture of providing education to jail inmates by the concerned governments of North-Eastern states. Moreover, it is surprising to say that in the states of Arunachal Pradesh, Sikkim and Nagaland no effort has been

taken by respective state governments in providing education (from elementary to higher) to the jail inmates till now. While in Tripura only one prisoner is benefitted from getting elementary education. Only in Assam 471 prisoners are benefitted from elementary education and from adult education 295 prisoners are benefitted.

6.1 Legal aid service and wages paid to the prisoners during the year 2015.

Sl. No.	State	No of Prisoners to whom financial assistance is provided on release	No. of convicts rehabilitated	No. of prisoners to whom legal aid provided	Wages paid per day to convicts		
					Skilled	Semi	Unskilled
1	Assam	0	0	1194	75	-	55

2	Arunachal Pradesh	0	0	55	75	-	55
3	Manipur	0	0	1	12	10	8
4	Meghalaya	120	6	321	133	126	119
5	Mizoram	10	50	880	15	12	10
6	Sikkim	0	0	510	40	30	30
7	Tripura	0	0	158	33	28	24
8	Nagaland	0	0	35	135	125	115

Source: ncrb.nic.in

The success of jail administration depends on the rehabilitation and correction of prisoners; otherwise jail has no meaning but for merely providing imprisonment. In this connection, legal aid works as a legal panacea for providing justice to the aggrieved prisoners. The right to legal aid has much relevance in developing countries like India where more than half of the population lives in far flung villages steeped in poverty, destitution and illiteracy. The basic objective of legal aid is that the machinery of administration of justice should be easily accessible and should not be out of reach of those who have to resort to it for the enforcement of their legal rights. Thus, legal aid offers a challenge to a society to redress grievances of the poor. It also

7.1 Incidence of Recidivism at the end of 2015

SL. No.	State	No. of convicts admitted during the year	No. of Habitual offenders	% Share of habitual offenders to convicts admitted
1	Assam	2410	20	0.8
2	Arunachal Pradesh	29	0	0.0
3	Manipur	17	1	5.9
4	Meghalaya	49	0	0.0
5	Mizoram	1302	188	14.4
6	Sikkim	81	10	12.3
7	Tripura	1545	27	1.7
8	Nagaland	115	9	7.8

Source: www.ncrb.nic.in

As per the NCRB report (2014) the overall rate of recidivism in India is 7.8 % but in case of north-eastern states of Mizoram, Sikkim and Nagaland crossed the average rate of recidivism. But it is a good sign that in some states the recidivism rate is decreasing gradually. In Arunachal Pradesh and

reflects that the right to equality before law and equal protection of law under Article 14 will be unconstitutional if a person cannot secure the legal protection because he is poor.

In Assam, only 1194 prisoners achieved legal aid services; whereas in the state of Manipur only one prisoner achieved legal aid; followed by the state of Nagaland 35 and Arunachal Pradesh 55.

In case of wages paid per day to convicts, the data reveals that Manipur, Mizoram and Tripura are providing only a minimum wage to skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled prisoners. In Manipur only 12 rupees to skilled, 10 rupees to semi-skilled and 8 rupees is provided to unskilled prisoners. Only in the state of Assam 75 rupees is awarded to skilled and 55 rupees is provided to unskilled prisoners.

Meghalaya, it is 0% followed by Assam 0.8% and Tripura 1.7%.

Need for forward looking strategies for prison reform in North-East India

The statistical analysis mentioned above brings to light the true picture of jails and conditions of

inmates in North-Eastern states of India. Lack of sufficient support for legal aid, rise of recidivism rate, inadequate wages for skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled prison labours, lack of logistical support, poor exercise of vocational and general education in the jail, lack of financial assistance to prisoners after released from jail, following up of old Prison act, increase number of undertrials, absence of women and Borstal jail etc. pose a serious threat to the proper reformation of prisoners.

To cope up with these deficiencies prevalent jails, government of each North Eastern state should adopt holistic measure on the account of the fact that according to the Constitution of India, subject of prisons falls under state list under the seventh scheduled of the Constitution. Following suggestions can help improve the conditions in these jails: Firstly, to improve the living conditions of prisoners, government of respective states should sanction adequate budget for prisons. Secondly, to improve the health of the inmates, inspection by the medical officer should take place frequently. It will be a positive approach if government appoints a permanent psychiatrist in each jail.

Thirdly, to reduce the recidivism rate, general and vocational education should be imparted to the prisoners. By getting general education the inmates will make sense of worth living and vocational education will enable them a dignified life after being released from jail. In North-Eastern states of India, the recidivism rate is comparatively high than the other states, because once released from jail after long-term imprisonment they face acute poverty and therefore find jail a safe haven for their livelihood security hence involve in further crime. Fourthly, the jail manual of each state should be updated on the lines of Western countries; for instance, in Grendon Prison in U.K facilities for music, art, counseling, meditation, home visits and participation of NGO etc., are provided, which are generally found missing in the jails of North-Eastern states.

Likewise, in some states in India; Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra amended jail manual in 1979 whereas all the North Eastern in India are still following the age-old Jail Act of 1934. Fifthly, the

parole system should be practiced frequently after thorough observation of prisoners' behaviour. It will help them to release the pent-up energies and will give opportunity of easy mingling in the society after released from jail. Sixthly, to reduce indiscriminate arrests, the police should avoid needless arrests and magistrates should avoid mechanical remand orders.

Notes

1. See Prison statistic in India-2015, published by National Crime Record Bureau.
2. The Indian Express, 19th December, 2016.
3. Recidivism- going back to committing crime repeatedly after once released from the jail.
4. The Hindu: 2016.

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Profiling AIADMK Dominance in Western Tamil Nadu

M. Kannan*

[The resounding birth of All India Anna Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (AIADMK) has been one of the major significant challenge in the limelight of Tamil Nadu politics because the party played an important role in the assembly elections as well as parliamentary elections. Interestingly, actor-turned-politician M.G. Ramachandran (MGR) and his charismatic image had reached center of attraction in Tamil Nadu politics and in many other states of India. In Andhra Pradesh, the actor-turned-politician N.T. Rama Rao become Chief Minister of the state. By this effect, till date many actors have joined the politics in India. An attempt is made in this article to appraise briefly the electoral performance of AIADMK in Tamil Nadu.]

Tamil Nadu has been divided in four zones such as Northern, Central, Western and Southern. The western Tamil Nadu was included with Coimbatore, Tiruppur, Erode, Nilgiri, Salem, Namakal, Dharmapuri, and Krishnagiri districts. Appropriately 55 constituencies existed in the Western zone; however, it was rearranged by the Election Commission in 2008 and the number of the constituencies increased to 57 and these constituencies are selected for the present study. The analysis takes into account last ten assembly elections contested by the AIADMK from the first general election in 1977 to last 2016 state assembly elections.

Birth of AIADMK

The Justice Party and the Dravidar Kazhagam are the forerunners of present-day Dravidian parties like the Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK) and the All India Anna Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (AIADMK), which have ruled Tamil Nadu continuously since 1967.

In 1967 assembly elections in Tamil Nadu, Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK) came to power after 18 years of its formation, the party general secretary and founder, CN Annadurai became the Chief Minister of Tamil Nadu. In 1969, following the demise of CN Annadurai, who had died before the end of his term, the interim government was formed under chief ministership of M. Karunanidhi. In 1971 election, the DMK emerged victorious with big margin by winning 184 seats out of 234 and Dr.

Kalaignar M. Karunanidhi became the chief minister for second time with vast majority. The opposition Swatantra Party lost much of its power and after the death of C. Rajagopalachari in 1972, the party lost its identity in Tamil Nadu.

The subsequent period witnessed many splits in the ruling DMK party. Following the removal of the then finance minister K.A Mathiazhagan from his post, another influential Dalit leader Sathyavani Muthu also left the party. The political feud between MGR and the party president Karunanidhi took place in 1972. MGR was eventually suspended from the General Council. Subsequently, the party's senior member V.R. Nedunchezhiyam also left the DMK.

At that political juncture, MGR had formed a new party in the name of Anna Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (ADMK) on 17 October 1972. Later, MGR prefixed the All India (AI) tag to the party's name. The new party ADMK won the by-election at Dindigul constituency in 1973

On the other side, the Central government under the leadership of Indira Gandhi had announced national emergency in June 1975. This evoked mixed political reactions in Tamil Nadu. The newly formed the ADMK and his party leader MGR had developed close relationship with Congress and supported the emergency.² Following the death of the famous Indian National Congress (Organisation) leader Kamaraj in 1975, the Congress (O) lost its virtual identity and a large number of its members merged with Indira Congress.

In the political predicament, ruling Tamil Nadu government had highly condemned the emergency

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actions of the Central government. DMK had not enforced the emergency regulation and censorship in Tamil Nadu as compared to other states. In this situation, the Central government got DMK government dismissed and imposed president rule in Tamil Nadu on 31 October 1976. The fresh assembly election was held on June 10, 1977.

The sixth legislative assembly election -1977

In this election, nine political parties contested statewide such as 4 National parties, 3 state parties, 2 unregistered parties and Independent candidates. The major political parties like ADMK in alliance with Communist Party of India (Marxist) (CPM) and Congress alliance with Communist Party of India (CPI). The other parties like DMK and Janata

Party contested this election separately. So, this election was touted as four-cornered contest.

The level of competitions in Western Tamil Nadu was between DMK, Janata Party and Congress alliance (INC-45+ CPI-10) and these parties were contesting all 55 constituencies, on the other hand, ADMK alliance (ADMK-49+ CPM-5) had contested only 54 except Gudalur constituency.

The assembly election was held on June 10, in 1977. ADMK won 130 seats, M. G. Ramachandran (MGR) a leading Tamil film actor, was sworn in as Chief Minister for the first time. The election result of Western Tamil Nadu, as shown in the table below, reveals that AIADMK won 32.90% of vote and 40 seats out of 49 contested.

S. No	Party Name	Tamil Nadu Legislative Assembly Elections									
		1977	1980	1984	1989	1991	1996	2001	2006	2011	2016
1	All India Anna Dravida MunnetraKazhagam (AIADMK)	32.90	44.42	40.92	*35.45	52.08	26.71	37.77	33.32	40.17	47.61
2	Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK)	21.72	18.81	26.97	27.76	17.75	44.75	27.90	24.20	17.93	32.44
3	Indian National Congress (INC)	17.17	22.17	15.54	18.58	10.35	1.34	3.1	7.61	8.14	7.00
4	Communist Party of India (CPI)	2.75	3.76	3.60	1.52	1.74	3.42	1.49	1.55	3.83	1.65
5	Communist Party of India (Marxist) (CPM)	2.90	1.71	2.58	5.22	4.20	1.46	1.22	3.40	1.67	0.61
6	Janata Party (JNP)	19.83	3.66	2,74	2.00						
7	Janta Dal (JD)					2.29					
8	Pattali Makkal Katchi (PMK)					6.23	4.51	6.90	6.91	5.50	0.82
9	Bharatiya Janta Party (BJP)					2.47	1.34	3.78	2.19	2.42	3.37
10	Marumalarchi Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam(MDMK)						4.12	4.38	5.30		0.42
11	Tamil Maanila Congress (TMC)						4.83	3.52			0.48
12	Desiya Murpokku Dravida Kazhagam(DMDK)							9.63	8.54	2.01	
13	Viduthalai Chiruthaigal Katch (VCK)								1.01	1.12	0.65
14	Puthiya Tamilagam(PT)							1.00			

Note: * In the year of 1989 Election ADMK (JL) group won 25.00 % of vote and ADMK(JR) group won 10.45% of vote.

Source: Statistical Report –State Elections (from 1977 to 2016) Legislative Assembly of Tamil Nadu. - Election Commission of India.

The seventh legislative assembly election -1980

In the 1977 parliamentary election, Anna Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam continued alliance with Indira congress. But the alliances had faced huge loss because of 'emergency actions' and the people did not support this alliance.

New Prime Minister Morarji Desai formed government at the Centre to which MGR had extended unconditional support to Janata Party because of his election victory. More interestingly, he continued his strong support to Desai government till the end of 1979. After the downfall of the Janata government, fresh parliamentary elections were conducted in 1980. In these circumstance Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam struck alliance with INC (I). The opposition ADMK alliance with Janata party won only 2 seats in Tamil Nadu.

Prior to parliamentary elections, MGR had gradually lost people's faith. While taking this opportunity, DMK vehemently had forced the Central government to dismiss the Tamil Nadu government. In 1976, before the end of second year of the MGR's ministry, the assembly was dismissed by the Central government and fresh election was conducted on May 28, 1980.

In this election thirteen political parties contested statewide, such as 8 National parties, 3 state parties, 2 unregistered parties and Independent candidates. Major political parties ADMK had alliance with CPI, CPM, Congress (U) and Gandhi Kamaraj Congress. The DMK had alliance with Congress. Other smaller parties contested of their own.

In Western Tamil Nadu, the electoral competition was between DMK and ADMK that were major alliance themselves. Thus, parties contested high number of seats. Other parties contested only few constituencies. Congress had lost its independence status contested by having alliance with DMK with seat-sharing arrangement (INC-30+ DMK-24).

The assembly election was held on May 28, 1980 ADMK won 129 seats in the election and M. G. Ramachandran was sworn in as Chief Minister for the second time. The election result of Western Tamil Nadu, as clearly showed in the table, 44.42 % of voters polled in favour of the party this was higher than 11.52% of vote compared with last election. ADMK won 41 seats out of 45 contested in this region. This was terribly a landslide victory of the party.

The eighth legislative assembly election -1984

By the time second term of the ruling ADMK party came to an end, Indian political situation faced a serious crisis in the wake of the assassination of the then Prime Minister Indira Gandhi on 31 October 1984. The Congress party faced serious setback and elected a new leader, Indira's son Rajiv Gandhi as new president of Congress party. At the same time, Tamil Nadu chief minister MGR had been admitted in the US hospital for a treatment of kidney failure. In this situation leading opposition party DMK's president M. Karunadhi did not contest this election.

In this election eleven political parties contested in statewide, such as 5 National parties, 3 state parties, 3 unregistered parties and Independent candidates. Major political parties ADMK in alliance with Congress and Gandhi Kamaraj Party. DMK had alliance with CPI, CPM and Janata Party. And other political parties contested of their own.

The level of electoral competition in Western Tamil Nadu was between ADMK and DMK, with these two rival parties contesting equal number of seats. But ADMK alliance did not contest in Kaveripattinam constituency as well as enjoyed without opposing DMK alliance in Kapilamali, Palladam, Pongallur constituencies.

The assembly election for Tamil Nadu was held on December 24, 1984. MGR's illness turned into a sympathy wave in favor of the party and helped it win 132 seats. MGR was sworn in as Chief Minister, for the third time. The election results of Western Tamil Nadu, as shown in the table, revealed 40.92 % of votes polled in favor of the party. ADMK won 34 seats out of 38 contested. This was high level in comparison with DMK, which gained only 26.97%. of votes, including DMK alliance parties and its total parentage was less than that of ADMK.

The ninth legislative Assembly Election 1989

In 1987, Tamil Nadu Chief Minister and ADMK charismatic leader of MGR died before the end of his term. The interim government was formed under the Chief ministership of Janaki Ramachandran as first woman chief minister of Tamil Nadu. After MGR's death, the ruling ADMK party had split into two factions, one faction was led by MGR's wife Janaki Ramachandran and another faction was under the rein of actress-turned politician J. Jayalalitha.

The ADMK's factional conflict continued in assembly where the party consisted of 132 members including the speaker, out of which 97 members strongly supported Janaki faction and rest of the 33 members supported the Jayalalitha's group. In this situation, the interim government faced a vote of confidence in assembly.

Janaki government was dismissed and the president's rule was imposed in Tamil Nadu and fresh elections to the state assembly were scheduled to be held in January 1989. Both ADMK factions – Janaki ADMK (JR) and Jayalalitha ADMK (JL) had claimed to the party's 'two leaves' symbol before the Election Commission. But the Commission had refused to give 'two leaves' symbol to any one of them and allotted new symbols. The "cock" symbol was allotted to the Jayalalitha faction ADMK (JL) and "two doves" symbol to Janaki faction ADMK (JR).

On the other hand, the Congress central committee decided to have alliance with Jayalalitha's faction without consulting the Tamil Nadu unit leader and actor Sivaji Ganeshan. So, he quit his party because of its alliances with the Jayalalitha. And then he had formed a new party namely Thamizhaga Munnetra Munnani and it had allied with Janaki's faction. Eventually, the Congress also withdrew its decision and contested the elections alone. The ADMK Jayalalitha group made an alliance with CPI. The DMK had an alliance with Janata Dal and CPM.

In this election sixteen political parties like 5 national, 4 state, 7 unregistered parties and Independent candidates were contesting in state wide. Major four political alliances had formed such as ADMK (JL), ADMK (JR), Congress and DMK. So, this election was a four-cornered contest.

The level of competitions was very high in Western Tamil Nadu. The major political parties contested high numbers of seats alone ADMK (JL)- 47, ADMK-(JR)- 45, DMK -43, and Congress -49. Most of the constituencies in the region faced full level four-cornered contest after 1977 elections.

The election was held on 21 January 1989. The turnout among registered voters was 69.69%. Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (DMK) won 150 seats in the election and its leader M. Karunanidhi, became the Chief Minister after a gap of thirteen years. It was his third term in office.

The election results of Western Tamil Nadu, as shown in the table, revealed that the results were in favor of DMK after a gap of 13 years because the ADMK had split into two groups. But the ADMK (JL) group managed to gain 25% of votes and won 17 seats out of 47 it had contested. In this level of comparison with DMK the vote difference was only 2.76%. Even the ADMK (JR) group also gained 10.45% of vote in this election. The two groups of ADMK got 35.45% of vote in this region.

The tenth legislative Assembly Election- 1991

After that last election Janaki Ramachandran group had won over only two seats, so she decided to retire from politics. Under these circumstances, the ADMK factions were reunited under the leadership of Jayalalitha in 1989. Subsequently, the reunited party regained the popular "Two leaves" symbol and winning of the by-elections in two constituencies. The ADMK had allied with the Congress for the 1989 parliamentary elections and won 38 seats.

In due course, there erupted constitutional machinery breakdown in Tamil Nadu in the wake of Eelam People's Revolutionary Liberation Front (EPRLF) leader Bathmanaban's assassination by LTTE in Chennai. In these circumstances, the Central government made a decision to dismiss the DMK government, reportedly under the pressure of ADMK and Congress, because the then ruling minority government at the Centre was dependent on the outside support of Congress. Following the withdrawal of support by the Congress, the then Chandra Shekhar government fell on March 1991. The fresh elections were held simultaneously in both at the Center and in Tamil Nadu.

These assembly elections were contested by 31 political parties state wide, of which 8 were National parties, 7 state parties, 16 unregistered parties and Independent candidates. After MGR died the reunited ADMK contested assembly elections for first time. ADMK had only alliance with Congress. DMK had alliance with CPI, CPM and Thayaga Marumalarchi Kazhagam (TMK). The veneer cast-based party Pattali Makkal Katchi (PMK) contested for the first time in these elections.

Unfortunately, in this election campaign the INC prime ministerial candidate Rajiv Gandhi was assassinated on 21 May 1991 in Tamil Nadu. With this political assassination, a massive sympathy wave

percolated into the Congress- ADMK alliance and against the DMK.

In Western Tamil Nadu most of the constituencies had faced triangular competitions among DMK, ADMK and PMK. The parties contested high number of seats respectively DMK-37, ADMK-44, and PMK contested 51 seats because some of the constituencies in Dhamapuri, Salam districts cover under the vinniar belt.

The assembly election was held on 24 June 1991 simultaneously with the polling for the Parliamentary elections. The voter turnout was 63.92%. The ADMK won 165 seats in the election and its leader J. Jayalalitha became the chief minister. This was her first term in office. DMK won only 2 out of the 234 seats. Because the Rajiv Gandhi assassination sympathy wave was totally inclined towards the ADMK alliance.

The election result in western Tamil Nadu was more favorable towards ADMK and it won all contested seats and its share of votes polled stood at 52.08 % in high level and it had never happened in any elections even under MGR's leadership. Even the vinniar caste-based party like PMK could get only 6.23% of votes in this region.

The eleventh legislative Assembly Election - 1996

The ruling ADMK government under the leadership of Jayasimha in its first term of office was faced with a series of corruption scandals. An extravagant public marriage for Jayasimha's foster son Sudhakaran all combined to project a bad image to her government.

On the other side, DMK suffered a major split in the party following the expulsion of senior member Vaiko in 1993. Vaiko had formed a new party the Marumalarchi Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam (MDMK)

Tamil Nadu Congress committee also faced party split. Because of party's Central committee had decided an alliance with Jayalalitha without considering the Moopanar, the then leader of the Tamil Nadu unit. Following this, Moopanar quit Congress and formed his new party in the name of Tamil Manila Congress (TMC) and got invaluable support from actor Rajnikanth. TMC made an alliance with DMK in this election.

In this election, 38 political parties contested state wide, of which 7 were national parties, 9 state parties, 22 unregistered parties and independent candidates. Major political parties like ADMK had alliance with Congress and DMK alliance with Congress's rival group TMC and CPI. Another DMK rival MDMK made new political alliance with CPM and Janata Dal. BJP and PMK also contested this election separately. Several small parties also contested this election, thereby making it another four-cornered contest.

The level of competitions in Western Tamil Nadu was high and major political parties contested large number of seats respectively DMK -45, ADMK-44, MDMK-41, BJP-34, PMK- 24.

The assembly election in Tamil Nadu was held on 2 May 1996 along with parliamentary elections. The turnout among registered voters was 66.95%. The Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam won 173 seats in the election and its leader M. Karunanidhi became the chief minister. This was his fourth term in office.

The result in Western Tamil Nadu was in favour of DMK, which won 42 seats out of 45 contested and secured 44.75% of voters polled. Even DMK's rival group MDMK had got 4.12% of votes in this region. ADMK had faced big loss and won only one seat against 44 it contested because of corruption allegations against this party. Even the chief minister Jayalalitha had lost her seat to DMK's candidate E. G. Sugavanam by a margin of 8,366 votes in the Bargur constituency.

The twelfth legislative assembly election -2001

In the 1999 parliamentary elections, Tamil Manila Congress came out from the DMK alliance because of ruling DMK having made close alliance with BJP in the parliamentary election. The TMC entered into an alliance with ADMK to contest this parliamentary election. By the similar reason, the Left party had strategically made alliance with Congress and ADMK.

In this election 48 political parties had contested state wide, of which 6 were national parties, 14 state parties, 28 unregistered parties and independent candidates. Major political parties formed political alliance like DMK allied with with BJP and pallar caste-based party Puthiya Tamilagam. ADMK had formed mega alliance with many parties like Congress, TMC, CPI, CPM and PMK. But in terms

of ADMK leader Jayalalitha linked up with the series of corruption allegation in her lost term, the Supreme Court said under Article 164 (1) read with (4) she was disqualified to contest in this election. Other smaller parties also had contested it alone like JD(S), MDMK etc.

The level of competitions in Western Tamil Nadu was at high pitch with major parties contesting high number of seats: MDMK -49, DMK-44, ADMK-35. So, the triangular competition was discernible in all western constituencies.

The assembly election was held on May 10, 2001. ADMK had won 132 seats in this election. Party leader J. Jayalalitha was sworn in as Chief Minister, even though she could not legally run as MLA in this election. Therefore, she cleared up the charges against her and she could take up the mantle of Chief Minister officially, on March 2, 2002.

The result in Western Tamil Nadu was in favour of ADMK, which won all seats it had contested and secured 37.23% of votes polled as compared to DMK factions that had contested in 44 seats but won only one seat and managed to secure 27.90% votes. The DMK's rival group MDMK got 4.38% of votes and won a single seat in this region.

The thirteenth legislative assembly election - 2006

In this election 36 political parties contested state wide, of which 6 were national parties, 13 state parties, 17 unregistered parties and independent candidates. Major political parties like ADMK and DMK formed political alliance. In terms of ADMK alliance with MDMK and Dalit political party Viduthali Cheruthikal Kachi. DMK had formed mega alliance with many parties like Congress, CPI, CPM and PMK. Other smaller parties contested alone. A new party in Tamil Nadu the Desiya Murpokku Dravida Kazhagam (DMDK) had been formed in September 2005 by actor turned politician Vijaykant. The DMDK was contesting for the first time in this election without any alliance.

The level of electoral competition in Western Tamil Nadu was high, especially between ADMK, DMK, DMDK, and BJP. All these parties had contested high number of seats: DMDK-55, BJP-51, ADMK-45, and DMK-30.

The assembly election of Tamil Nadu was held on May 8, 2006. The elections saw a record voter turnout of 70.70%, an 11% increase compared to

the last 2001 elections. The DMK-led front won the elections and its leader, M Karunanidhi was sworn in as Chief Minister. He served his fifth term. However, no party reached the simple majority of 117 of the 234 seats. DMK grabbed the highest number of seats 96 while ADMK won 61 seats. The Congress won 34 seats and it extended unconditionally support to its ally DMK thereby enabling it to form a minority government, which was the first in the state since the 1952 elections.

The result of western constituency witnessed DMK winning 21 seats out of 30 contested but got 24.20% of votes only gained, in comparison to ADMK winning 15 seats out of 45 contested and securing 33.32% votes polled in its favor and it managed to get 9.12% more votes than the DMK in this region. The DMDK had secured 9.63% of votes in this region. Nevertheless, the election results clearly showed the dominance of ADMK in this region.

The fourteenth legislative assembly election - 2011

A number of allegations involving huge scandals and rampant corruption proved instrumental in playing a crucial role in this election that was closely connected with incumbent DMK party. The union minister A. Raja and Rajya Sabha M.P. Kanimozhi both had been charged against 2G spectrum case.

This was to the greatest advantage to ADMK and added with the invaluable support of Vijaykanth's DMDK, Communists, Namthamilar Siman and Tamil Nadu Muslim Munnetra Kazhagam.

On the other side, DMK had joined hands with the Congress, Viduthalai siruthai, Indian Muslim League and Pattali Makkal Katchi party. In terms of discontentment about AIDMK, MDMK did not contest in this election.

In this election BJP led the third front comprising parties such as Subramanian Swamy's Janata Party, T.R. Pachamuthu's Indiya Jananayaka Katchi (IJK), John Pandian's Tamizhaga Munnetra Kazhagam, retired IAS officer, P. Sivakami's Samooka Samathuva Padai, Tamil Nadu Vanigar Peravai and VOC Peravai also made alliance and contested more than 150 constituencies.

In this election, 49 political parties contested state wide, of which 5 were national parties, 11 state parties, 33 unregistered parties and independent candidates. A number of small political party had

also contested in this election. Particularly, in western Tamil Nadu, the Kongu Nadu Munnetra Kazhagam and Arundhathiyar Munnetra Kazhagam had also contested in this election. Other smaller parties contested of their own.

The level of competition in Western Tamil Nadu between DMK and ADMK alliances saw reduction in competition of at seats sharing in this region. ADMK contested in 39 seats, DMK -26 only and BJP contested in 56 constituencies. The Election Commission's rearrangement of constituencies in Tamil Nadu in year of 2008, had increased two constituencies (from 55 to 57) in Western Tamil Nadu.

The assembly election was held on 13 April 2011. 77.8% of the electorate voted in the election, the highest ever in the history of all elections conducted in Tamil Nadu surpassing 76.57% polled in 1967 election. ADMK party alone secured a massive majority by winning 150 seats and J. Jayalalithaa was sworn-in as the Chief Minister of Tamil Nadu for the third time. The spectrum scandal had paved way for the significant victory of ADMK

The election result of Western Tamil Nadu went in favour of ADMK that won all seats it had contested for third time in the region and secured 40.17% votes polled. This was high level of votes polled by ADMK as compared to DMK, which could gain only 17.93% of votes in this region despite its alliance with the caste-based party KNMK that also contested 7 seats.

Tamil Nadu Assembly Election Results in 2016

Due to disproportionate asserts and rampant previous corruption cases on incumbent chief minister Jayalalitha, ADMK was faced with many challenges and problems. Jayalalitha's imprisonment and her conviction added to her political problems. The cumulative impact of these developments was inability of the ADMK to enter into alliance with big political parties. Subsequently with the political support of Sarathkumar, Thaniarasu, Karunash and Islamic group the ADMK had faced this election.

The DMK and Congress made alliance with Puthiya Tamilaham. It was for the first time in the annals of Tamil Nadu that Vijayakanth, Vaiko, CPI, CPM, GK. Vasan, Thirumavalavan had made an alliance in the name of 'People Welfare Alliance' without support of DMK and ADMK. On the other hand, BJP had

contested this election with the tacit support of Indian Republic Party, Patchai Muthu's Indiya Jananayaka Katchi (IJK). Many small political party had contested separately in this election, especially the PMK.

In Western Tamil Nadu, a high level of electoral competitions in all constituencies was visible. Parties and party alliance also contested high number of seats: ADMK-57, PMK-57, Nam Thmizar- 56, BJP-46, DMK-44, DMDK-26 in this election.

The assembly election was held on 16 May 2016 for the 232 seats except Thanjavur and Aravakurichi constituencies. Voter turnout was 74.26%. ADMK under J. Jayalalithaa won 134 seats in the elections and became the first ruling party to be re-elected in Tamil Nadu since 1984.

Based on the favorable result, ADMK won 45 seats out of 57 it contested. Its share of votes polled was higher than the DMK.

Conclusion

The Western region of Tamil Nadu has continued to witness highly level of support for ADMK, the party continued to win in first place with the exception of only one election in 1996. The table above shows as to how the people had given their support to the party. From 1977 the first election it contested, the party won 32.90 % percentage of votes, which in 1991 election increased to 52.08% percentage of vote polled in favors of the party in this region.

In the first election in 1977, the ADMK, DMK, JP and INC respectably shared the first, second, third and fourth places. In 1980, 1984, 1989, 1991 elections Congress replaced the Janata Party and won the third place. In the year of 1996, Congress split and TMC got the third place. In 2001 election the place went to PMK and in 2006 and 2011, DMDK won that place.

ADMK under the leadership of MGR won in all three assembly elections, 24 out of 55 constituencies of the region until his death. After MGR's death, ADMK under the leadership of JJ also received people's support up to 1991 in 7 constituencies. The tragedy of 1996 election after which she continued to regain support in 9 constituency until her last election in 2016. ADMK won continually in Bargur, Gobichettipalayam, Pollachi constituencies in all nine-assembly election of the region.

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Cost>Returns Structure and Resource-Use Efficiency of Milk Production

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[In the recent past, there has been deceleration in the growth of employment in India in spite of the accelerated economic growth. It is also noted that the decline in employment elasticity in the agriculture is found to be due primarily to the sharply declining and even negative elasticities in a few regions like Punjab, Haryana and Uttar Pradesh where the green revolution has resulted in significant yield and output growth.]

The growth in the initial years was mainly by expansion of gross cropped area through an increase in cropping intensity, facilitated by irrigation and availability of short duration high yielding varieties. After the source was exhausted, output growth became more input and technology intensive and less labour intensive.

Importance of dairy sector

The dairy sector occupies an important place in the agricultural economy of India as milk is the second largest agricultural commodity in contributing to GNP, next only to rice. India is the world's largest milk producer, accounting for more than 13 per cent of world's total milk production. As it is the world's largest consumer of dairy products but consuming almost 100 per cent of its own milk production. Dairy products are major sources of cheap and nutritious food to millions of people in India and the only acceptable source of animal protein for large vegetarian segment of Indian population, particularly among landless, small and marginal farmers and women.

Milk is a wholesome food and it is consumed by people of all age groups ranging from children to

adults in order to acquire growth or to get energy. Since time immemorial, milk has been universally recognized as a nutritive food par excellence. Proteins constitute 3.2 and 4.3 per cent in cow milk and buffalo milk respectively. Besides proteins, milk contains many other protective elements such as vitamins, minerals and amino acids.

Objectives of The Study

1. To examine the cost and returns structure of milk production in the study area.
2. To analyze the determinants of milk yield and resource-use efficiency.

Hypotheses of The Study

1. Constant returns scale prevailed in dairying in Sivaganga district for both cow and buffalo.
2. There is no structural difference between cow and buffalo in terms of milk production in the study area.

Methodology

Designing a suitable methodology and selection of analytical tools are important for a meaningful analysis of any research problem. In this section, an attempt is made to prepare a methodology for the present study. It includes sample design, collection of data and tools of analysis.

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Lactation Yield with Reference to Lactation and Inter-calving Periods

The lactation yield in a lactation period is known as lactation yield. The length of milk producing period after calving is known as lactation period. The optimum lactation period is 305 days. During lactation period, the animal reaches maximum milk yield per day within 2-4 weeks which is called peak yield. For high level of lactation yield, this peak yield should be maintained for longer period as far as possible, the maintenance of peak yield for long period is known as persistency. Slow decrease in dairy milk yield after reaching peak yield necessary. High persistency is necessary to maintain high level of milk production.

The age of the animal at first calving is very important for high life time production. The desirable age at first calving in Indian breeds is 3 years, 2 years in cross breed cattle and 3 1/2 years in Buffaloes.

The average daily yield of milk for cow and buffaloes is calculated for the period of lactation and inter-calving in the study area.

Table 1

Average Lactation Yield with Reference to Lactation and Inter-calving Periods

Details-Milk Yield and its Duration	Cow	Buffalo
Lactation period (in days)	256.15	275.02
Dry period (in days)	164.02	177.13
Inter-calving period (in days)	420.17	452.35
Lactation yield (in litres)	2197.32	1986.23
Milk yield per day during lactation period (in litres)	8.57	7.22
Milk yield per day during inter-calving period (in litres)	5.22	4.39

Source: Primary data.

From the above table 1, the average lactation period for cow is 256.15 days and 275.02 days for buffalo; whereas the average dry period for cow is 164.02 days and 177.13 days for buffalo. The inter-calving period for cow is found to be 420.17 days and 452.35 days for buffalo. The total milk yield during the lactation period for cow is 2197.32 litres and 1986.23 litres for buffalo.

The average milk yield per day during the lactation period for cow is 8.57 litres and 7.22 litres for buffalo. The milk yield per day during inter-calving period for cow is 5.22 litres and 4.39 litres for buffalo. It is observed that cow's yield of milk is higher than the buffalo's yield of milk in the study area.

Analysis of Average Cost of Milk Production per Animal

The following table reveals that the total cost of milk production per cow during lactation period is 23686.3 and during inter-calving period is 32567.63.

The total variable cost includes the feed cost, maintenance cost and miscellaneous cost. The total feed cost per cow during lactation period is 15826.54 and 21918.9 during inter-calving period. The total maintenance cost during lactation period is 3693.03 and 4999.9 during inter-calving period. The miscellaneous cost during lactation period is 203.85 and 275.4 during inter-calving period. Depreciation on fixed cost during lactation period amounting to 2029.05 and 2749.5 during inter-calving period. The depreciation on cattle shed during lactation period is 309.8 and 421.29 during inter-calving period and the interest on fixed cost during lactation period is 1624.05 and 2202.5 during inter-calving period.

The total cost of milk production per buffalo during lactation period is 25682.3 and 33419.24 during inter-calving period. The total fixed cost per buffalo during lactation period is 4382.24 and 5660.13 during inter-calving period. The total variable cost during lactation period is 21300.6 and 27759.11 during inter-calving period.

Total feed cost per buffalo amounting to 17058.34 during lactation period and 21941.12 during inter-calving period. The total maintenance cost during lactation period is 4028.41 and 5525.03 during inter-calving period. The miscellaneous cost during lactation period is 213.3 and 292.95 during inter-calving period.

Total depreciation cost per buffalo on fixed cost during lactation period is amounting to 2389.47 and 3084.11 during inter-calving period. The depreciation on cattle shed during lactation period is 309.82 and 421.29 during inter-calving period. The interest on fixed cost during lactation period is 1682.95 and 2164.72 during inter-calving period.

Table - 2
Average Cost of Milk Production per Animal

Details	Cow		Buffalo	
	Lactation period	Intercalving	Lactation	Intercalving
I. VARIABLE COST	2504.723	3392.577	2510.379	3220.709
A. Feed Cost				
Green Fodder				
Dry Fodder	3246.318	4397.787	4003.425	5151.735
Concentrates	10075.48	14128.53	10544.54	13568.67
Total Feed Cost	15826.54	21918.9	17058.34	21941.12
B. Maintenance Cost				
Feeding and Watering	989.1315	1339.983	1134.405	1586.385
Washing and Cleaning	786.834	1065.893	799.875	1215.473
Veterinary Care	793.4355	1073.25	837.6615	1107.23
Milking	1123.632	1520.775	1256.472	1615.95
Total Maintenance Cost	3693.033	4999.901	4028.414	5525.037
C. Miscellaneous Cost	203.85	275.4	213.3	292.95
Total Variable Cost (A+B+C)	19723.42	27194.2	21300.06	27759.11
II FIXED COST				
Depreciation on Fixed cost	2029.05	2749.545	2389.473	3074.112
Depreciation on Cattle shed	309.825	421.2945	309.825	421.2945
Interest on fixed cost	1624.05	2202.593	1682.951	2164.725
Total Fixed Cost	3962.925	5373.432	4382.249	5660.132
TOTAL COST (I+II)	23686.3	32567.63	25682.31	33419.24
Income from dung	1117.8	1514.7	1395.225	2165.63
Net cost of Milk Production	22568.54	31052.93	24287.08	31253.61
Average Milk Production (litres)		2197.32		1986.23
Cost of Milk Production (per Litre)	10.27094	14.13218	11.3625	15.63411

Source: Primary data.

The income earned from dung per cow during lactation period is 1117.8 and 1514.7 during inter-calving period, whereas the income earned from dung per buffalo during lactation period is 1395.22 and 2165.63 during inter-calving period. The net cost of milk production per cow during lactation period is 22568.4 and 31052.93 during inter-calving

period, while the net cost of milk production per buffalo during lactation period is 24287.08 and 31253.61 during inter-calving period.

Average Cost of Milk Production per Litre

The average cost of milk production per litre is calculated by dividing the total net cost of production per animal with the average yield of milk per animal of both cow and buffalo.

The following table reveals that the average total cost of milk production per litre for cow during lactation period is 10.27 and 14.13 during inter-

calving period. The average variable cost per litre during lactation period is 8.97 and 12.37 during inter-calving period.

Table 3
Average Cost of Milk Production per Litre

Details	Cow		Buffalo	
	Lactation period only in	Intercalving period in	Lactation only	Intercalving period in
I. VARIABLE COST	1.140065	1.544186	1.261044	1.708048
A. Feed Cost				
Green fodder				
Dry fodder	1.477614	2.001724	1.634412	2.214138
Concentrates	4.586017	6.430828	5.072665	7.11324
Total Feed Cost	7.203705	9.976741	7.968131	11.03543
B. Maintenance Cost				
Feeding and Watering	0.450154	0.609826	0.497994	0.674636
Washing and Cleaning	0.358088	0.485088	0.396144	0.536641
Veterinary care	0.361092	0.488436	0.399468	0.540345
Milking	0.511365	0.692104	0.565711	0.765659
Total Maintenance Cost	1.680699	2.275454	1.859318	2.517282
C. Miscellaneous Cost	0.092772	0.125334	0.102632	0.138655
Total Variable Cost				
(A+B+C)	8.976125	12.37608	9.930079	13.69137
II FIXED COST				
Depreciation on Fixed Cost	0.92342	1.251318	1.021558	1.384303
Depreciation on Cattle Shed	0.141001	0.191731	0.155986	0.212108
Interest on Fixed Cost	0.739105	1.0024	0.817655	1.108931
Total Fixed Cost	1.803527	2.445448	1.995199	2.705342
TOTAL COST (I+II)	10.77963	14.82152	11.92526	16.39671
Income from Dung	0.508711	0.68934	0.562775	0.762601
Net cost of Milk Production (per litre)	10.27094	14.13218	11.3625	15.63411

Source: Primary data.

The average feed cost per litre for cow during lactation period is 7.20 and 9.97 during inter-calving period. The average maintenance cost during lactation period is 1.68 and 2.27 during inter-calving period. The miscellaneous cost during lactation period is 0.09 and 0.12 during inter-calving period. The average fixed cost of depreciation on fixed cost per litre during lactation period stands at 0.92 and 1.25 during inter-calving period. The depreciation on cattle shed during lactation period

is 0.14 and 0.19 during inter-calving period and interest on fixed cost during lactation period stands at 0.73 and 1.00 during inter-calving period.

The average cost of milk production per litre for buffalo during lactation period is 11.36 and 15.63 during inter-calving period. The average fixed cost per litre during lactation period is 1.99 and 2.70 during inter-calving period. The average variable cost during lactation period is 9.93 and 13.69 during inter-calving period.

The average variable cost per litre which includes the average feed cost during lactation period is 7.96 and 11.03 during inter-calving period. The average maintenance cost during lactation period is 1.85 and 2.51 during inter-calving period and miscellaneous cost during lactation period is 0.10 and 0.13 during inter-calving period.

The average cost of depreciation on fixed cost per litre for buffalo during lactation period is 1.02 and 1.38 during inter-calving period. The depreciation on cattle shed during lactation period is 0.15 and .21 during inter-calving period and interest on fixed cost during lactation period is 0.81 and 1.10 during inter-calving period.

The income earned from dung per cow per litre during lactation period is 0.4995 and 0.688 during inter-calving period whereas the income earned from dung per buffalo per litre during lactation period is 0.702 and '1.08 during inter-calving period.

The average net cost of milk production per cow per litre during lactation period is 10.27 and 14.13 during inter-calving period, while the average net cost of milk production per buffalo per litre during lactation period is 11.36 and 15.63 during inter-calving period.

Cost and Returns Structure

The cost and returns per milch cow and milch buffalo during lactation period and inter-calving period are analysed in this section.

The annual returns (A) reveal the quantum of milk yield (in litres). The gross returns (B) are deduced from the milk yield and the value of dung. Net returns (C) are obtained by deducting cost from the gross returns. Net returns over variable cost are calculated by deducting variable cost from gross returns and the net returns over total cost is calculated by deducting the total cost from gross returns. The rate of return (D) measures the returns per rupee expenditure on various input items of milch animals.

Table 4
Cost and Returns per Milch Animal during Lactation Period

Quantum, Value and Returns	Cow	Buffalo
A. Annual Returns Quantum of Milk Yield (in litres)	2197.32	1986.23
Price per unit (in ₹)	19.00	21.00
Value of Milk Yield (in ₹)	41749.08	41710.83
Value of dung (in ₹)	1117.80	1395.225
B. Gross Returns	42866.88	43106.05
C. Net Returns	19723.42	21300.06
Total Variable cost		
Net Return over Variable cost	23143.46	21805.99
Total Cost	23686.3	25682.31
Net Return Over total cost	19180.58	17423.74
D. Rate of Return Per Rupee	2.17	2.02
Gross Return/Variable cost Ratio		
Gross Return/Total cost Ratio	1.80	1.67

Source: Primary data.

Since dairy farming is a subsidiary occupation, the same households are very keen to observe and compare the variable costs with returns. The cost and returns per milch cow and milch buffalo during lactation period and inter-calving period are presented in the following tables.

According to the cost and returns per milch animal during lactation period, it is observed from the table that the quantum of milk in litres for cow is 2197.32 and for buffalo is 1986.23 litres. The value of milk for cow is 41749 and ₹41710.83. The value of dung for cow is 1117.80 and for buffalo is 1395.32.

The gross returns of cow are 42866.88 and 43106.05 for buffalo. The net returns over variable

cost are 23143.46 for cow and 21805.99 for buffalo. Whereas, the net returns over total cost is 19180.58 for cow and 17423.74 for buffalo.

The rate of returns by the ratio of gross returns to variable cost is higher in the case of cow (2.17),

while it is lower (2.02) in the case of buffalos. The ratio of gross returns to total cost for cows is 1.80 and a buffalo is 1.67 during the lactation period.

Table 5
Cost and Returns per Milch Animal during Inter-Calving Period

Quantum, Value and Returns	Cow	Buffalo
A. Annual Returns		
Quantum of Milk Yield (in litres)	2197.32	1986.23
Price per unit (in ₹)	19.00	21.00
Value of Milk Yield (in ₹)	41749.08	41710.83
Value of dung (in ₹)	1514.7	2165.63
B. Gross Returns	43263.78	43876.46
C. Net Returns	27194.2	27759.11
Total Variable cost		
Net Return over Variable cost	16069.58	16117.35
Total Cost	32567.63	33419.24
Net Return Over total cost	10696.15	10454.22
D. Rate of Return Per Rupee	1.59	1.58
Gross Return/Variable cost Ratio		
Gross Return/Total cost Ratio	1.32	1.31

Source: Primary data.

On the basis of the cost and returns per milch animal during inter-calving period, it is observed that the quantum of milk in litres for cow is 2197.32 litres and for buffalo it is 1986.23 litres. The value of milk is 41749.08 for cow and ₹41710.83 for buffalo. And the value of dung is observed to be ₹1514.7 for cow and ₹2165.63 for buffalo.

The gross returns for cow are observed to be 43263.78 and 43876.46 for buffalo. The net returns over variable cost for cow is 16069.58 and 16117.36 for buffalo and the net returns over total cost for cow is 10696.15 and 10454.22 for buffalo during inter-calving period.

It is interesting to note that there is no significant variation between cow and buffalo in terms of ratio of gross returns to variable cost and ratio of gross returns to total cost during inter-calving period in the study area.

Determinants of Milk Yield and Resource-Use Efficiency

The yield of milk is determined by various factors Due to variations in genetic characteristics, feeding

and management practices, there are large variations in the relative economic efficiencies of cow and buffalo reared in different resource situations. High-yielding cow and buffalo are faced with the problem of scarce resources at the farm level and these resources have to be optimally utilized on the basis of their Marginal Value of Productivity (MVPs) in order to gain maximum income from dairy-farming.

The examines the determinants of yield of milk through Cobb-Douglas Production Function and attempts to estimate the resource productivities with the help of Marginal Value Productivity (MVP). In order to examine the efficiency of various factors (inputs) affecting milk production, the following form of Cobb-Douglas Production Function has been used.

$$\log Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log x_1 + \beta_2 \log x_2 + \beta_3 \log x_3 + \beta_4 \log x_4 + \beta_5 \log x_5 + U$$

where,

Y = Value of milk yield per animal per day during lactation period in rupees.

X1= Value of green fodder fed per animal per day during lactation period in rupees.

X2=Value of dry fodder fed per animal per day during lactation period in rupees.

X3= Value of concentrates fed per animal per day during lactation period in rupees.

X4= Maintenance cost per animal per day during lactation period in rupees

X5= Miscellaneous cost per animal per day during lactation period in rupees

U = Disturbance term.

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_4$ are the parameters to be estimated.

The following table is observed that green fodder, dry fodder, concentrates, maintenance cost and miscellaneous cost are statistically significant at 5 per cent level and they are positively related to yield of milk production in the cases of cow and buffalo indicating that there is scope for increasing production of milk by increasing the use of inputs.

It is found that one per cent increase in green fodder, dry fodder, concentrates, maintenance cost and

miscellaneous cost could lead to 0.2795, 0.2415, 0.3088, 0.3276 and 0.1338 in increase in yield of milk respectively in the case of cow. It is observed that one per cent increase in green fodder, dry fodder; concentrates, maintenance cost and miscellaneous cost may lead to 0.21047, 0.32307, 0.248953, 0.49673 and 0.113057 increase in the yield of milk respectively in the case of buffalo.

It is also observed that one per cent increase in green fodder, dry fodder, concentrates, maintenance cost and miscellaneous cost may lead to 0.310246, 0.295728, 0.190869, 0.87636 and 0.13707 increase in the yield of milk respectively in the pooled category.

It is seen from the table 5.8 that the R^2 values are 0.79, 0.81, and 0.84 for cow, buffalo and pooled data respectively indicating that the selected inputs are important factors for explaining the variation in the yield of milk.

Table 6
Estimated Regression Results in Milk Yield for Cow and Buffalo

Variable	Parameters Estimate		
	Cow	Buffalo	Pooled
Intercept	1.85356	0.817278	2.317878
β_1	0.2795 ** (3.123)	0.210474** (2.6271)	0.310246** (3.2256)
β_2	0.24146** (2.9620)	0.323068** (1.9731)	0.295728** (1.9921)
β_3	0.308847** (2.696)	0.248953 ** (2.325)	0.190869** (2.132)
β_4	0.327562 ** (2.9821)	0.496723 ** (2.7523)	0.87636 (2.3204)
β_5	0.133862 ** (2.013)	0.113057 ** (3.1234)	0.137079 ** (2.4126)
R^2	0.79	0.81	0.84
F-Value	35.61	18.23	66.87

Note: 1. Figures in parentheses represent t-value.
2. ** Indicates that the Parameter Co-efficient is significant at 5 per cent level.

Resource-USE Efficiency

The Marginal Value Productivity (MVP) of a factor input is defined as the change in the yield of milk in rupees, resulting from a change of one factor and keeping all other factors constant.

X_1, \dots Are the geometric mean level of yield of milk (in) of green fodder (in), dry fodder (in), concentrates (in), maintenance cost (in) and miscellaneous expenditure (in) respectively.

The basic condition to be satisfied to obtain efficient resource use is the equality of marginal value productivity to factor cost. Since all the inputs and outputs are expressed in monetary terms in the

present study, the acquisition cost of the inputs is taken as one rupee. The criterion used to assess the resource allocation efficiency is to test the MVPs against unity.

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productivity to factor cost. Since all the inputs and output are expressed in monetary terms in the present study, the acquisition cost is taken as one rupee. The criterion used to the resource allocation efficiency is to test the MVPs against unity.

Table 7

Marginal Value Productivity (MVP) and Resource-Use Efficiency of Inputs in Milk Production for Cow and Buffalo

Inputs	M.V.P.	Price	Difference between MVP and Price
Green Fodder			
Cow	0.180869	1.00	-0.81913
Buffalo	0.16648	1.00	-0.83352
Dry Fodder			
Cow	0.12529	1.00	-0.87947
Buffalo	0.160237	1.00	-0.83
Concentrates			
Cow	0.047987	1.00	-0.95201
Buffalo	0.04688	1.00	-0.95
Maintenance Cost			
Cow	0.143816	1.00	-0.85618
Buffalo	0.24484	1.00	-0.75516
Miscellaneous Cost			
Cow	1.067007	1.00	0.067007
Buffalo	1.05247	1.00	0.0524

Source: Compiled using table.

The marginal value productivity has been found less than unity for all inputs in the case of both cow and buffalo except miscellaneous cost in the study area. This indicates the over utilization of all the inputs except miscellaneous cost in the study area. It is suggested that employment of these resources should be increased till the ratio becomes unity.

Conclusion

The study on cost and returns structure and resource use efficiency of milk production has been satisfactory as the growth of milk production. It is observed that increased returns scale has been found in the case of both cow and buffalo. The study reveals that cows yield milk is higher than the buffalo's yield milk. It is interesting to note that there is no significant variation between cow and buffalo in terms of ratio of gross returns to variable cost and ratio of gross returns to total cost during inter-calving period in the study area.

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