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Third Concept aims at providing a platform where a meaningful exchange of ideas can take place among the people of the Third World. The attempt will be to communicate, debate and disseminate information, ideas and alternatives for the resolution of the common problems facing humankind. We welcome contributions from academics, journalists and even from those who may never have published anything before. The only requirement is a concern for and desire to understand and take the issue of our time. Contributions may be descriptive, analytical or theoretical. They may be in the form of original articles, reactions to previous contributions, or even a comment on a prevailing situation. All contributions, neatly typed in double space, may be addressed to:

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Third Concept
LB - 39, Prakash Deep Building,
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Phones : 23711092, 23712249
Fax No: 23711092.
E-mail : third.concept@rediffmail.com
Website: www.thirdconceptjournal.co.in

Designed by: Pt. Tejpal

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Jobless Growth

Present dispensation led by Prime Minister Narendra Modi at the Centre has completed three years in office in May this year. Modi, then the prime ministerial candidate of the BJP, in his election speeches in 2014, would pointedly tell new voters among the youth to give the BJP a chance to improve their lives as they finished their education and entered the labour market. After having been in power for three years, the Modi government has proved to be an utter failure on this metric alone. Under the Modi-led NDA government, there has been a sheer decline in organized sector. Under the UPA-II, during the three years from 2009 to 2011, when India's GDP was still growing at an average 8.5%, the organised sector was opening avenues on average 9.5 lakh for new jobs every year; and even this was seen relatively as 'jobless growth' by the economists. The past two years, 2015 and 2016, have witnessed the average employment generation plummeting to less than 2 lakh jobs a year, which is less than 25% of the annual employment generated before 2011.

In the wake of such a precipitous decline in employment growth in organised sector, many economists have raised the question as to what is going wrong in this sector, where India is expected to enjoy a competitive edge globally. As a sequel to the decline in fresh employment generation to an all time low of 1.5 lakh jobs in 2015, the government expanded the scope of the organized industry from just eight manufacturing sectors to include some key service industries, including education and health to bump up the growth figures. Undoubtedly, this new trick helped the government to show a slight improvement in new job growth from 1.55 lakh in 2015 to 2.31 lakh in 2016; nevertheless, some critics opine that it was still only 25% of the organized sector jobs generated in 2009.

Almost all economists are unanimous about a correlation between the trend in the organised and unorganized sectors. A slowdown of over 70% in the organized sector jobs during the past three years makes it unlikely to perceive a robust growth in unorganized sector jobs, which constitute over 85% of the total labour market, during the same period. Another worrisome question in coming years would be about high employment generating sectors like IT and BPO, which currently employ about four lakh people, because, according to this sector's own estimates, up to 60% of this workforce would be of no use with their present skill level and owing to the impact of automation.

Some economists, while pointing out existing disconnect between GDP and job growth, lament that this huge disconnect is likely to worsen in the coming decade. They further opine that assuming 7-8% annual growth, 2025 will see GDP double, India will add over 80 million net new job seekers; but at current rates only 30 million net new jobs – mostly informal, and low-wage ones – would be created. Recent move by the government of Andhra Pradesh to give a monthly allowance of around Rs 2,000 to every unemployed youth till they find a job, though a part of ruling party's 2014 election manifesto to ensure at least one job for each family in the state, is not seem as a durable solution to tackle employment problem by many experts. The OECD, in its February 2017 *Economic Surveys India report*, has marked four crucial areas which India must immediately address to reverse the dire trend in jobs: Better data to reveal real unemployment figures, skilling up the youth and making them ready for the market, investing more in key sectors such as education and most importantly, fixing the archaic labour laws.

Conceding that India ranks amongst fast-growing global economies; some critics lament that the growth has essentially been jobless. They opine that the tricky problem of unemployment has not been tackled by adequate policy change and display of political resolve. If the current situation is allowed to continue, the possibility of things going out of control cannot be ruled out. The so-called 'demographic dividend', which is currently pulling India down for want of jobs, can become a liability for the present dispensation and may replicate the 2004 scenario of 'Shining India vs. Dark India' in the 2019 general elections.

— BK

Evolving empathy between China and Singapore!

Dr. Sudhanshu Tripathi*

[Despite being very much asymmetrical as regards their geographical contours as well as overall capacity and power, both Singapore and China have continued to maintain their close bilateral relations for the past many years though that took an unfortunate plunge in 2016, particularly after The Hague Arbitration (International Court of Justice) ruling of 12th July over South China Sea dispute.]

Though the Chinese consider close kinship with Singaporeans as around 78 percent of them are of Chinese descent and that arouses a false perception in China about Singapore as a Chinese nation and also in the West which refers Singapore as the “Third China”, but Singapore is, in fact, a multi-racial country rather a city-state or port city. It is because of these misperceptions that Singapore deliberately took time to become the last of the five founding members of Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) for establishing diplomatic relations with China.

Today the city-state is marked by an unique blend of authoritarian state-capitalism with open markets and amazing socio-economic progress, low crime rate, high standard of hygiene & cleanliness, modern urban planning etc., which have, indeed, mesmerized many countries in the world.

Indeed, Singapore is well aware of its tiny city-state status flanked by the much bigger neighbours, like Malaysia and Indonesia, and also the predominant regional hegemon as China, it remains particularly cautious about its security and national priorities which, lest, may not get overshadowed by that of the regional alliance system - the ASEAN.

In fact, the communist victories in Indochina and Vietnam’s invasion of Cambodia in 1975 and 1978 respectively made the island-state afraid of the mounting communist threat in the Southeast Asia and, consequently, reinforced its view that

the United States should play a dominant role in maintaining security and stability in the region. In fact, Singapore’s first prime minister, Lee Kuan Yew well understood the importance of having the support of an “overwhelming power on its side.”

Because of its limited strategic space as a city-state and also suffering a kind of threat from communist Vietnam and China, besides being sandwiched between Malaysia and Indonesia, Singapore has always advocated and supported the American presence in the region as a potent security guarantor *vis-à-vis* mounting Chinese interference and assertions in East Asia - as Beijing has territorial disputes with almost all countries in the region - and with the goal in hand, it has also cultivated strong economic and security links with the global Super Power.

As a matter of fact, the US-Singapore security ties date as far back as to the 1960s, when Singapore actively supported American war endeavours in Vietnam. In the same way, the economic relations between the two are vigorously marching ahead as the United States is Singapore’s second most important trade partner after China. The island state has also attracted major investments from the United States due to its much practiced bold open-door investment policies and highly developed business infrastructure facilities, much to the liking of foreign investors.

Indeed, more than 1300 U.S. companies have already invested in Singapore, and over 300 have also set up their regional headquarters there with many more still awaiting their turn. And for this

* Associate Prof., in Pol. Sc., M. D. P. G. College, Pratapgarh (UP).

very end, Singapore has so far sincerely maintained its rhythm with the US through its cordial overtures towards Washington ever since its inception while considering America as an effective counter-balancing power in the evolving regional security architecture against the Chinese aggressive and imperialist-expansionist misadventures and bullying tactics based upon its brute military power, not only in its vicinity but also in the Asia-Pacific to cover the entire Indo-Pacific region and even beyond.

Although the bilateral relations between Singapore and China were moving on the right track and both celebrated the 25th Anniversary of the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations between them in 2015, wherein the Presidents of Singapore and China exchanged visits into one another country and also agreed to elevate their bilateral relations to an “All-Round Cooperative Partnership Progressing With The Times”, but the so-gained momentum witnessed a severe jerk, the very next year.

First, the Chinese were quite upset over Singapore’s support for the International Court’s arbitration on South China Sea, and then by Singapore’s alleged attempt to get this very ruling included into the Final document of the 17th Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) Summit at Margarita (Venezuela) in September 2016. Though Singapore’s ambassador, Stanley Loh denied raising the South China Sea dispute in the NAM Summit but the Chinese Foreign Ministry spokesman Geng Shuang repeatedly accused Singapore - though without naming it - of unnecessarily harping on the issue and deliberately dragging Beijing into the so-arisen controversy, thereby causing to arouse a very unfortunate public spat on the global stage.

Again in November 2016, the subsequent impounding of the nine Singaporean Armed Force’s armoured vehicles by the customs department of Hong Kong, while in transit from Taiwan, further deteriorated their already tense relations because China considered it as an act of violation of the one-China policy and local rules of Hong Kong. The episode even rattled

many Singaporeans and left them askance about their prime minister’s strategic judgment.

Although Singapore has not been a party against China in this South China Sea dispute, yet the NAM Summit episode did incite anxious alarms among Chinese officials who became worried and suspicious over Singapore’s hostile attitude. However, the gravity of all these incidents and their likely impacts upon their mutual relations must be assessed against the backdrop of their emergence as sovereign countries in the comity of nations.

While the People’s Republic of China came into existence in 1949 after the successful culmination of Mao-led communist revolution into the country, the Republic of Singapore was established in 1965 which consists of 63 islands including the main island Pulau Ujong. From 1965 until the late 1970s, political relations between China and Singapore were unfriendly and acrimonious mostly due to the city-state’s persisting inclination towards the US. Beijing also condemned the leaders of Singapore as the running dogs of the imperialist America, the UK and other imperialist powers in the West.

Ever since establishing diplomatic relations in 1990, both Singapore and China have forged close bonds in areas as diverse as that of trade, finance, and investments etc. because both aimed at rapid economic progress and prosperity as the sole objective to strengthen and consolidate their respective national power and socio-political stability.

Indeed, the trade and investment ties between the two countries grew steadily over the years, and China became the largest trading partner of Singapore in 2014, with bilateral trade in goods reaching a significant mark of \$86 billion. In fact, the Singaporean investment in China reached \$7.23 billion in the year 2013, thereby making the city-state as the largest investor of China. Remarkably, Singapore is still the top investment destination for China in the East Asia.

Obviously, while acknowledging Singapore’s continuing confidence in the booming Chinese economy, both the governments recently

concluded an historic agreement to launch a third flagship project in the western region of China; which is focused over Chongqing with a view to boost regional connectivity by experimenting with new policies on lowering financing and logistics which can then be expanded across the entire China.

Thus Beijing has certainly emerged as an influential power in South and Southeast Asia by effectively promoting regional integration strategy through various bilateral and multilateral fora and that has further elevated its dominant position in the region.

It is against this scenario, the recently held meeting between Singapore's Deputy Prime Minister Teo Chee Hean and China's counterpart Zhang Gaoli may be viewed a significant development in the onward course of improving bilateral relations as both of them need each other perhaps much due to racial similarity. Whereas Singapore's fast economic growth model is a potential paradigm attracting Beijing towards facilitating a pro-business environment in its own interests, Singapore's own security concerns including fear of getting isolated in the region have inevitably pushed it towards China. This is so because almost all countries of Southeast Asia like the Philippines, Myanmar, Malaysia, Thailand, Cambodia and Laos have already united to cooperate with China which clearly testifies the Beijing's rising acceptability among the ASEAN nations despite the bitter acrimony that erupted following the Hague's arbitration ruling, rejecting Chinese sovereign claim over South China Sea, in favour of the Philippines.

Both Chinese Vice-Premier Zhang Gaoli and Singaporean Deputy Prime Minister TeoCheeHean, co-chaired the 13th meeting of China- Singapore Joint Council for Bilateral Cooperation; a high-level institutional mechanism established in 2003 to oversee the entire range of bilateral cooperation thereby signaling the return of their bilateral ties back to their normal course of development after the aforesaid rupture in the relations between the two countries. The high-level meeting provided a good opportunity for the two sides to take

concrete steps toward substantiating the proposed partnership between them as the two nations have had good prospects for enhancing and broadening cooperation with renewed thrust both at bilateral and multilateral levels.

Both the leaders also co-chaired meetings on three government flagship projects between China and Singapore *viz.* the Suzhou Industrial Park, Tianjin Eco-city and Chongqing Connectivity Initiative, manifesting their eagerness to cast aside their recent differences and start afresh to concentrate on deepening and diversifying their so-carried meaningful co-operations. This will, to a large extent, prove to be a boon for not only both the nations but also for the entire region of the Asian continent as an opportune moment when the global geo-politics is said to be moving towards the East.

In order to carry on the so arrived fresh momentum in their refurbished relations, the two sides must carefully manage to resolve their existing differences in an honest spirit of mutual respect and care towards each other's sensibilities, while at the same time, both must cast an extra look over their respective national interests and concerns. More specifically, as an international shipping hub,

Singapore can play an important role in China's Belt and Road Initiative launched as a model of an economic integration agenda with the world by aligning its development strategies with that of China and actively pushing for bilateral cooperation in such fields as infrastructure, finance and information technology. Similarly China has always valued its ties with Singapore, viewing it as an important partner for economic cooperation and a bridge between China and the other countries of ASEAN in South East Asia.

Thus, for their bilateral ties to steer clear of unwanted hardships and unnecessary disruptions in all times to come, the key, obviously, lies in observing mutual respect for each other's core interests and accommodation to each other's major concerns in the honest spirit of sharing and caring by both the nations.



Impact of Climate Change on LDCs of Africa

Dr. Mohammed EhrarAlam*

[Climate change refers to the increasingly erratic weather patterns, rising sea levels and extreme events that may be attributed to human activity and the greenhouse gases (GHGs) emissions that have created global warming. It is often viewed as a purely scientific and technical phenomenon, and yet climate change is also a social, economic and political issue with profound implications for human lives around the world. The 2009 report of the University of Copenhagen asserts that temperatures rising above 2p will be difficult for contemporary societies to cope with and are likely to cause major societal and environmental disruptions through the rest of the century and beyond. The human activities that change the environment are having the greatest impact on climate and are the most critical.]

Warming of the climate system is unequivocal, as is now evident from observations of increases in global average air and ocean temperatures, widespread melting of snow and ice and rising global average sea level. Based on past observations and projections for the future, some important findings have been provided in the AR4, (Pachauri, R. K and A. Resisinger, (Eds) 2007), which need urgent attention and action to meet this growing challenge across the globe.

Sea level is rising significantly. During the 20th century, sea level rose about 15 cm (6 inches) due to melting glacier ice and expansion of warmer sea water. Frequency of extreme droughts is increasing. Higher temperatures cause a higher rate of evaporation and more droughts in some areas of the world. Ecosystems are changing. As temperatures warm, species may either move to a cooler habitat or die. Species that are particularly vulnerable include endangered species, coral reefs, and polar animals. Warming has also caused changes in the timing of spring events and the length of growing season.

Continued Greenhouse Gases (GHGs) emission at or above current rates would cause further warming and include many changes in the global climate systems during the 21st century that would

* Asst Prof., Dept of Geography, AdiKeih College of Arts and Social Sciences, Eritrea.

very likely be larger than those observed in the 20th century. For the next two decades a warming of about 0.2p C per decade is projected for a range of emission scenarios. As it happens, even if the concentration of all GHGs were to be kept constant at the year 2000 levels, a further warming of about 0.1p C per decade would be expected. Beyond that, temperature projections depend increasingly on specific emission scenarios.

This paper is an original outcome of secondary data. The secondary data have been collected from different magazines, journals, books, different ministries, Internet and unpublished projects.

Climate Change and Developed Countries

In Australia and New Zealand, for instance, by 2020 significant loss of biodiversity is projected to grow in some ecologically rich sites, including the Great Barrier Reef and Queensland Wet Tropics and by 2030 production from agriculture and forestry is projected to decline over much of Southern and Eastern Australia.

Climate change can also result in abrupt or irreversible impact. For instance, partial loss of ice sheets on polar land and or thermal expansion of sea level rise, major changes in the coast lines and inundation of low laying areas, with greatest effects in river deltas and low laying islands. It

was also concluded that 20-30 per cent of the species assessed so far are likely to be at increased risk of extinction if increase in global average warming exceeds 1.5 - 2.5p C relative to temperatures that existed at the end of the last century.

Altered frequencies and intensities of extreme weather, together with sea level rise, are expected to have most adverse effects on natural and human systems. Some systems, sectors and regions are likely to be especially affected by climate change. For instance, in the dry tropics and in the areas dependent on snow and ice melt, agriculture in low latitude regions and human health in areas with low adaptive capacity are particularly vulnerable. Within other regions including even those with high incomes, some people, areas and activities can be particularly at risk.

Rising sea levels and melting ice caps, erratic weather pattern, drought and flooding are the major threats of climate change. With its dramatic and harmful effects on the environment, climate change threatens the basic elements of life for people throughout the world, harming health and the environment and limiting access to water, food and land. As such, it will potentially make every one of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) less achievable, slowing efforts to eradicate poverty, improve health and protect the environment.

Evidence is growing that climate change is contributing to the burden of disease. According to the World Health Organization, in 2000, climate change was estimated to be responsible for approximately 2.4 per cent of worldwide diarrhoea and 6 per cent of malaria in some middle-income countries (World Health Organization, 2000) diseases that disproportionately affect young children in developing countries (Gordon, B. R. M and E. Rehfuss, 2004).

As the world warms, people could suffer hunger, water shortages and coastal flooding. As rains fail, crops will wither and livestock will die, exposing children to starvation and diminishing

water supplies for drinking and hygiene. The World Health organization (WHO) estimates that human-induced climate change already claims over 150,000 lives every year (The Health and Environment Linkages Initiative (HELI, 2011). The health impacts of climate change include the dire consequences of more extreme weather events such as hurricanes, heat waves, droughts and floods; and spread of infectious diseases with high mortality, including cholera and gastroenteritis, particularly in water-stressed communities.

Satellite data since 1978 show that annual average arctic sea ice extent has shrank by 2.7 per cent per decade, with larger decreases in summer of 7.4 per cent per decade. Mountain glaciers and snow cover on average have declined in both hemispheres. From 1900 to 2005, precipitation increased significantly in eastern parts of North and South America, Northern Europe and Northern and Central Asia but declined in Sahel, the Mediterranean, Southern Africa, and parts of Southern Asia. Globally, the area affected by drought has increased since the 1970s. There are observational evidences of an increase in intense tropical cyclone activity in the Northern Atlantic since 1970, with limited evidence of increase elsewhere.

Average northern hemisphere temperature during the second half of 20th century was very likely higher than during any other 50 years period in the last 500 years and likely the highest in at least the past 1300 years. At continental, regional, and ocean basin scales, numerous long term changes in other aspects have also been observed.

Some extreme weather events have changed over the last 50 years

- It is very likely that cold days, cold nights and frost have become less frequent over most land areas while hot days and hot nights have become more frequent.
- It is likely that heat waves have become more frequent over most areas.

- It is likely that the frequency of heavy precipitation events (or proportion of the total rainfall from heavy falls) has increased over most areas.
- It is likely the incidence of extreme high sea level has increased at a broad range of sites worldwide since 1975.

Impact of Climate Change Trends in East-West Africa

One way to present ongoing and future trends in occupational heat stress is to create coloured maps based on globally gridded climate data and modeled data on climate futures. We have used gridded spatial data (0.5 x 0.5 degrees grid cells; 55,000 grid cells above land surfaces) available free of charge from the Climate Research Unit (CUR) at the University of East Anglia, United Kingdom, and calculated the WBGT max (indoor) levels for the month of June in the northern part of Africa.

The increase estimated heat stress levels from 1975 to 2050 are clear from the colour trends and extreme levels (WBGT max 32 C) occur in parts of Ethiopia, Somalia, Eritrea, and the near-Saharan countries across to the Africa west coast.

In general, developing countries – in particular the poorest – depend heavily on agriculture, the most climate-sensitive of all economic sectors, and suffer from inadequate healthcare and low-quality public services (African News Letter, 2011).

Projected Impacts by Fourth Assessment Report of Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change in the Africa Continent:

- By 2020, between 75 and 250 million people are projected to be exposed to increased water stress due to climate change in the continent of Africa.
- By 2020, in some countries yields from rain-fed agriculture could be reduced by up to 50 per cent. Agriculture production, including access to food, in many African countries is

projected to be severely compromised. This would further adversely affect food security and exacerbate malnutrition.

- Toward the end of the 21st century, projected sea level rise will affect low lying coastal areas with large population. The cost of adaptation could amount to at least 5-10 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in this Africa continent.
- By 2080, an increase of 5-8 per cent of arid and semi arid land in Africa is projected under a range of climate scenarios. Such a long term prediction of the behavior of atmosphere is lacking in Eritrea. This is because of less sophisticated instruments to collect data from parts of the country. Those aspects of the problem contribute to weaker forecasts as the time of projection increases (Wim, G. Ssombroke, and R. Gomme, 1996).

It is noticed that Africa's nutrition situation is deteriorating, and this is a serious concern. Much of the population is more vulnerable to malnutrition and starvation than ever before. Clearly, the problems need tangible and sustained support from the international community, but it also needs a host of fresh ideas (Ruskin, F. R., 1996). Climate change could worsen the situation if immediate steps are not taken to counter the efforts by increasing more awareness and make necessary changes in life styles to protect the environment. Social forestation and resorting to alternate energy sources should be encouraged. Proper funding and technology should be provided to the African countries.

Future Impact on African Countries

Current evidence suggests that developing countries – which are mostly located in warmer regions and whose major source of income is agriculture – will be worst hit by changes in rainfall patterns, greater weather extremes and increasing droughts and floods. Change in precipitation patterns is likely to affect the quality and quantity of water supplies, thus compounding the impact of poor water and sanitation, as well as malnutrition. Weather-related physical hazards

such as hurricanes and flooding are likely to intensify, resulting in more deaths, injuries and trauma.

Without action today, the costs and risks of a 5°C–6°C warming – which is a real possibility for the next century – will be equivalent to losing at least 5 per cent of global GDP each year, now and into the foreseeable future. If a wider range of risks and impacts is taken into account, the estimates of damage could rise to 20 per cent of GDP or more (Treasury, H. M.). By 2020, climate change is projected to expose an estimated 75 million people in Africa alone to increased water stress.

Towards the end of the 21st century, a projected sea-level rise will affect low-lying, heavily populated coastal areas. Adaptation costs could amount to at least 5–10 per cent of GDP. New studies confirm that Africa is particularly vulnerable to climate variability and change due to its multiple stresses and low adaptive capacity (IPCC, 2007).

Also, by the year 2020 in some countries of Africa, yields from rain-fed agriculture could be reduced by 50 per cent. Agriculture production, including access to food in many African countries, is projected to be severely compromised. This would further adversely affect food security and exacerbate malnutrition.

Most of the global warming, caused by human activities that increase concentrations of Green House Gases (GHGs) in the atmosphere, will lead to severe impacts on natural ecosystem, human health and water resources, especially in developing countries, where reduced agriculture yields, the rise in sea level, extreme weather events and the greater prevalence of some infectious diseases are likely to be particularly disruptive (OECD, 2009).

Warming of 2p C could result in a 4 to 5 per cent permanent reduction in annual income per capita in Africa and South Asia, as opposed to animal losses in high income countries and global average GDP loss of about 1 per cent (The World Bank. 2010). According to International Labour

Organization (ILO), 1.8 billion people are expected to suffer from fresh water scarcity by 2025, mostly in Africa and Asia, and 2 million people globally are expected to die permanently each year due to indoor and outdoor air pollution (ILO, 2008).

In countries already classified as “water-stressed,” such as South Africa, demand for water exceeds the available supply, or use is limited by the poor quality of potable water. With climate, hotter and drier conditions will increase water shortages, with a consequent increase in food insecurity, hunger and malnutrition (Patz, J. A. *et al.*, 2005). In addition, increasing number of every hot day each year will affect the ability of people to carry out daily tasks, including their capacity for income generating work. This will mean a disproportionate economic burden on already marginal populations (Kjellstrom, T. *et al.*, 2009).

With regard to malaria, already one of the main causes of infant and maternal mortality, climate change will alter the breeding environments of the anopheles vector, resulting in drying of some areas with reduced transmission, but simultaneously rendering previously unaffected areas more suitable environments for these organisms. As a result, malaria control programmes will be more difficult to plan, posing particular challenges to countries in sub – Saharan Africa (Tanser, F. C. *et.al.*, 2003).

The continent of Africa has heavily been influenced by climate change. Land degradation is often a cause and a consequence of rural poverty. Desertification can cause poverty, and poverty can cause further desertification. About 2 million people are potential victims of the effects of desertification, 50 million people will be displaced over the next 10 years from the continent of Africa (James H., 2009).

No continent except Antarctica is immune from desertification. The problem is particularly acute in Africa, which has 37 percent of the world’s arid zones. About 66 percent of its land is either desert or dry lands.

Recent climate changes and variations are beginning to have effects on many natural and human systems, including earlier spring crop planting at the higher latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere. In the Sahelian region of Africa, warmer and drier conditions have led to a reduced growing season with detrimental effects on crops. Yields from rain-fed agriculture depend on rainfall.

Conclusion

The scientific uncertainty surrounding the issue of climate change will not be resolved soon. The time scales of climate change are usually so long that observational studies are usually too short to provide adequate answers. The uncertainty is exacerbated by limitations in modeling techniques, especially at the local scale, and by the lack of knowledge about the complex biophysical responses in field conditions to global change.

In spite of many uncertainties, global warming can be a serious problem that could have implications on agriculture and on natural ecosystems. Past and present activities of the industrial countries are currently the major source of CO₂. It is their responsibility to reduce emissions first and prepare for the likely consequences; imposing reduction targets on agriculture in developing countries is impartial and non-equitable.

Change in climate significantly affects a wide range of physical systems including water resources, agriculture, forestry and human settlement. Climate change has a greater impact on agriculture production of the world by shifting the rainfall pattern of a given environment. Global agriculture will be under significant pressure to meet the demands of rising populations using finite, often degraded, soil and water resources that are predicted to be further stressed by the impact of climate change. The ongoing building of green house gases in the atmosphere is promoting shifts in climate across the globe that will affect agro-ecological conditions.

Climate change has evolved from an 'environmental' issue into one that requires collective expertise in sustainable development, energy security, and the health and well-being of human being.

Overall, the impacts of climate change in the developing countries of the world need careful consideration, because resilience and capacity of societies in several developing countries to cope with projected impacts of climate change are limited. This is a subject which needs to be addressed both at global, as well as the local level, and creating knowledge and awareness on this issue would be of great value not only for sensitizing policy makers but also the public at large, particularly the younger generations whose future would be impacted by various dimensions of climate change.

Suggestions

Researches should continue to build the evidence base by gathering and analyzing qualitative and quantitative information around the social, economic and political issues affected by climate change.

- Support climate change institutions to critically examine their own structures and processes, identifying and addressing ways in which they may create awareness and solutions, by using institutional audits and other mechanisms.
- Enable the equal participation of the general public and climate change processes at local, national and international levels.
- Fund civil society institutions at international, national and local levels to hold climate change policy makers to account on their political commitment to counter the impact of climate change.

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PERSPECTIVES ON WOMEN

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The IPCC's 'Summary for Policymakers: A Comment

Dr. Satyabrata Mishra*

[Recent reports from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's (IPCC) "Summary for Policymakers" make for alarming reading about the global warming phenomenon. How bad climate impacts will be beyond the mid-century depend crucially on the world urgently shifting to a development trajectory that is clean, sustainable, and equitable, a notion of equity that includes space for the poor, for future generations and other species.]

Every few months or so, I come across some fact when reading climate literature that just makes my stomach clench. This happened twice when reading the recently released Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's (IPCC) "Summary for Policy-makers" (henceforth SPM, or Summary). Snow cover in the Northern Hemisphere in June, says the SPM, has reduced by 11.7% per decade since 1967, which means that snow cover in that month over the Northern Hemisphere had fallen to half of what it was less than 50 years ago.

The second time was when reading that permafrost - frozen soil that extends several million square kilometers along the high Northern latitudes, had frozen to several feet deep below the surface since the last glacial period, until now - has warmed by a staggering 3 degree Celsius in northern Alaska since the early 1980s and 2°C in the Russian European north since 1971.

The IPCC, for those who, like me, came in late, every six years or so publishes assessment reports in three huge volumes on the science, impacts and mitigation respectively of climate change. The last such Assessment Report, the fourth, was in 2007. The document that has been just released worldwide is the SPM of the first volume of the Fifth Report, of earlier established climate science and of key peer-reviewed publications since 2007.

The Summary is vetted by political elites of various countries before it is released, and has

* Associate Prof., Dept of Environmental Economics, M.P.C. (A) College, Mayurbhanj, Odisha.

consequently often been criticized for being too conservative in some areas. Notwithstanding the truth of that, I must say that the IPCC assessment reports are extraordinary. It is a pity that such compilations, with the latest advancements in research worldwide, are not also possible in economics, sociology, political science or whatever is the field of one's interest.

The earth's surface over each of the last three decades, says the latest Summary, has been warmer than any preceding decade since 1850, and has warmed by 0.85°C since 1880 (the earth's average temperature in 2011 was 14.47°C). An average rise of 0.85°C may not seem like much until we realise that barely 5-6°C separate current temperatures from the peak of the last glacial period 20,000 years ago; that some regions, like the Arctic and the Himalayas, are warming much faster than this average; and that a number of species have already been rendered extinct by warm-ing thus far.

This temperature rise is also significant because it reversed a long-term downward trend in the earth's average temperature, a natural decline that began roughly 5,500 years ago until about 1850 (Marcott et al 2013).

What, according to the SPM, is causing all this and more? Of the total green-house gases (GHGs) emissions since industrialisation began in the mid-18th century, 44% or little less than half has accumulated in the atmosphere, the rest being almost equally taken up by the oceans (making them more acidic), and by land-based

ecosystems. As a consequence, the atmospheric concentrations of the three main GHGs, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O), have risen to levels “unprecedented in at least the last 8,00,000 years”.

They have risen to 391 parts per million (ppm), 1,803 parts per billion (ppb), and 324 ppb in 2011, respectively, a rise 40, 150 and 20% above pre-industrial levels. Carbon dioxide emissions alone from fossil fuels and cement production was nearly 35 billion tonnes in 2011, 54% above 1990 levels, the benchmark year against which GHG emission cuts are measured under the Kyoto Protocol, a benchmark some countries, like the United States, are trying to unilaterally shift to 2005.

More ‘Warming in the Pipeline’

The section on the energy imbalance, caused by the main drivers of climate change, known as their radiative forcing,² throws up a number of interesting points about the present situation. One, there has been a huge jump in human-caused radiative forcing since the last Assessment Report in 2007, because of rising emissions and new measurements of the warming effects of black carbon (Figure 5: 31 in the report).

Two, there has been a particularly sharp rise in methane’s forcing, a potentially sensitive issue given its connections with rice submergence farming carried out so widely in India and China. Whereas, it is true that methane emissions have been rising since 2005 - no one has established why - in contrast to their plateauing since 1993, and that methane is 57 times as potent a gas as CO₂,³ the sharp rise in the latest report is partly because the calculation includes its indirect effects on stratospheric water vapour and ozone.

Three, changes in the Sun’s solar irradiance clearly has no effect on global warming, measuring just 0.05 watts/m² since 1750, insignificant in comparison to human-caused forcing such as, say, carbon dioxide emissions (1.82 watts/ m²) and methane (0.97 watts/m²). But the most significant thing about this section

is about the future: it is particularly alarming that the radiative forcing from the three main GHGs mentioned above and from halocarbons are in the range of 3 watts/m², because there is a commensurate relationship between radiative forcing and eventual temperature rise, of roughly 0.75°C of warming for every watt of forcing.

The Summary does not say so, but this would imply that we are already committed to a warming above pre-industrial levels of about 2.25°C, above the widely-accepted benchmark of 2°C. Basically, the unavoidable “warming in the pipeline” will be a lot more than the 0.6°C that is commonly accepted.

Besides giving a gist of present and past, the Summary also makes projections about future changes in the climate system, in the near-term (2016-35) and mainly for the end of the 21st century (2081-2100) relative to the period 1986-2005. It uses four possible pathways - representative concentration pathways (RCPs) 2.6, 4.5, 6.0 and 8.5 - each corresponding roughly to a level of CO₂ and other gases in the atmosphere by 2100 and a volume of CO₂ emissions until then.⁴ Basically, each pathway reflects possible energy choices and development trajectories.

For the near-term, temperatures will rise in 2016-35 by a further 0.3-0.7°C relative to 1986-2005, a period that was already 0.6°C warmer than pre-industrial temperatures. We in India should be concerned that increases in seasonal and annual mean temperatures are expected to be larger in the tropics and subtropics than in the mid-latitudes, relative to internal variability (p 15).

The tropics are home to a huge number of the world’s known species, and which have historically evolved and been used to a relatively narrow temperature band. A small rise may mean that many tropical species have to migrate or become extinct. For instance, mackerel (*bangda, aila*) and oil sardines have already been moving northwards along both coasts of India as the ocean waters get warmer.

In the longer term, it is seriously alarming that much of north, west and central India would be 4-5°C warmer by 2081-2100 if we stick to business as usual strategies (Figure 8:34). Regarding the water cycle, it says that monsoon retreat dates will likely be delayed in many regions. Regardless of whether or not it was due to climate change, we have already seen the damage to crops that a delayed monsoon retreat this year caused in many parts of India. Finally, a nearly ice-free Arctic in September (the month of the lowest ice extent annually) before mid-century is likely for the trajectory RCP 8.5.

New Aspects in the Summary

Methodological innovations aside, this Summary has a number of new aspects. It says that sustained warming “would lead to the near-complete loss of the Greenland ice sheet”. That threshold is put at greater than 1°C above pre-industrial temperatures (we are currently at 0.9°C above) but less than 4°C (pp 20-21). This is hugely different from the earlier Assessment Report 2007 which merely said that the Greenland ice sheet would lose mass with a warming of 1.9-4.6°C. On the renowned website Real Climate (27 September), the scientist Stefan Rahmstorf pointed out that this 1.9°C figure was one of the reasons why international climate policy set 2°C as the benchmark for dangerous warming. What do these lower temperature figures for Greenland then imply for what is considered safe?

Two, with respect to droughts, the new report says that the earlier conclusions regarding increasing trends in droughts globally since the 1970s are no longer supported by more recent research. The Report further adds that regional droughts have increased in frequency and intensity, such as in the Mediterranean and West Africa.

Three, the increased loss of ice mass from the ice sheets in Antarctica and Greenland are staggering. The average rate of ice loss from Greenland has increased from 34 billion tonnes a year over 1992-2001 to 215 billion tonnes a

year over 2002-11, over six times as much! Antarctica ice loss over these same periods has increased from 30 billion tonnes to 147 billion tonnes a year, nearly five times as much. These huge rises make them qualitatively different from any earlier IPCC assessment report.

Four Issues Need Serious Attention

The latest *Summary for Policymakers* throws up a number of issues worth discussing. I will touch upon just four.

Firstly, the supposed slowdown, or hiatus in global warming in recent years, was much discussed in leaks and newspaper editorials before the Summary was released. The Summary itself says that the slow-down in surface warming since 1998 is due to natural variability and reducing forcing due to volcanic eruptions (which throw up particulate matter that tends to cool). Satellite data tell us that the earth’s energy imbalance due to GHGs has continued unabated in recent years. So if warming is not showing up in surface temperature data, we need to look else-where.

Over 90% of the excess energy trapped by GHGs has been going into the oceans; the heat being trapped in the upper oceans alone (the top 700 metres) each year is over 40 times as much as the total annual energy consumption in the United States! But what has been exceptional in recent years is the warming of ocean waters below 700 metres. This has been happening, a recent paper (Balmaseda et al 2013) suggests, after 1998, precisely the period for which the slowdown in surface warming is reported. Much of this will show up as warming sooner or later.

Secondly, CO₂ less potent than we earlier thought? The SPM has reduced the lower limit of the potential change in global mean surface temperature due to a doubling of CO₂ to 1.5°C from 2°C in the earlier assessment report. The scientist Michael Mann wrote (*The Guardian*, 28 September) that this lowered estimate is “based on one narrow line of evidence”, the recent slowing in surface warming, which, as discussed above, is more complex than it seems.

What is more, this IPCC estimation of carbon dioxide's potency is methodologically incomplete and hence an underestimate - it does not include slow feedbacks such as northward latitude shifts in vegetation, the melting of the ice sheets in Greenland and Antarctica, and GHGs releases from warmer oceans (in contrast to their absorbing them currently). Basically, carbon dioxide may be a lot more potent than we realise.

Thirdly, the Summary's highest estimation for sea level rise is roughly half to little less than one metre by the end of the century (p 18). This is certainly a step up from the upper limit of 59 cm presented in the Fourth Assessment Report, but many feel that even this is too low. It needs to be understood that 20th century sea level rise was largely linear because its main sources were expansion due to warmer waters and glacial melting. The main sources of 21st century sea level rise will be melting and ice flows from the great ice sheets on Greenland and Antarctica, a non-linear process.

The world's most famous climate scientist James Hansen has been saying repeatedly that "non-linear ice-sheet dis-integration should be expected and multi-metre sea level rise [is] not only possible but likely". It is too early to say whether it is the start of a non-linear trend, but the sharp rise in ice sheet melt five/six times in this decade mentioned above should set warning bells ringing somewhere. The extent of sea level rise has obvious implications for the extent of coastal erosion and flooding, the seepage of salt water into underground aquifers, and the extent of damage during storm surges, all of which are already being felt in India.

Finally, the urgency: It stems from the fact that we want to avoid crossing dangerous levels of warming, beyond which ecosystem feedbacks that usually cause further warming kick in simultaneously on a scale that would make it increasingly difficult for humans to control the process. Having a 50% probability of limiting warming to 2°C, the Summary says, needs us to

limit further emissions from now until the end of the century to little over 1,100 billion tonnes of CO₂, and we are galloping at over 30 billion tonnes a year.

Emitting 1,300 billion tonnes would reduce the likelihood to 33% (p 20). As it is, an increasing number of scientists and ecologists have been saying that the 2°C benchmark is way too high, some by looking at historical palaeo-climatic evidence, others at the severity of current impacts. The mood heading into climate negotiations in the 19th Conference of the Parties at Warsaw was one of low energy and expectations, whereas the latest Summary makes clear that the urgency is as pressing as ever. How bad climate impacts will be beyond the mid-century depends crucially on the world urgently shifting to a development trajectory that is clean, sustainable, and equitable, a notion of equity that includes space for the poor, for future generations and other species.

Conclusion

Between 1901 and 2010, says the Summary, sea levels rose by 19 cms on average worldwide. In recent years, this rise has increased to 3.2 mm a year. Much of this rise in the 20th century has happened because of ocean waters expanding as they get warmer, and due to glaciers melting. The third highest contributor to sea level rise, interestingly, is "land water storage" (p7), groundwater and water from reservoirs that is being frenetically pumped and eventually finds its way to the sea. Water vapour levels have risen by 3.5% over the past 40 years, in keeping with the 0.5°C warming in that time.¹

It is also "very likely" (90%-100% probability) that human influence has contributed to global-scale changes in the frequency and intensity of daily temperature extremes, and doubled the probability of heat waves occurring in some locations (p13). Another reason to cut emissions urgently is the long-term implications of what we are doing; temperatures do not decline significantly for a thousand years after emissions stop (Solomon et al., 2009). The sooner we cut

back emissions now, the less pain we will bequeath to generations of the foreseeable future.

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Globalization’s Impact on Rural Development

Albertina Tirkey*

[The rural sectors require great improvement in order to increase the rural economic opportunities and to alleviate the rural poverty which still remains a pressing challenge for rural India. According to 2011 Census nearly 69 per cent population (833.1 million) lives in rural areas. According to World Bank, “Rural Development is a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people-the rural poor. It involves extending the benefits of development to the poorest among those who seek livelihood in the rural area”. The group includes the small and marginal farmers, tenants, landless labourers, artisans and weaker sections of the society.]

In spite of implementation of various rural development programmes in India for past six decades, still the rural areas are at great disadvantage as far as provision of basic infrastructural facilities and services such as roads, drinking water, electricity, schools, hospitals, transport, communications and social security are concerned. As a result, poor villagers are forced to suffer generation after generation with poor education, poor health, unemployment and poverty. So improvement of their plight requires intensive government intervention with strong political will.

Objectives of Rural Development

- Social transformation and social development in the rural areas and to change the attitude of rural people towards development;
- Improving the quality of life of rural people by providing nutritional food, healthcare facilities and better education;

- Creation of infrastructural facilities and generation of employment opportunities for the rural people;
- Providing basic amenities to the rural people such as safe drinking water, better sanitation, healthcare facilities; quality education, better housing facility;
- Promotion of people’s participation in developmental activities.

In order to achieve the above objectives, the national level rural development policies and strategies have been formulated and implemented in India since 1952. The perspectives and strategies of rural development have changed over the decades. Earlier rural development plans were ‘growth-centric’ which caused economic inequalities in rural areas. The growth without redistribution accentuates poverty. As a result the strategy is shifted to ‘growth with social justice’ in the rural sector.

* Asst Prof., in Pol. Sc., M.P.C. Autonomous College, Baripada, Odisha.

During the nineties, the rural development took new approach with the influence of globalization. It focused on liberalisation and market-oriented development. It introduced competition and profit oriented economy. As a result the rural development strategy has shifted to the principle of 'growth with efficiency'. In spite of the large amount of budgetary allocations still numbers of problem are persisting in rural areas.

Need for improvement of rural areas is based on the fact that India is a vast country with huge population and higher concentration of rural dwellers. The economic development and nation building is unlikely to succeed unless issues of rural development are adequately addressed. The objective of study is to explore the linkages of globalization to issues of rural development in India.

Rural development under globalization

Concept of globalization denotes an economic process of integrating country's economy with world economy, through free trade and free enterprise. It means 'privatisation, deregulation, and liberalisation' of the national economies in order to promote the allocation of resources by the market. Globalization is the product of capitalist expansion.

In July 1991, the Government of India had introduced a new economic policy which entails following policy measures,

- Liberalization of economic administration by doing away with controls and restrictions on private enterprise so as to allow free play of market forces;
- Privatizing the economy by disinvesting public sector by way of selling the state holding to private corporations, both native and foreign;
- Removal of restrictions on imports and cutting down import duties to an all-time low to allow free flow of foreign merchandise;
- Opening the economy to FDI, including the MNCs, to own major stake in industry and services;

- Reduction of subsidies on farm inputs and essential consumer goods and services so that they are sold at cost plus prices.

All these measures amount to the state's withdrawal from the economy or minimizing its economic role, and paving the way for the market forces to take over the economy. Globalization has far reaching social, economic, political, cultural, environmental and technological consequences. Although new economic policy does not directly address issues of rural development but many of its policy instruments will have impact on rural development.

Impact of Globalization and Issues of rural development

Policy makers in India had a promising expectation from pro-market policy, like there ought to be very few costs, only widespread benefits: after all decentralized market supports democracy; competition creates level playing field; efficient use of factors of production ought to create labour intensive industrialization and thus rapid employment growth; terms of trade ought to shift towards the countryside, benefiting the rural poor; and since capital moves to capital scarce areas in search of high returns, regional inequalities ought to reduce over the time, mitigating inequalities.

Unfortunately, the trends do not fit these expectations. India's growth acceleration is accompanied by growing inequalities, growing capital intensity of the economy, growing concentration of ownership of private industry, and nearly stagnant growth in employment in manufacturing industries (Kohli, 2013:185)

The easy flow of capital internationally as compared to labour, the capitalist/portfolio investors would benefit the most from globalization. This would aggravate the problem of disparities in income and wealth between rich and the poor. Technology today often remains confined to those who can access it in terms of their buying power. Technological advances often widen the gap between the rich and the poor,

and in the process distances growth from development

This policy has adversely affected the agriculture which is the mainstay of rural development. The state investment in irrigation and community development declined sharply in percentage terms compared to plan era. No major irrigation projects were undertaken after the new economic policy was rolled out. As a result, bulk of land for cultivation depends on monsoon which is erratic.

Under the influence of Globalisation, export-led growth in agriculture is encouraged but ignoring food security may not be in the interest of the poor. The opening up of trade in food grains will boost the income of exporters. The greater export will exert an upward push on prices and there is strong correlation between poverty and consumer price index for agricultural labourer. Further the falling price of agricultural product due to the unrestricted imports of agricultural products at dumping prices causes distress among the small and marginal farmers and often it is driving them to suicide.

The fiscal correction will lead to expenditure control, leading to reductions of subsidies on food and input and the hike in the power charges have resulted in an increase in the cost of cultivation. The high cost of production is also due to inadequate institutional credit for agriculture. The small and marginal farmers have to depend largely on private lenders who charge rate of interest exorbitantly high.

The rural people face problem of unemployment. Unequal distribution of resources, low literacy and lack of opportunities increases the proportion of unemployment. Technology often works against the interest of labour, it creates social injustice and discrimination. Instead of creating more job opportunities at better terms, the new technology, as is used in industry, often displaces labour. Permanent labourers are reducing in number and casual labourers are increasing.

The decline in expenditure in social sector would adversely affect rural poor. A closer look at the share of financial provision for education, health, water, electricity and other provisions in rural area where 69 per cent (2011 census) of people live is negligible. Though there has been continuous increase in the budget allocation for rural development during each plan period but considering the necessity and the percentage of population living in the villages, these allocations are inadequate to make any significant impact on poverty alleviation.

Globalisation has its limitations in delivering what is described today as 'growth with a human face'. The market thus ignores the possibilities and the need for achieving a decent level living, or at best subsistence, for the majority of people in the country. These are the masses who have very limited access to the market in terms of their purchasing power.

Further, credit is the most crucial input for rural development. But most of the bankers face the major problem of adequate recovery of loan creating problem of recycling of credit. The Narsimham Committee suggests reduction in the proportion of credit for priority sector lending for 40 per cent to 10 per cent level in near future and eventually phased out. This would adversely affect the rural areas. Often it is said that major portion of the credit is cornered by big farmer. But sudden contraction of availability of credit from commercial bank to the large or medium farmers would impair agricultural growth and reduce the food grains. This may cause general disruption in the economy (Mazumdar, 1992)

Rural development in India under globalization

In a country like India, where rural area is plagued by illiteracy, landlessness and unemployment, there is great need of emphasis on high investment in human resource development, quality education and labour intensive agricultural growth within a liberalized economic policy framework. Agriculture needs to be more productive and sustainable with the visionary use of technological advancement.

In order to reap the benefit of globalization, Government of India has to adopt the following measures:

- Changes in the cropping pattern;
- Irrigation facilities;
- Technological transfer;
- High Yielding Varieties (HYV);
- Commercial crops;
- Credit facilities
- Protected cultivation;
- Promotion of biological fertilizer
- Marketing facilities;
- Awareness campaigning;
- Quality education in rural areas;
- Skill development of rural unemployed youth;
- Sound infrastructure facility in rural areas;
- Ensuring public delivery services in remote areas;
- Rural industrialization;
- Women empowerment

Conclusion

India has to continue with the pace of globalization. Keeping the negative consequences of globalization in view, government should try to minimize the demerits of globalization through

its policies. Focus should be on people-centred development and each segment of rural community like farmers, human resources, entrepreneurs, women etc must be strengthened with proper capacity building and education to withstand the competition under globalization. In spite of globalization, industrialization and structural adjustments, human face and social spirit of new economic policy should be maintained.

The fruits of development should reach the poorest of the poor in the form of education, health services, employment and a free and secure life. The concern of marginalized groups should be a priority. Government as well as people at the helm of affairs should play a more responsible and constructive role for the protection and improvement of living standards of the poor.

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Rural Women Development Schemes in Tamil Nadu

Dr. P.S. Joseph* & S.Y. Margaret**

[After attaining independence, the Government of India, initially decided to pave a path to bring about social change based on three major areas, viz., constitutional and legal reforms, planned development based on mixed economy and state support to social welfare activities. All these three policies are expected to create a democratic, just and prosperous society. All these three steps have their impact on the status of women. The broad objectives of the Scheme are to improve the nutritional, health and development status of adolescent girls, promote awareness of health, hygiene, nutrition and family care, link them to opportunities for learning life skills, going back to school, help them gain a better understanding of their social environment and take initiatives to become productive members of the society.]

In the process of poverty eradication and reducing gender discrimination, the governments have been implementing various schemes and programmes providing ways and means towards women development and empowerment. SHG movement is one among such programmes which has been proved successful in fulfilling its objectives. However, it is felt that the other schemes and programmes do have their prominent part in the process of women development and empowerment and which are being successfully implemented. This paper mainly discussed about both central and state government implementing rural women development schemes like Marriage assistance scheme, Pension Schemes, empowerment schemes. In this regard the schemes and programmes intended for women development.

Development Schemes for Women in Tamil Nadu

The Government of India and the State government of Tamil Nadu introduced many women development schemes, which increased the economic, social, educational and health conditions of the women of Tamil Nadu. They are mentioned as follows.

* Associate Prof., P.G Dept of Economics, St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli.

** PhD Scholar, P.G Dept of Economics, St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli.

1. Women Marriage Assistance Schemes In Tamil Nadu

Marriage is an important event in every woman's life which brings perceptible changes in her life style. However, due to poverty, parents are unable to get their daughters married in time. Government, keeping this problem in mind, has formulated various marriage assistance schemes which help to alleviate the financial problems of poor parents or guardians.

a) *AnjugamAmmaiyarNinaivu (Memorial) Inter-Caste Marriage Assistance Scheme:*

In order to abolish discrimination along caste lines and to eliminate dowry harassment, the Government of Tamil Nadu introduced a scheme to encourage inter-caste marriage by providing financial assistance was launched on 1 July 1967 and it is now being implemented as AnjugamAmmaiyarNinaivu Inter-Caste Marriage Assistance Scheme. There is no income limit for availing of this assistance under this scheme. This scheme is implemented under two categories viz., Scheme-I and scheme-II.

Under Scheme-I, a sum of Rs.20000 (Rs.10000 in the form of Demand Draft/ Cheque for marriage expenses and Rs.10000 in the form of National Savings Certificate)

is provided with effect from second October 1997 to the newly married couple among whom one spouse should be from Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribe and the other from a different community. Under Scheme-II, a sum of Rs.15000 (Rs.5000 for marriage expenses in the form of Demand Draft/Cheque and Rs.10000 in the form of National Savings Certificate) is provided with effect from second October 2007 to the newly married couple where a forward community person marries a Backward Class or Most Backward Class person.

b) *Dr. Dharmambal Ammaiyar Ninaivu Poor Widow Remarriage Assistance Scheme:*

This scheme was started in the year 1975 with an intention to rehabilitate the widows as well as to encourage the remarriage of widows. The financial assistance is provided only to widows with minimum age of 20 years. There is no income ceiling to avail of this assistance. This scheme was initiated with the financial assistance of Rs.5000 in the form of National Savings Certificate. This amount has been increased gradually, and Rs.20000 (Cheque for Rs.10000 and National Savings Certificate for Rs.10000) is provided from 20 November 2008 onwards.

c) *E.V.R. Maniammaiyar Ninaivu Marriage Assistance Scheme for Daughters of Poor Widows:*

This scheme was started in the year 1981 with an intention to help the poor mothers (who are widows) by providing financial assistance of Rs.1000 for marriage of their daughters. This assistance has been enhanced gradually, and from 20 November 2008 onwards, financial assistance of Rs.20000 is provided under the scheme. Under this scheme, the daughters of poor widows in the age group of 18 to 30 years and whose annual income is below Rs.24000/- are provided financial assistance for their marriage.

d) *AnnaiTherasaNinaivu Marriage Assistance Scheme for Orphan Girls:*

The Government launched a marriage assistance scheme during the year 1984-1985 to help the orphan girls to get married. This scheme was named as AnnaiTherasaNinaivu Marriage Assistance Scheme for orphan girls in the year 1999. The financial assistance of Rs.1000 which was provided at the commencement of the scheme has been increased gradually, and the financial assistance of Rs.20000 is given to the beneficiary from 20 November 2008 onwards. The annual income of the guardian or orphan girls should be below Rs.24000. The girls should be above 18 years of age and not above 30 years of age. An amount of Rs.41 Lakhs has been provided in the budget estimate for the year 2008-2009 to benefit 285 orphan girls.

e) *Moovalur Ramamirtham Ammaiyar Ninaivu Marriage Assistance Scheme:*

This scheme was named after the renowned social reformer Moovalur Ramamirtham Ammaiyar. It was launched on 3 June 1989 to help poor parents in getting their daughters married and also to promote the educational status of poor girls. The scheme was initially applicable to girls who studied up to eighth standard and attained the age of 18 years. Subsequently, the educational qualification for availing of this assistance was raised to tenth standard, so as to improve the educational status of the girls. The annual income ceiling limit for availing of the benefit is below Rs.24000.

2. Pension Schemes

a) *Destitute Widows' Pension Scheme:*

This scheme was started in first June of 1975. Destitute widows of any age, who have not remarried are benefited under this scheme even if they have legal heirs aged 18 years and above. An amount of Rs.400 is paid as pension under this scheme. The entire expenditure under this scheme is borne by the State Government. The Government of

India has recently launched a new pension scheme on 19 February 2009 namely, Indira Gandhi National Widow Pension Scheme. All widows between 40-64 years of age belonging to below poverty line households will be benefited under the scheme. However, the other destitute widows who are receiving pension under the State Scheme but not eligible under the National Scheme would continue to get their pension under the State Scheme.

b) *Destitute/Deserted Wives Pension Scheme:*

This scheme was started on 25 April 1986. This scheme benefits the deserted wives/ destitute women who are not less than 30 years of age and who are deserted by their husbands for a period of not less than five years or who obtained legal separation certificate from a court of law. Deserted wives having legal heirs who have completed 18 years of age are also eligible for pension under this scheme. An amount of Rs.400 is paid as pension under this scheme. The entire expenditure under this scheme is borne by the State Government.

c) *Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme:*

The National Old Age Pension Scheme has been renamed as Indira Gandhi National Old Age Pension Scheme and launched on the birthday of 19 November 2007. As per the new scheme, pension is granted to persons who are 65 years of age or above belonging to households of Below Poverty Line. The Central Assistance for this scheme per month is Rs.200. The Government of Tamil Nadu is contributing an additional amount of Rs.200 per month per beneficiary.

d) *Pension to Un-married, Poor, Incapacitated Women Age of Above 50:*

The government has introduced a new scheme of providing monthly pension of Rs.400 to unmarried, poor, incapacitated women of age 50 years and above. This scheme was started on first July 2008. The entire expenditure

under this scheme is borne by the State Government of Tamil Nadu. A sum of Rs. 5 Crore has been provided in the budget estimate for the financial year 2009-2010 under this scheme. Totally 11,860 persons are benefited under this scheme till 2010. A sum of Rs.5.39 Crore has been provided in the budget estimate for the financial year 2010-2011 under this scheme.

3. Self Help Groups (SHGs) and Women's Empowerment in Tamil Nadu.

Women are playing a vital and productive role in the economy of Tamil Nadu. The SHG's have become highly cohesive forums for collective articulation and action by poor women on economic exploitation and social oppression. Realising the significance of the SHG's, the Government of India, particularly the Ministry of Rural Development and the Department of Women and Child Development of the Ministry of Human Resource Development have come forward to channelize their programmes through the SHG's. The Swarna Jayanthi Sarojkar Yojana (SJSY), The Indira Mahila Yojana (IMY), The Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK), are a few contemporary examples of this alternative strategy for Implementation of these provisions varies widely across the country.

4. Tamil Nadu Corporation for Development of Women.

The Tamil Nadu Corporation for Development of Women (TNCDW) was incorporated as a limited company under the Companies Act, 1956 in December, 1983 with the prime objective of bringing about socio-economic development and empowerment of women.¹²⁶ The Corporation implements Mahalir Thittam, IFAD-assisted Post Tsunami Sustainable Livelihoods Programme and also Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SGSY), a major anti-poverty programme meant for self-employment of rural poor. Tamil Nadu Corporation for Development of Women Ltd was brought under the control of Rural Development and Panchayat Raj

Department from July 2006. Further the Board of TNCDW was broad based and reconstituted vide G.O.Ms.No:148, Rural Development and Panchayat Raj Department, dated 12.10.2006 to include representatives from industry, NGO sector, Banks and Specialists who can positively guide the Corporation with their valuable inputs.

Aims and Objectives

- a) To provide employment opportunities for women.
- b) To conduct training programmes for development of women so that they will become more employable.
- c) To undertake and assist projects in the fields of village and cottage industries, handlooms, animal husbandry, agricultural and allied activities which will enable women to earn a living and also help them to improve their socio-economic status.
- d) To identify projects, prepare project reports, guide, assist and provide escort service to women entrepreneurs in promoting and establishing their own production units and generating more employment opportunities to women.

5. Mahalir Thittam

“Mahalir Thittam” is an offshoot of Tamil Nadu women development project, which covers all rural areas of the entire state. This announcement can also be seen as another path-breaker, involving a massive replication of TNWAP successes to cover about 10 lakh poor women of the state. This scheme is intended to promote economic development and social empowerment of the poorest women through a network of Self Help Groups formed with active support of NGO's. The vision of the project is to reach out and empower 10 lakh poorest and most disadvantaged women below the poverty line, through 60,000 self-reliant and sustainable Self Help Groups. The objective would be achieved by adopting the following strategy:

- Development of strong, cohesive, self-help women groups, through inculcation of the spirit of self-help and team spirit.
- Including habit of savings and principles of financial discipline, through training.
- Increasing social awareness, through intermingling and exposure.
- Improvement in health and family welfare, through awareness training and exposure.
- Functional literacy through training programmes.
- Awareness of legal rights and legal aid access, through training.

6. Development Of Women And Children In Rural Areas (DWCRA)

DWCRA is a sub-scheme of the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP). It was started in 1982-83 on a pilot basis in 50 districts but has now been extended to all districts of the country. The basic objective of the programme is to provide income generating skills and activities to poor women in rural areas, thereby such social and economic empowerment, and the programme seek to improve the access of rural women to health, education, sanitation, nutrition etc. NGOs have been involved in the implementation of the DWCRA programme since its inception in 1982-83. Childcare Activities were incorporated in DWCRA during 1995-96 with the objective of providing crèche service for children of DWCRA women and setting up of literacy centres for DWCRA women with specific emphasis on girl child.

7. Sivagami Ammaiyar Ninaivu Girl Child Protection Scheme

The girl child protection scheme was introduced in April 1992. This scheme was renamed in the year 2006 as Sivagami Ammaiyar Ninaivu Girl Child Protection Scheme in fond memory of the mother of the great leader K. Kamaraj. The objective of this scheme is to prevent female infanticide,

discourage preference for male child and to promote family planning. This scheme also ensures equal opportunity in education for girl children on par with male children. Under this scheme, an amount of Rs. 22200/- is deposited in Tamil Nadu Power Finance and Infrastructure Development Corporation Limited by Government in the name of the girl child, if there is only one girl child in the family with no other child in the family and when either of the parents has undergone sterilization before the age of 35 years.

8. Cradle Baby Scheme

The Cradle Baby Scheme was launched in Salem in the year 1992 by the Government of Tamil Nadu with the aim of eradicating female infanticide. This Scheme was later extended during 2001 to Madurai, Theni, Dindigul and Dharmapuri, as these districts were also found to be prone to this evil practice of female infanticide. Reception centres were started in the above districts with sufficient staff and infrastructure facilities including telephone, lifesaving medicines, lifesaving medical equipment, refrigerator and incubator.

9. Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (RMK)

Rashtriya Mahila Kosh (National Credit Fund for Women) a scheme of the Central Government was set up in 1993. It has established itself as the premier micro credit agency of the country. RMK has managed to lend resources amounting to Rs. 37 crore through 712 NGOs, which have been able to further support approximately 20,000 Self Help Groups as on 31 March 2000. In the vision statement 2000-2005 RMK has declared to work with women for their empowerment through the provision of credit for livelihood-related activities and estimated to assist 3.3 million individual beneficiaries over the next five years and emerge as a major player in the poverty alleviation strategy of the country.

10. National Commission For Women (NCW)

The National Commission for Women was constituted on 31 January 1992 in pursuance of the National Commission for Women Act, 1990. The tenure of the first commission expired on 30 January 1995 and the second commission took over on 20 July 1995. This commission's main areas of activities include review of the constitutional and legal safeguards for women, recommend remedial measures, undertake studies and investigations, promotional and educational research, participate and advise in the planning process and generally advise the government on all matters of policy affecting and welfare and development of women in the country.

11. Sathiyavanimuthu Ammaiyaar Ninaivu Free Supply Of Sewing Machines Scheme

Under this scheme, sewing machines are supplied by the Government of Tamil Nadu at free of cost to widows, deserted wives, destitute women and physically handicapped men and women below poverty line with a noble view to increase their self-employment potential and to help them to lead a decent life. Under this scheme those who have been trained in tailoring and who have completed 20 years of age and are below 40 years are the beneficiaries. A sum of Rs. 132 lakh has been provided in the budget estimate under this scheme for the year 2008-2009. In 2009-2010, a sum of Rs. 132 lakh was provided and a sum of Rs. 135 lakh was allocated during the year 2010-2011 for this purpose.

Service Homes: In the Rural areas of Tamil Nadu many girls discontinue their school studies and get married and some of them are deserted from their families due to family problems, some even lose their husbands due to various reasons. Some do not get married due to poor circumstances. To provide education and employment opportunities to such women, and to improve their economic conditions, the Department of Social Welfare runs 8 Service Homes, one each at Tambaram, Cuddalore,

Salem, Thanjavur, Tirunelveli, Sivagangai, Nagapattinam and Madurai.

12. Anaivarkum Kalvi Thittam or Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)

Anaivarkum Kalvi Thittam or Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is a universal elementary education through community ownership of the schooling system. It is a programme designed to universalize elementary education within a definite timeframe. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is a comprehensive scheme launched in the year 2000 in joint collaboration with the State with an objective of widening the scope of elementary education throughout the country. The main goal of the program is that all children of 6-11 years of age should complete primary education by the year 2007 and all children of 6-14 years of age should complete eight years of schooling by 2010.

13. Kishori Shakthi Yojana (KSY)

Kishori Shakthi Yojana is a scheme exclusively for the benefit of adolescent girls to create awareness about their legal rights, to improve literacy, health, hygienic aspects and to provide occupational skills to shape them into better citizens. Initially this scheme was started in the year 2001-02 in 37 blocks. In the year 2006-07, this scheme was extended to 434 Blocks in Tamil Nadu. A sum of Rs.1.10 Lakh per Block is sanctioned for the scheme.

14. Vazhndu Kattuvom Project

Vazhndu Kattuvom Project is an empowerment and poverty alleviation project implemented by the rural development and Panchayat Raj Department of Government of Tamil Nadu with World Bank assistance. This project was launched in November 2005, effective implementation has commenced only from August 2006. The main objective of the project is to include the poorest of poor in the SHG formation, making them self-sufficient and sustainable, providing financial resources and linkages for enhancing their

livelihoods and thereby generating an increase of their income.

Conclusion

Planned development has been considered to be the most effective way of solving the numerous problems coming in the way of eradicating poverty, reducing imbalances and preventing discriminations among vast number of poor people living in rural areas, especially of rural poor women folk. Besides, various schemes are being implemented to uplift socio-economic status of rural poor women and paving a path for their empowerment. Thus the government has been making sincere efforts to empower women in socio-economic and politico-cultural aspects, so that a welfare state and a prosperous nation can be built. Thus, in this paper the Tamil Nadu governmental policies and programmes implemented for empowerment of women have been examined to fulfill the objective.

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Sustainable Development and Higher Education in India

Dr. Jyoti Gautam*

[As society becomes more and more complex, the institutions are pressed to assume social obligations to train for employment, to solve social problems, to help set ethical directions for society. The purposes of higher education are several. They are concerned with student growth and development, the discovery and refinement of knowledge, and social impacts on the community. But all the programmes should be oriented to a central purpose. [Aglo D. Henderson & Jean Glidden Henderson in 'Higher Education in America']

Education being a basic component of human development, its interface with sustainable development is well established. Education is perhaps the single most important means for empowerment and for a sustained improvement in well-being. Improvements in educational attainments are accompanied by improvement in health and longevity of the population and the country's economic growth.

Education reinforces the socioeconomic dynamics of society towards equality and promotes a social order conducive to an egalitarian ethos. The principle of equality or nondiscrimination is the foundation of international human rights law. Discrimination results from deep-rooted attitudes of population and it is for governments to take the lead to induce the change in attitudes through education. In short, education is the best social investment. This is the significance of quality higher education.

India's record in education development is a mixed bag of success and failures. Despite the directive principle of state policy for free and compulsory education to every child up to the age of 14 years in article 45 (now a fundamental right in article 21A), nearly one-third of the population remains illiterate, most of whom are young. There remain critical gaps in the

availability of infrastructural facilities and qualitative equipment and personnel in the education system. On the other hand, the national literacy percentage has increased from 18.3 in 1951 to 74.04 as per Census 2011.

The twenty-first century is the century of knowledge. It is the task of the knowledge makers to evolve new technologies and to make them work for human development. New technologies backed by proper public policies will lead to healthier lives, greater social freedoms, increased knowledge and greater productivity. Distributive justice would become an achievable goal. Technology networks are expanding people's horizons and creating potential to achieve quicker progress.

Education and Sustainable Development

Being the basic component of societal development, education's interface with sustainable development is well-established. It is the single most important means for empowerment and for sustained improvement in well-being. Education reinforces the socioeconomic dynamics of the society towards equality promoting social order which facilitates an egalitarian ethos. The principle of equality and non-discrimination is the foundation of international human rights law.

Thus education serves as the best social investment. Sustainable transformation and development throughout the economy can be

* Lecturer in Sociology, Govt. Meera Girls PG College, Udaipur.

achieved only through effective capacity-building inputs from an innovative, quality higher education system. Higher education exercises a direct influence on national productivity. Universities and higher education institutions support knowledge-driven economic growth and poverty reduction in developing countries in a number of ways.

They provide training for a qualified and adaptable labour force which includes high-level scientists, professionals, technicians, teachers in basic and secondary education, civil service personnel and business leaders. They generate new knowledge and build the capacity to access existing stores of global knowledge and to adapt that knowledge to local use. In addition to providing the capability to integrate and create synergy among these areas, access to higher education offers better employment and income opportunities to underprivileged students, thereby enhancing equity. The norms, values, attitudes, ethics and knowledge that higher education imparts constitute the social capital necessary to construct healthy societies and socially binding cultures.

Evolution of Higher Education System In India

In the year 1835 Lord Macaulay introduced Western education to India. He was a much maligned man but, in his own right, he was an intellectual who was quick to perceive the importance of science to the country. So he could be credited with giving modern science and English to India which we consider today to be the great assets for finding our place in the comity of nations. The first attempt was made in our country to restructure and devise a system of higher education immediately after Independence in 1948 when the Government of India appointed the Radhakrishnan Commission. The following quote from its report is as relevant today as it was at that time:

“The universities, as the makers of the future, cannot persist in the old patterns however valid they may have been in their own day. With the increasing complexity of society and its shifting

patterns, universities have to change their objectives and methods, if they are to function effectively in our national life.”

Incidentally, it was on the basis of the Radhakrishnan Commission report that the University Grants Commission was formally set up. In 1966 another effort was made to reform education by the Kothari Commission. It made detailed recommendations not all of which were adopted. The following are a few of them which were accepted: free compulsory education; common school system; introduction of the 10+2 +3 system of education; vocationalisation of school education; and education for moral, social and spiritual values. In fact, Kothari Commission was probably the last serious effort made in our country to reform the education system.

We did make a feeble short-lived effort in 1986, following a similar effort in 1968. The National Education Policy (NEP) had two distinct features besides reiterating whatever was already there. We may note that each one of these efforts corresponds to the colonial era, Independent India and India in transition towards a knowledge society respectively. The Kothari Commission recommendations were made at a time when India was in transition through changes which had not yet marked the confident path of progress. The Green Revolution was yet to come. Now we are discuss about present situation of higher education in India.

Table 1. Statistics of educational institutes in the country up to 31 December 2010

University Institute College	No.
Central Universities	42
State Universities	261
Private Universities	73
Institutes of National Importance	33
Deemed to be University	130
Institutes established under state Legislation	05
Total No. of Universities	544
Colleges in Higher Education sector	31,324

Besides this, the technical education in the country is being provided by central government funded educational institutes; state government funded institutes and self-financed institutes. There were 79 central government assisted working institutes up to 2010-2011 as given in the table no.2.

Table 2. Centrally funded Institutes for Technical and Science Education

Institute Name	No.
National Institute of Technology (NIT)	30
Indian Institute of Management (IIM)	11
Indian Institute of Technology (IIT)	15
Indian Institute of Science (IISc)	1
Indian Institute of Science Education & Research (IISER)	5
Indian Institute of Information Technology (IIIT)	4
National Institutes of Technical Teachers Training & Research (NITTTR)	4
Others	9
Total	79

Open Universities and Distance Education System-

The distance education system has been started in the country with the establishment of Dr. BR Ambedkar Open University, Hyderabad in 1982. Various courses including Environmental Sciences have been started by these Universities which will ultimately be served with the concept of sustainability. IGNOU, New Delhi and some state open universities have started the Research Programme in various disciplines.

Sr. No.	Name of Open University
1	Indira Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi
2	Nalanda Open University, Patna , Bihar

3	Karnataka State Open University, Mysore, Karnataka
4	The Krishna Kanta Handiqui State Open University, Guwahati, Assam
5	Dr. BR Ambedkar Open University, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh
6	Vardhman Mahaveer Open University, Kota , Rajasthan
7	Dr Babasaheb Ambedkar Open University, Ahmedabad, Gujarat
8	UP Rajarshi Tandon Open University, Allahabad, Uttar Pradesh
9	Netaji Subhas Open University, Kolkata, West Bengal
10	Madhya Pradesh Bhoj Open University, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh
11	Tamil Nadu Open University, Chennai, Tamil Nadu
12	Pt. Sunderlal Sharma Open University, Bilaspur, Chhattisgarh
13	Uttarakhand Open University, Haldwani Uttarakhand
14	Yashwantrao Chavan Maharashtra Open University, Nasik, Maharashtra

Higher Education and Development

I wish to underscore three important issues in this regard:

a) Higher Education and Sustainable Development

First is the role of higher education and sustainable development. As the Rutledge Dictionary of Economics defines, sustainable development is “long term development which includes the establishment of basic economic and social institutions necessary for economic growth.” In the present myopic stage, where we are unable to look beyond immediate current needs, the criticality of having a long term perspective for development of societies needs to be underscored.

Education is one such institution that is both an ingredient as well as an instrument of sustainable development. Recognizing this, the United Nations has launched the decade of sustainable development. Sustainable development is about making sure that all people can enjoy their lives fully in the present as well as in the future. It refers to sustainable society in terms of social, economic, political, and cultural aspects of people's well-being. It is a holistic concept necessitating a holistic approach to development.

Sustainable development refers to sustainable future, in addition to the present; it requires reorientation of the present modes of development towards not just present levels of development, but to the development of the future. The UN Commission (2000) has identified poverty, demographics, health, education and human settlements as key dimensions of sustainable development. Education forms an important ingredient of sustainable development, and higher education an important instrument of achieving sustainable development.

The long term influence of higher education on all the above key dimensions of sustainable development is well known. For example, the role of education in reducing poverty, both at individual and national levels, in improving the health and nutritional status of population, in reducing fertility and population growth and thereby contributing to demographic transition, in strengthening democratic forces and in ensuring civil and political rights of the people - is well documented.

b) The Elusive Triangle in Higher Education

As Amartya Sen remarked, excellence in higher education must include equity. A properly developed higher education system that accords due importance to access, equity and quality can be viewed as a right-angled triangle, which J P Naik referred to as an "elusive triangle" in the Indian case. This still eludes. In the context of sustainable development, a holistic perspective of looking at all the three dimensions of higher education assumes utmost significance.

c) Higher Education for Development

Higher education is an important form of investment in human capital. In fact, it can be regarded as a high level or a specialized form of human capital, contribution of which to economic growth is very significant. It is rightly regarded as the "engine of development in the new world economy" (Castells, 1994). The contribution of higher education to development can be varied: firstly and most importantly, higher education helps, through teaching and research, in the creation, absorption and dissemination of knowledge. Secondly, it helps in the rapid industrialization of the economy, by providing manpower with professional, technical and managerial skills. In the present context of transformation into knowledge societies, higher education provides not just educated workers, but knowledge workers to the growth of the economy.

Thirdly, it creates positive attitudes, and makes possible attitudinal changes necessary for the socialization of individuals and also the modernization and overall transformation of societies. Fourthly, higher education also helps in the formation of a strong nation-state and at the same time helps in reaping gains from globalization. Lastly, higher education allows people to enjoy an enhanced 'life of mind' offering the wider society both cultural and political benefits. So belittling the importance of higher education for development enfeebles development itself.

Revisiting the Role of Higher Education

Higher education is an Instrument of development. Education in general and higher education in particular is now accepted as an instrument for the socio-economic development and this is true in the case of both developed and developing nations. The central agenda of many of the poor and developing nations is to achieve social access and social equity in education. The number of youth going for higher education is

increasing especially in developing nations because it brings social acceptance and credibility at a personal level to those who acquire degrees. It is the enhancement of this personal credibility at a social level and higher probability of acquiring gainful employment that brings financial stability to a family that has thus made higher education a prime necessity for every youth in the eligible age-group.

Higher education has undergone a rapid change in the last decade of the 20th century. This is mainly because the convergence of information, communication and broadcasting technologies has led to an explosion of information and knowledge. The geographical boundaries have now disappeared. Education has now become borderless: one can learn anywhere, in any place, any time. This has added a new dimension to higher education. The twenty-first century has brought with it new dimensions for developing as well as emerging nations. The developed countries have already made enormous investments for creating and spreading knowledge.

The population of India is 1.27 billion according to the 2011 census. Approximately 58.4% of the population falls in the age group of 15-54 years. India's large young population requires access to quality higher education in order to achieve a better socio-economic progress. As mentioned earlier, India has the largest number of higher education institutions in the world. At 10.5 million, the number of students enrolled is the third largest globally. However, the Gross Enrollment Ratio (18%) is low as compared to other countries, including developing countries.

Critical gaps exist in the capacity and management systems of the higher education structure. India is a highly dualistic economy. A dualistic economy is one, where two or more socio-economic systems simultaneously exist together. In India, there exists a wide gap in the level of income and development between

various states. There is also a great rural-urban socio-economic divide within the states.

As a result, while some sections of the population, both men and women have access to world class an educational facility, the greater majority still remains outside the purview of quality higher education. Thus, there exists a demand supply gap in higher education on the one hand and a low gross enrolment ratio on the other. The same goes for regional disparities in facilities as well, which further widens the gap.

There is shortage of qualified faculty as norms for higher positions in teaching and academics are quite stringent. There is acute shortage of faculty in central universities (40%) and state universities (35%). Similarly, incentives for research and academics are also lower than the other career options available to people. So very often it is an economic decision, rather than an academic one. There is also inadequate enrollment in research as students opt for technical courses like Engineering, Finance and Management, as these sectors pay better than Education and Research.

Very often, research is also undertaken only to achieve higher positions in universities and educational institutes and may be of a doubtful nature. According to the accreditation of the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), 62% of universities and 90% of colleges were average or below average in 2010.

Concluding Observations

Sustainable development requires a sustainable education system, and within education, higher education is particularly important. A strong sustainable higher education system is both a part of sustainable development and a means to achieve it. Higher education institutions are indispensable because they form a vital part of, and at the same time contribute to, the social architecture (Perlmutter, 1965). Building up of a strong, higher quality and vibrant higher education

system requires sound policies and sustained financing.

It is argued in this paper that faulty assumptions about higher education would lead to unsound policies and building up of weak and fragile educational structures. It is also noted that there are some significant achievements of our higher education system of which we can be proud, but at the same time, there are also glaring inadequacies and failures. Deterioration in quality has been one of the most serious problems of higher education in India and in this context, I have tried to show how certain policies, particularly those relating to funding and privatisation have been aggravating the situation. Let me conclude by outlining a few general considerations for the improvement of quality in higher education:

- It is necessary to plan development of education in such a way as to contribute significantly to sustainable development.
- Sustainable education development requires a long-term perspective plan. A long-term vision is critically important. The long-term perspective vision would form the basis of medium and short – term plans and policy changes.
- Sustainable education development requires balanced development of all layers / types of education. Emphasis on one level of education cannot be at the cost of another level of education. While literacy and school education provide the foundation for development, it is higher education that can provide the wherewithal for sustainable development and help in the construction of knowledge societies.
- Quality is one of the most important aspects, for education to be sustainable and it contributes to sustainable development. Substantial allocations have to be made for improvement in the quality of higher education, focusing on improvement of quality infrastructure and teachers.
- Equality of opportunity is one of the most cherished objectives of educational development everywhere. Specific focus has to be laid on improvising equity in higher education by gender and also by other socioeconomic characteristics.
- The role of the State in providing higher education cannot be minimized under any circumstance. The state has a vital and irreplaceable role in higher education. The private sector cannot be relied upon for provision of education, which is a public good, and which is also considered nowadays a ‘global public good’.
- We need to expand higher education, as we have to raise the enrolment ratio in higher education to above 20 per cent for the economy to rapidly progress. But this does not mean that there can be proliferation of low quality institutions all over the country. That would indeed be counterproductive. There is need for a strong regulatory mechanism that would ensure higher quality and standard.
- As Kalam (2003) has noted, ‘empowerment of higher education’ is the critical need of the hour. Higher education needs to be empowered, as it and it alone helps in sustainable social, economic and political development of the societies. The empowerment of higher education should include (a) provision of a basic minimum level of physical infrastructure facilities to all the colleges and universities (a crash project like the Operation Blackboard project in primary education may have to be launched), (b) recruitment of good quality teachers in all institutions, and further enhancement of their quality, and above all (c) sound public policies particularly relating to funding and management.
- Universities are traditional homes of research. To transfer research from universities to specialized research institutions and to leave only teaching to the

universities may not be proper in the long run. After all, research and teaching are inter-related mutually strengthening each other.

- Lastly, higher education develops and nurtures values. It is important that special efforts are made to preserve and promote educational values as thirst for knowledge, critical thinking, and search for truth, and more importantly to inculcate universal human values such as peace, tolerance, non-violence, love, patriotism, social welfare, etc., through education. Such an education will have an everlasting effect on achieving sustainable development. This is perhaps more important in the era of globalization, when national and traditional values are fast getting replaced by global, in fact Western, and market values.

This may, in the final analysis, reflect the true quality of our higher education. These are the educational and human values that Jawaharlal Nehru expected our universities to provide, when he observed, “A university stands for humanism, for tolerance, for reason, for the adventure of ideas and for the search for truth. It stands for the onward march of the human race towards even higher objectives”.

The world of education, world over, is undergoing rapid change. The reasons for this are many; one may say that it is the thrust of technologies that is making the educational system change and some others may say that it is the impact of “globalization” which has brought about the “commoditization” of education that is driving the system to the level of “trade in education”. The developed nations are playing dual roles; one specific to their internal need and the other with reference to the global scenario.

In both these cases they are in an advantageous situation because firstly, they have sound and well-developed educational structures and secondly, they also have access to and can afford, the technology. It is this advantage that they are using for making their economy strong through commercialization of higher education. However,

the developing nations are at a disadvantage both infrastructural and in access to technology. Hence they continue to deploy the existing face-to-face education system and also distance education to make higher education more accessible. However these nations are also getting familiarized with the technology and the reduction in the cost of technology is encouraging them to adopt new strategies in delivery mechanisms. They hope, by adopting technology, to achieve better access and also “quality education”.

However, both for developed and developing nations, the emergence of an integrated higher education system, as regards the various delivery mechanisms, is offering the new challenge of “judgments in quality”. And not only this, once having decided the “winning combination of delivery mechanisms” for giving quality education the focus shifts towards how to go about sustaining such “healthy practices” in a continuously dynamic technology change frame. This creates new dimension by creating a “responsive assessment and accreditation process” for judging quality in a flexible higher education system.

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Decentralized Governance & Development in Telangana

Dr.B.Ramalingam*

[Decentralised governance for development (DGD) is a key area of democratic governance which in turn is crucial to attaining human development and the SDGs. For development and governance to be fully responsive and representational, people and institutions must be empowered at every level of society national, provincial, district, city, town and village. From UNDP's perspective, DGD comprises empowering of sub-national levels of society to ensure that local people participate in, and benefit from, their own governance institutions and development services.]

Institutions of decentralisation, local governance and urban/rural development must bring policy formulation, service delivery and resource management within the purview of the people. These institutions should enable people, especially the poor and the marginalized, to exercise their choices for human development. Local governance comprises a set of institutions, mechanisms and processes, through which citizens and their groups can articulate their interests and needs, mediate their differences and exercise their rights and obligations at the local level.

The building blocks of good local governance are many: citizen participation, partnerships among key actors at the local level, capacity of local actors across all sectors, multiple flows of information, institutions of accountability, and a

* Faculty member, Dept of Pub. Admin., Telangana University, Telangana.

pro-poor orientation. This article examines the role that Decentralized governance plays in creating an effective state and in building constructive new state of Telangana. The article draws experiences for governance reconstruction more generally, addressing decentralization choices, capacity-building, and political factors. The paper will focus to examine present form of local governance and make possible solutions for reconstruction of Telangana State and development of society. In this context, two popular projects Mission Kakatiya and Water Grid and formation of new districts in Telangana are selected for this study.

Decentralised Governance and Development

Decentralised governance for development (DGD) encompasses decentralisation, local governance, and urban/rural development three areas that may have distinct delineations and yet

share attributes that call for greater conceptual and operational synergy. DGD is a key area of democratic governance which in turn is crucial to attaining human development and the SDGs. For development and governance to be fully responsive and representational, people and institutions must be empowered at every level of society national, provincial, district, city, town and village.

From UNDP's perspective, DGD comprises empowering of sub-national levels of society to ensure that local people participate in, and benefit from, their own governance institutions and development services. Institutions of decentralisation, local governance and urban/rural development must bring policy formulation, service delivery and resource management within the purview of the people. These institutions should enable people, especially the poor and the marginalized, to exercise their choices for human development.

Decentralization of powers is a pre-requisite of a democratic country. Local Self-Government implies the decentralization of powers so that the elected bodies may function independently with authority and resources to bring about "economic development and social justice. The achievement of Independence by our country opened a new chapter in socio-economic reforms, as embodied in the Directive Principles of State Policy, enunciated in the Constitution, which also established a federal system of public administration and provided for universal adult franchise and adopted the objective of welfare state.

The Article 40 of the Constitution lays down that the state would take steps to establish autonomous bodies in the form of village panchayats. *Deconcentration* refers to institutional changes that shift the authority to make certain types of decisions from national civil service personnel in the capital to national civil service personnel posted at dispersed location. In this arrangement, staff and resources are transferred from headquarters to lower units of administration, under chief officers who can take operational

decisions without reference to the headquarters.

Devolution refers to reorganisation efforts that approximate 'classic' decentralization most closely, in that significant amounts of independent legislative and fiscal authority are transferred to subnational governments. Responsibilities and resources are transferred to these local bodies, Newly formed Telangana state is concentrated on providing safe drinking water to each and every family through water grid project and Agriculture is the prime occupation in this area and scarcity of water one of the problems farmers facing here, in order to address this issue Government of Telangana started Mission Kakatiya programme to provide water for irrigation through the tanks by renovating, reconstructing them with the help of local bodies and community participation.

Decentralisation and Good Governance

Good governance has recently been accorded a central place in the discourse on development. It is being increasingly argued that without an appropriate governance structure, the developing countries will not be able to generate either sustained economic growth or a momentum towards rapid poverty reduction without empowering Local Governance.

Good or democratic governance is both a means and an end. It is a *means* to achieve the goals of human development, the main elements of which are articulated through the set of MDGs. It is an *end* in itself – as values, policies and institutions that are governed by human rights principles, i.e., equality and non-discrimination, participation and inclusiveness, accountability and the rule of law. Decentralising democratic governance to sub-national levels can accelerate and deepen improvements in access to basic services by the poor and in their capacities to make choices and contribute to decision-making processes directly affecting their lives.

However, "a process for participation does not *ipso facto* lead to empowerment, and to be consulted does not mean that one's voice had weight in decisions taken": one way of achieving

this is through “engaged governance” whereby an attempt is made, through new forms of collaboration between citizens’ groups and the public sector, to link social capital into the development management process of a country.

In this context Telangana state is empowering communities for the development of the state. Community empowerment is fundamental to poverty reduction and It is possible with peoples participation in Governance the World Bank has taken this approach to support programmes in developing countries. There is a plethora of definitions and characteristics of empowerment. The one that is particularly relevant in this context is the following:

Communities are empowered if they:

1. Have access to information;
2. Are included and participate in forums where issues are discussed and decisions are made;
3. Can hold decision-makers to account for their choices and actions; and,
4. Have the capacity and resources to organize to aggregate and express their interests and/ or to take on roles as partners with public service delivery agencies.

Significance of Local Governments

In recent years, local governments have become important instruments to promote political, economic and social reforms throughout the world. Decentralization is occurring in 80% of developing and transition countries and local governments are charged with delivering a wide range of essential services. New responsibilities in social services are being added to water, sanitation and such issues. Yet, though many of these services are internationally recognized human rights, the linkage between local governments and human rights has not been adequately addressed. Localized democracy is crucial for genuine empowerment and realization of human rights by all - especially the poor.

Local governance is about giving local citizenry the power to decide upon their needs.

Decentralization, which is the process to affect local governance, is based on four pillars, namely; participation, ownership, accountability and transparency. Alexis de Tocqueville, the founding father of community based empowerment and participatory democracy, upheld enhanced public participation at the local level as central, not just to the future health of local democracy, but to the building of responsive and accountable governance across the board. Thus, administrative decentralization and local participatory institutions combine to foster a thriving democratic political culture.

Since the time of independence struggle, the Local-Self-Government has played a significant role. However after independence, the Constitution of India as framed on federal principles, divided the functions of the government into three lists such as Central, State and Concurrent lists. The local bodies come under the State List and in case of Union territories under the Central List.

Constitutional status of Local bodies

On the basis of 73rd and 74th Amendments Acts of the Constitution, The Panchayat Raj and the Municipality Act came into effect on the 23rd of April and 30th of May 1994 respectively. As a result, the powers were decentralized, the responsibilities and projects of the Government were transferred to the local self-government on 2nd October, 1995. The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992, marks a water-shed in the history of local self-government in the country since it gives a constitutional mandate to the state governments to restructure and revamp rural local bodies in accordance with constitutional obligations. In the recent years the local self-government has been playing a vital role.

The Central government has also taken significant steps to address the issues related to the governance of urban areas. Recent government policies allow for greater community participation, private sector participation and decentralisation. Institutions of local governance are being encouraged/assisted to experiment with

and introduce new practices. Existing practices are being streamlined by taking into consideration the local issues. An important initiative in this respect is the enactment of the Constitution (74th Amendment) Act during the year 1992.

Through this measure, an attempt is being made to improve the performance ability of municipalities, so that they are able to discharge their duties efficiently. These local bodies not only provide services to the communities but also act as an instrument of democratic self government. Besides the local self government has become an essential part of the national government structure. This level of local government is now recognized by the people as they are close to the citizens and involve them in the decision making process. Decentralised governance is playing important role in the implementation of Mission kakatiya and water grid projects in Telangana state.

As such the local self-government is authorized by the Constitution of India to play a very important role in the formulation of policy and implementation of developmental works at the grass roots level through the Gram Sabhas. In order to deliver the above duties, the local self-government has been given certain powers to earn revenues by levying certain taxes and fees. In addition to it, the State Government also transfers some of its general revenues to the local self-government.

The theory of representation proposes that all citizens should have the same opportunity to participate in political affairs regardless of gender, race and other identities. Therefore the entry of women into political institutions is an issue of equality. For a healthy political system and welfare of the people it is important that women must come forward and perform a vital role in political activities because more opportunities to participate in the political process will enhance their economic and organizational capacities so that they can gain more self-confidence and make attempts for a better share in the political system. Thus their

participation in the political process is crucial for strengthening the democratic traditions.

Mission Kakatiya

Mission Kakatiyaisa entails program of restoring all the tanks and lakes in Telangana. The Program was inaugurated on 12 March 2015. Mission Kakatiya is dedicate in the remembrance and tribute to the Kakatiya rulers who developed large number of the irrigation tanks.

As part of this, government identified 45,000+ tanks and lakes in a special intensive survey on minor irrigation tanks. Government is planning to restore all these tanks and lakes, which is expected to cost Rs.20,000 crore over the next five years. By restoring almost all the tanks, as much as 250~270 TMC of water will be available for agricultural, irrigational, live stock and drinking water needs.

Importance of Tanks in the development of Telangana

Tanks have been the lifeline of Telangana owing to the state's geographical positioning. The people of the state are highly dependent on the tanks which are spread across all the 10 districts. The topography and rainfall pattern in Telangana have made tank irrigation an ideal type of irrigation by storing and regulating water flow for agricultural use.

Construction of tanks in Telangana has been an age-old activity since pre-Satavahana era. During the Kakatiya era, the construction of tanks was carried out with utmost technical expertise. Tanks such as Ramappa, Pakhala, Laknavaram, Ghanapuram, Bayyaram, which were built by Kakatiyas, resemble seas and they greatly helped agriculture and overall development and prosperity of the Kakatiya kingdom.

This vision and legacy of Kakatiyas were carried forward by Qutubshahis and Asafjahis who ruled this region for centuries. Hundreds of big and small tanks were built in Telangana region during their rule. Government desires to uphold the vision of Kakatiyas which envisages revival and restoration of Minor Irrigation Sources in Telangana.

Tank irrigation has huge bearing on generation of rural employment, poverty reduction and agricultural growth. The sheer size of command area under tank irrigation makes it a large center of agricultural production and provides a critical opportunity for commercial agriculture through market linkages. Mission kakatiya programme is being implemented with the help of local bodies and local people.

Water Grid (Telangana Drinking water) project

Water is life! International community has declared clean drinking water as a human right long back. Yet, lack of drinking water is a common sight in our state and country. Even though two perennial rivers flow across the state, the tragedy is, most of Telangana state does not have access to clean drinking water. The water grid programme aiming at supplying drinking water to all households in the state has been named Telangana Drinking Water Project.

The objective of Telangana Water Grid (TWG) is to provide 100 liters of clean drinking water per person in rural households and 150 liters per person in urban households. This project aims to provide water to about 25000 rural habitations and 67 urban habitations. The TWG would depend on water resources available in Krishna and Godavari - two perennial rivers flowing through the state.

A total of 34 TMC of water from Godavari river and 21.5 TMC from Krishna river would be utilized for the water grid. Plans are ready to use water from Srisailem, SriramSagar Project, Komuram Bheem Project, Paleru Reservoir, Jurala Dam and Nizam Sagar Project. This scientifically designed project intends to use the natural gradient wherever possible and pump water where necessary and supply water through pipelines. The state-level grid will comprise a total of 26 internal grids.

The main trunk pipelines of this project would run about 5000 km, and the secondary pipelines running a length of about 50000 km would be used to fill service tanks in habitations. From here

the village-level pipeline network of about 75,000 km would be used to provide clean drinking water to households. As soon as the water grid programme is completed many people will get access to safe drinking water in the state.

Reasons for the poor performance of the panchayats

There are competing demands among villages per Panchayat: 1. There is no incentive for the elected persons to deliver on their promises because there is no prospect of re-election during their term of five years. 2. Most of the State Acts have not spelt power to Gram Sabha (all the adult citizen voters of the village) nor have any procedures for the functioning of these bodies. 3. The Provisions of the Panchayats (Extension to Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 (PESA) which enables Gram Sabhas to self-govern their natural resources has almost been forgotten with week-kneed political will. 4. Lack of financial independence of panchayat is a barrier to their empowerment and function.

In 9 out of 12 major districts of the state, the tax revenue of local bodies constituted less than 5% of the total tax revenue of the state, and local bodies do not have sufficient tax assignments to raise revenue locally. Also, there is the overwhelming dependency, often more than 95%, of panchayats on government funding. When panchayats do not raise internal resources, people are less likely to request a social audit that would strengthen the accountability of the Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs).

The decentralization should be carefully designed, sequenced, and implemented to avoid increasing fiscal burden on the states and a breakdown in service delivery in particular to the poor. Thus, political and public service reforms must go hand-in-hand with empowerment of panchayats. Efficient decentralization is accompanied with improving governance and accountability, at least in the poorer or badly governed states.

Many suggestions to make panchayats more effective and participative have been discussed in the paper, including:

- a. Panchayats should be more active in social sector such as health, education, and nutrition, which require people to come together as equal.
- b. All Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and parallel bodies should be required to report periodically to the Gram Sabha so that the community is kept informed of the activities of parallel bodies.
- c. Gram Sabha meetings were regularly held only in a few places and participation was low. Empowering Gram Sabhas and strengthening their control over panchayats is necessary for transparency, and involvement of the poor and marginalized people.
- d. Only a small number of village people are aware of their fiscal power. Encouraging panchayats to use their fiscal power to levy new taxes is necessary for raising local resources.
- e. States need to increase the share of transfers to PRIs from state governments as untied grants. The formula of transfer should no doubt give priority to population and poverty, but also to performance and efficiency.
- f. Quality of work done by panchayat should be monitored by a team of journalists, civil society members, panchayat leaders from the neighbouring districts, and stakeholders. Decision on future funds should be based on the grades of quality of work to strengthen accountability of the local bodies.
- g. Local authorities should be institutionally separate from central government and assume responsibility for a significant range of local services (primary education, clinics and preventive health services, community development, and secondary roads being the most common).
- h. These authorities should have their own funds and budgets and should raise a substantial part of their revenue through local direct taxation.
- i. Local authorities should employ their own staff, although in the initial stage the regular civil service staff could be employed temporarily.
- j. The authorities would be governed internally by councils, predominantly composed of popularly elected representatives.
- k. Government administrators would withdraw from an executive to an advisory and supervisory role in relation to local government.

In the event, classic decentralisation rarely took place. Since the nature of local authorities' responsibilities is fundamental to the reality of local self-government, it is in the interests of both clarity and legal certainty that basic responsibilities should not be assigned to them on an *ad hoc* basis but should be sufficiently rooted in legislation. In India the responsibilities on them has been conferred by the Constitution through an Act of Parliament.

As these Local authorities, acting within the limits of the law, are required to regulate and manage a substantial share of public affairs under their own responsibility in the interests of the local population, it would be interesting to analyse their functioning so far as local units of governance and find out how far these units have been able to enhance the quality of governance by way of a reoriented strategy in their decision making process and if they have proved to be the vehicle of people's empowerment, particularly, the poor.

Formation of new districts

In a major administrative measure two years after carving out of the new state, the Telangana government on recently created 21 new districts, taking the total number to 31 in the state. Telangana, carved out of Andhra Pradesh, came into existence on June 2, 2014, as the 29th state of India.

The reorganisation of new districts was aimed at better administration and effective implementation of government programmes and schemes, The new districts which came into existence on October 11, 2016 are: Siddipet, Jangaon, Jayashankar, Jagtial, Warangal (Rural), Yadadri, Peddapally, Kamareddy, Medak, Mancheriyal, Vikarabad, Rajanna, Asifabad, Suryapet, Kothagudem, Nirmal,

Wanaparthi, Nagarkurnool, Mahabubabad, Jogulamba and Medchal/Malkajgiri.

The other ten districts are: Hyderabad, Ranga Reddy, Mahabubnagar, Medak, Karimnagar, Adilabad, Nizamabad, Warangal, Khammam and Nalgonda. Along with districts, the mandals, revenue divisions and other administrative units have also been reorganized.

After reorganization the 31 districts are: Mancherial, Nirmal, KumramBheem (Asifabad), Kamareddy, Peddapalli, Jagtial, Rajanna (Sircilla), Warangal Urban, Warangal Rural, Mahabubabad, Prof Jayashankar (Bhupalpally), Jangaon, Bhadradi (Kothagudem), Suryapet, Yadadri, Sangareddy, Siddipet, Medchal (Malkajgiri), Vikarabad, , Wanaparthi, Nagarkurnool and Jogulamba (Gadwal), while existing ones were Adilabad, Nizamabad, Karimnagar, Khammam, Nalgonda, Medak, Hyderabad, Ranga Reddy and Mahabubnagar.

Along with the reorganization of the districts, five new police Commissionerates – Karimnagar, Ramagundam, Nizamabad, Siddipet and Khammam – came into existence.

Conclusion

Because of a greater degree of accountability, responsiveness and participation, effective decentralization can make a big difference by making the provision of local (social and economic) services more efficient, equitable, sustainable and cost-effective. Through community participation in decision-making, planning, implementation and monitoring and backed by appropriate institutions and resources, it can go a long way in improving the quality of life, particularly of the poorer and marginalised sectors of the population, thereby alleviating poverty.

Mission Kakatiya and Water Grid are two successful projects in Telangana and these programmes are definitely helpful in the reconstruction of Telangana because these are providing drinking water facility in rural areas and Mission Kakatiya is a wonderful programme

for agricultural development. These two programmes are helpful in poverty reduction and one should remember that without public participation and decentralised governance, these programmes will not be successful. Formation of new districts and mandals has also taken place in state in order to provide better service delivery to the people near their place and this will spur more and active participation of the people in governance.

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Educational Status of Indian Muslims after the Sachar Report

Muhammed Haneefa AP*

[While lamenting at the sordid state of affairs afflicting the education of Muslim community in India, the author briefly examines various causes responsible for this situation and by supporting his arguments with appropriate data, he moots constructive suggestions in the wake of Sachar Committee report for the betterment of the community. Ed.]

On March 5, 2013, UPSC released a notification that shocked the UPSC aspirants who graduated in Arabic and Persian languages. This particular notification excluded Arabic and Persian from the list of optional subjects mentioned in group two of 'literature of languages' of the Civil Services Main Examination.

Exactly a year before the 2013 notification, in March of 2012, scholarly articles reported that Delhi Muslims face a clear discrimination in getting admission in top rated schools. One study, based on fieldwork in some selected areas in Delhi, indicated that most of the schools in the capital had some prefixed quota of just this much and no more Muslims (Broker 2012). These are not isolated incidents; even in Kerala, a state that has achieved better development in education in comparison with other states, Muslims face discrimination in schools. For instance, girls are forbidden in some private schools from wearing headscarves (Lakshmi 2012: 162).

Is there any connection between the incidents mentioned above? Yes, both stories do share one common characteristic, social exclusion or to put it simply, elimination of a community by their identity and their academic interests. In the first case, Arabic and Persian, predominantly studied by Muslims in India, continues to be excluded from being identified as one 'proper' language for literature studies and therefore scrapped from the exams.

* PhD Scholar, Centre for the Study of Social Systems, JNU, New Delhi.

In the second case, mostly, the educational authorities in alliance with other dominant groups in society excluded the Muslim students from getting admission to the mainstream schools (Borker 2012, Sharma 2014). This admission would have helped them to achieve a modern education and also knowledge of a desired language and literature. When in the first instance the state and dominant authorities seem to suggest to Muslims that their language and literature are not modern enough, in the second instance they appear to tell them that they are not desirable.

The paradox, irony, and contradiction of the situation are that the same forces that deny their desires to learn languages and literatures of their interest because these supposedly lack 'modernity, also deny them access to 'modern' educational resources. Such stories of the exclusion of Indian Muslims are not new. In many parts of India, Muslims have historically been excluded from participating in formal education.

It is not ludicrous to argue that educational system in India has a character that favors some groups and communities over others, and facilitates certain groups to generate more social, cultural and economic capital that acts as a catalyst for their domination in society. Such an educational system has created a dichotomy between *us* versus *them* and categorized us as always 'genuine,' 'normal,' 'modern' and 'progressive' contrary to the classification of them 'as 'primitive,' 'outdated' and 'fanatic.'

In this context, the relevance of the Sachar Committee recommendations is particularly

noteworthy. The committee used the 2001 Census report along with NSSO data to study the overall educational status of Muslims. The report pointed out that Muslims form the most educationally backward religious community in India and face multiple layers of discrimination. From the lowest levels of the educational spectrum to the highest, they are marginalized. It also argued that the gap between Muslims and other Socio-Religious Categories (SRC) increases as the level of education increases. After ten years, how does the educational state of the Muslims compare with that of other religious communities in India?

This paper argues that even today Muslims comprise an important category in the list of deprived communities in the country. To analyse the marginality of Muslims in education, two critical parameters will be examined: the literacy rate and the number of graduates among the Muslims in the country. This will enable us to understand, from a quantitative point-of-view, how the community fares today, both at the basic educational level of being able to read and write and also in higher education.

Educational Level of Muslims from Literacy to Higher Education

The 2011 Census Report on educational level by religious communities published by Census

Commission of India on October 31st, 2016, reveals that educationally Muslims are the most marginalized community in India who occupy the last position in literacy, primary education and in the number of graduates according to their population. Regarding both literacy levels and higher education, they lag behind other religious communities.

Literacy is one of the critical components in analyzing the educational standard of any community. At a time when the government is advertising for a cashless economy and digital literacy, the writing on the wall, - the fact that 27.02 percentage of the Indian population are illiterate, tells a different story.

Analyzing literacy levels based on religious affiliation, Muslims are the most illiterate community in India today. Out of the total population, 31.46 percent of the Muslims are illiterate. Jains are the most literate religious community in India with literacy levels of 94.88 percent followed by Christians and Buddhists. The gap between the most literate community, Jains, and the least literate, Muslims, is 26.34 percent. Table I shows the community-wise breakdown of literacy levels, and it is clear that the percentage of Muslim literacy is below the national average and below that of all the other six major religious communities.

Table I- Religious Wise Literacy Rate of India- 2011

No	Religion	Percentage of 7 Years+ Population	Male	Female
1	Hindu	73.27	81.70	64.34
2	Muslim	68.54	74.73	62.04
3	Christian	84.53	87.70	81.47
4	Sikh	75.39	80.03	70.31
5	Buddhist	81.29	88.31	74.04
6	Jain	94.88	96.78	92.91
7	Other religions and persuasions	59.90	70.89	49.07
8	Religion not Stated	74.69	81.95	67.31
9	Total Literacy of India	72.98	80.88	64.63

Source; Census of India 2011. Total population is calculated excluding children below seven years

Literacy is one tool that connects people together, and it enables efficient interaction between individuals. Furthermore, literacy, as noted by Gough, is for the most part an enabling rather than a causal factor, making possible the development of complex political structure (Gough K 1975: 153) and it provided differences of social prestige and privilege. The lack of literacy is also visible in Muslims' metric or secondary education.

The 2011 Census shows that, while the percentage of the national matric-education level is 6.43, it is only 4.43 among the Muslims but is 6.62 for Hindus, 10.31 for Christians, 8.25 for

Sikhs, 8.61 for Buddhists and 14.05 for Jains. Therefore, it won't be wrong to argue that the lack of literacy among the Muslims is the one main reason for their social and economic backwardness. As will be demonstrated in the rest of the paper, the community fares no better in higher education.

Higher education is necessary for a community's stable social and economic development. In a country where free and compulsory education of children below the age of 14 is a constitutional right, higher educational status would be an effective tool to understand the overall educational status of communities. The latest census data shows that there are significant differences in the number of graduates among the six major religious groups.

Table II- Percentage of Graduates and Above in India- 2011

No	Religion	Percentage of 20Years+ Population	Male	Female
1	Hindu	9.93	12.18	7.60
2	Muslim	5.24	6.51	3.91
3	Christian	13.99	14.42	13.58
4	Sikh	9.79	9.61	9.98
5	Buddhist	9.75	11.99	7.49
6	Jain	36.01	39.45	32.52
7	Other Religions and Persuasions	3.94	5.12	2.81
8	Total	9.51	11.54	7.41

Source; Census of India 2011. Total population is calculated excluding population below 20 years old

Only 9.51 percent of the total population aged 20 years and above, according to 2011 Census data, are graduates. Out of the total population, a community-wise breakdown shows that only 5.24 percent of Muslims are graduates and the same was 3.6 percent in 2001. In the decade between 2001 and 2011, only an increase of 1.6 percent has been achieved as far as the higher education levels of Muslims are concerned. However, in

the same period, the national average rose from 6.7 to 9.5, and the increase in percentage is 2.8. It clearly shows that the growth rate of graduates among the Muslims is slower than the national average. As shown in Table II, with 36.01 proportion of graduates, Jains are the most educated religious community in India followed by Christians. And the rate of Jain graduates is seven-fold higher than the Muslims.

Discussions

Distinguished sociologist Bourdieu, viewed education as a tool to reproduce inequality in

society. He argued that education never produces equality but creates imbalances. Famous American sociologist, Coleman, on the other hand, considered education as a mechanism for 'reduction of inequality' in societies. Such a perspective helped Coleman to theorize the role of education in any society as a "means to an end, not an end in itself, and equal opportunity refers to later life rather than the educational process itself" (Coleman 1975: 28).

Both argue that if the course of acquiring an education is unequal, that society can never achieve social equality. Therefore, in order to overcome social and economic inequality, it is important to bring equality in education. To educate Muslims, governments should open more educational institutions in Muslim-dominated regions. To only comply with madrasa modernization programs to teach Muslims will hardly improve their overall educational condition.

There are two reasons for this: One is that, as mentioned in the Sachar Committee report (p.77), only three percent of Muslim children in the school-going age attend Madrasas. Secondly, many government institutions are not ready to accept the degree certificates issued by madrasas for admission to higher education. Therefore, Madrasa certificates have no value as far as higher education is concerned. So instead of madrasa modernization programs, states should implement plans that attract Muslims to schools and colleges.

In addition to that, there should be a proper movement within the community to educate Muslims and to eradicate the forces that stop them from acquiring modern education. Such a movement is especially needed to educate Muslim women. Their case, as shown in Table II, is even worse in higher education and the gap between male-female graduate percentages is greater among the Muslims. Also, Muslim female literacy (62.04 %) is poorer compared to other religious communities. It won't be wrong to argue that, lack of women literacy is the main reason for the educational backwardness of Muslims.

As noted by Robin Jeffrey in his work on Kerala (1992), "literate men have literate sons; literate women have literate children"; this stresses the role of female literacy in achieving mass literacy in Kerala. Therefore, for mass literacy higher female literacy is needed and it creates a favorable environment within and among families towards increased educational attainment. But there are many problems like child marriage, early pregnancy, patriarchal values, low female labor participation and 'thin agency' in decision-making process which contribute to the educational backwardness of Muslim women.

'Thin agency,' following Klocker, refers to decisions and actions that are taken in highly restrictive contexts, characterized by few visible alternatives, and is opposed to 'thick agency,' which refers to actions and decisions taken with less restriction and within a broader range of options (Klocker 2007: 85). Thin agency of girls, which never denies the complete agency of girls, is one of the main reasons for child marriage and it directly and negatively influences women's higher education. For instance, among the Muslims of Kerala, even within a sub-community that has a comparatively higher social, political and economic status amongst the Muslims of India, the age old custom of child marriage is rampant and it negatively influences women's higher education.

In Kerala, Malappuram district, where 70.23 percent of the population is Muslim, ranked lowest in terms of both male and female degree holders. One of the main reasons for its small female graduates is that of the evil custom of child marriage, because, according to 2011 census, 38.50 percent of total marriages in the district are reported as child marriages. Moreover, child marriage among the Muslims is reported to be above 45 percent. My field work in this area shows that Muslim girls get married immediately after their tenth standard even though they do not want to do so. Many girls, who were married off before 18 years, said that they are not happy with the family's decision and they were forced to stop education because of marriage.

I also found that child marriage and early pregnancy account for 30-35 percent of female higher secondary and college drop-outs (For more details, see Haneefa 2013). There is no doubt that, based on the present author's previous research and as argued by many scholarly works (UNICEF 2005, Sagade 2011, Nguyen and Wodon, 2012 among others), child marriage is one of the main reasons for the backwardness of women in higher education and the rate of early marriage among the Muslim girls in India is at an alarming rate of 30.56 percent. Therefore, movements within the community should be organised in conjunction with government programmes to eradicate such problems.

Conclusion

In short, the data mentioned above and stories of exclusion show that even after a decade of Sachar committee recommendations, the Muslims in India lag in all spheres of education and they also face many inequalities in achieving education. As asked by Ambedkar in his last speech to the Constituent Assembly, "how long shall we continue to deny equality in our social and economic life?" If governments and concerned departments do not seriously consider published research and reports such as Sachar committee, and Rangnath Commission reports on social and economic exclusion and discrimination of minorities and other marginalized groups like Dalits and women, perhaps then Ambedkar's warning should be heeded : "if we continue to deny social and economic equality for long, we will do so only by putting our political democracy in peril. We must remove this contradiction at the earliest possible moment or else those who suffer from inequality will blow up the structure of political democracy which this Assembly has to laboriously built up".

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Social & Family Life of Potters: A Sociological Study

Dr. Jayshree Rathore*

[Pottery plays significant role in the reconstruction and understanding of past technologies and socio-economic-religious life. Present paper endeavours to understand contemporary traditional pottery practices at these sites. Besides documentation of degeneration of technology, authors aim to put forth the survival problems of the potters. Furthermore, an attempt has been made to examine the possible reasons behind their present socio-economic conditions and Pottery making techniques can bridge the gap between different social groups, provide potters an economic foundation, and help them establish new lifestyles that are based on their transmigration experiences.]

Pottery is the most sensual of all arts. In India, we have a great tradition of pottery making. In fact, being an agricultural country, pots for storage of water and grains were in demand. The real beginning of Indian pottery began with the Indus Valley Civilization and the art of shaping and baking clay articles as pottery, earthenware and porcelain has continued through the ages. While pottery and earthenware are definitely utilitarian and often decorative, porcelain and studio pottery belong to the sphere of art. There is proof of pottery making, both handmade and wheel-made, from all over India. In the Harappaan civilization potter's place was quite an important one in society. The craft was well advanced. Rectangular oven for firing the product were in use. Seals and grain and water containers were made that were put to use effectively. The potter occupies a unique position in the craft traditions of India. India is home to more than a million potters. The potters are wonderful masters of their trade. Clay pottery is an ancient craft in India. The art of Clay Pottery grew along with the Civilization. Thus, the history of clay pottery is as old as the history of human

civilization. Pottery has a unique tempting appeal. Its association with religion and usage in religious ceremonies has given a deeper significance and a wider dimension. The traditional folk art of Indian Clay Pottery, particularly of Bengal, is considered exceptional and best in the world. Indian art reflects the fusion of Social and religious conditions prevalent during the contemporary period when they were made. The remains of Archaeological findings suggest that the artists of Clay Pottery in India had high degree of skill even during the Neolithic ages.

Methodology

The research is mainly focus on family and social life of pottery: a sociological evaluation. Methodology was followed for this article, comprising literature review, and analysis of secondary data. In order to the research aim and objectives, the article mainly based on secondary data are drawn classified from the Publications of books, monthly journals, article, magazines, and internet.

Objectives

The main objectives of the present study are:

* Associate Professor & Research Guide, Department of Sociology, Govt. College, Kota, Rajasthan.

- To know the family life of potters
- To Understanding the process and features of pottery industry
- To know the problems of potters related to production, marketing, and labour.

About The Study

Potters art in India is as ancient as the country itself. According to archaeological evidence, it was prevalent even during the Indus Valley Civilization. The exact time period when it came to Bengal is unknown, but what helped it grow and develop here was the fertile alluvial soil of the Ganges. Today, West Bengal is one of the largest producers of terracotta pottery in the country. The art form is spread all over this state, but Panchmura pottery has its own unique appeal, beauty and popularity. There is evidence of pottery making, and made as well as wheel-thrown, from all over India. The art of shaping and baking clay articles as Pottery, earthenware and porcelain has evolved and endured through centuries to the modern times.

The finest pottery in India is of the unglazed variety, and this is practically produced all over India in a variety of forms. Kangra and Andreta in Himachal Pradesh, Pokhran in Rajasthan, Meerut and Harpur in Uttar Pradesh, Kanpur in Maharastra, Kutch in Gujarat, Jahjjar in Haryana, Birbhum in Bengal and Manipur are famous for their special styles in pottery. Further the present study focused on social and family life of potters.

Pottery in Domestic Purpose

Potters from selected sites use certain products for themselves on daily purpose. Certain types of pottery is seen more likely to be made for

household production. A few of the potter's families from Maheshwar and Bedhi make some pottery forms for themselves which they do not make for sale such as hearth, matakas, diyas, pan. However, a clear distinction is seen between pottery exchange and pottery manufacturing for own use.

Problems of Pottery Makers

A good market for the products of pottery industry is important to promote the well-being of the artisans or small entrepreneurs. But marketing in this field has certain limitations.

1. Due to the absence of any co-operative marketing organisations or government agency in sufficiently large numbers in most of the unit, selling of the finished products through middlemen has been a dominant feature.
2. The demand for the various products of these industries is largely seasonal and limited to the locality as majority of their products are substandard and do not conform to the required specifications.
3. The competition from the mills as well as inter unit competition is keen. Thus, in the absence of any rational marketing organisation, the workers of various household industries are forced to sell the products to the local traders or middlemen who manage to get away with the major cart of the profit.

Policies for Development Potter Community

The following policies are recommended for the development and making the pottery industry or family's economic variables.

1. Marketing support
2. Distribution of raw materials

3. Product diversification
4. Modernisation of production technology
5. Formation of cooperative societies
6. Finance mobilization
7. Skill formation and training
8. Extension of employment opportunities during slack seasons

Apart from above policies following are the important aspects are also very important for the improvement and development of potters in India.

Awareness among the youth, Export to newer market, Establishment of attractive show rooms, Better inventory management, Stronger presence in E-commerce, Retail visibility, Government initiatives, Eco-friendly alternative.

Summary and Conclusion

As all over India most of traditional potters are diverting from their traditional occupation system, due to urbanization and decreased use of local pottery, besides increase in the use and production of various metal and fiber products at cheap rates. Pottery in Indian cities has developed in recent years because of new scientific researches. Though new modern ceramic factories, units, studios have emerged in large scales all over the country, it is seen that in rural parts still traditional pottery practitioners have not fully adopted new techniques. Instead they are shifting from their traditional business to more lucrative job. To success-fully collect funds for building a house, they join the local system, to manage long-term household-related expenses. In terms of the number of members and the duration, which means market places potters can change and create their pottery-making

through their social relationships. Potters' social and cultural practices dictate that they are supposed to not only take part in pottery-making to sustain their households but also, when they get married, to move with their husbands to different villages and away from the village where they were born. On the other hand, potters' husbands bring their wives to their home village, and they depend on the potters' income to make a living. However, in terms of potters' knowledge of pottery-making and their techniques, potters can change and create their pottery making through their social relationships.

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Demonetization and Farmers

Dr.A.Muthumani* & Miss.M.Jensirani**

[On 8th November 2016, the Government of India stripped Rs.500 and Rs.1000 demonetisation currency notes of their legal tender issue. In this single move, the Government has attempted to tackle all the three issues affecting the economy. That is parallel economy, counterfeit currency in circulation and terror financing. The idea of demonetization is good but the small farmers, sellers, merchants, daily wage labourers and traders are suffering because of lack of proper planning, intelligence and foresight such as recalibration of ATM machines.]

The farmers were facing a big problem because the limit of withdrawal had not been kept at a higher level in the cultivation season. There have been several reports already explaining why demonetisations might have hit farmers severely. The demonetisation of Rs.500 and Rs.1000 notes to crush back economy has come at wrong time for farmers, because million of farmers were unable to get enough cash to buy seeds and fertilizers for their winter crops. In India, 263 million farmers live mostly in the cash economy. So, this article deals with the impact of demonetisation on the farmers.

Impact

1. The RBI had asked district central co-operative banks (DCCBs) and Primary Agricultural Credit societies (PACS) not to accept the old Rs.500 and Rs.1000 currency note deposits or exchange those notes with the new currency notes. This meant the lenders at these banks can only deal with permissible denomination of Rs.100 and below or take deposits in new currencies which were hardly available them.
2. Co-operative banks are particularly important for farmer and lower income groups who lend small loans in less time. The banking correspondents who operate in areas having no bank branches have been left out of this massive exercise of currency exchange. This move by the RBI has taken the trust of common man away from co-operative banks as customers are wary of depositing their hard earned money.
3. By 2019, the two-way platform will be created between farmers and buyer. This will be done through the broadband connectivity across the rural India. It is a good initiative but Government of India has to face challenges to make this plan successful. A proper training program, uninterrupted services, electricity, availability of smart phone, tables and computer to almost every farmer can be a big challenge.

* Asst Prof., PG Dept of Commerce, Sri SRNM College, Sattur.

** Research Scholar, PG Dept of Commerce, Sri SRNM College, Sattur.

4. Farmers and poor people were struggling to get their hands on their own money. They were selling their produce in mandis at throw away prices because buyers didn't have cash to pay them. Mobile ATMs and Micro ATMs had been a rare sight and normal ATMs usually stayed shut at least a couple of days every week.
5. Formal financing is significantly from co-operative banks, which were barred from exchange or deposit of demonetised currency. Agriculture was also impacted through sale, transport, marketing and distribution of ready produce to wholesale markets or mandis which are dominantly cash dependent. Agriculture production in 2016-17 could drop if sowed acreage reduces due to lack of availability of seeds on time to exploit, the adequate soil moisture. Winter crops such as wheat, mustard, chickpeas are due for sowing.
6. Plantation crop such as rubber, tea, jute, cardamom are badly affected due to paucity of funds. Production losses in vegetables

cannot be recouped and is a permanent loss as it is a perishable product.

7. However, cereals, oilseeds will last until the next harvest but incomes and profit margins of the farmers will be hurt.

Conclusion

Finally, in a nutshell, such a huge step always comes with a cost and this time unfortunately the cost was not paid by the common man. The destruction of old currency units and printing of new currency, new units involve costs which has to be borne by the Government and if the costs are higher than benefits, then there is no use of demonetisation, we need to see the balance between positives and the negatives. Surely there are enough positives from this move by the Government, but the negative cannot be wished away. When 86% of the economy is driven out of cash a society truly becomes cashless. The Government should at least have made necessary arrangements for cash disbursement before making such a massive and impactful decision whose ripple will be felt in time to come.



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Tribal Development via Education in Kerala

Dr. P. Stanly Joseph* & Raimol Pappachan**

[The growth and development of a nation largely depends on the accessibility of educational requirements as it transforms a society into more productive and effective. Literacy and educational attainment are powerful indicators of social and economic development among the backward groups in India. Article 46 of Indian Constitution directs the state 'to take special care of the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and in particular of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation'.]

Human capital formation and human resource development empowered by education have become unavoidable elements for economic development. While education is considered as one of the basic elements in the transformation towards development, educational advancement is considered as an important indicator of development.

Amarthya Sen points out that in real terms any scheme of economic development should provide adequate entitlements which refer to the bundle of commodities over any of which a person can establish command, by using the rules of acquirement that govern his circumstances. The state or the institutions provide entitlements in the form of medical health, education, pension etc.¹ He recently emphasized education as an important parameter for any inclusive growth in an economy.

Education is crucial for total development of tribal communities and is particularly helpful to build confidence among the tribes to deal with outsiders on equal terms. It is, in fact, an input not only for economic development of tribes but also for inner strength of the tribal communities which helps them in meeting the new challenges of life.²

* Associate Prof., Dept of Economics, St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli.

** Research Scholar, Dept of Economics, St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli.

As per 2011 Census tribal population in the country is 10,45,45,716³ which is 8.6 % of the country's population – the largest proportion in any country globally⁴. A very sizable segment of tribal population resides in the states of Chhattisgarh (7.50%), Gujarat (8.55%), Jharkhand (8.29%), Orissa (9.20%), Rajasthan (8.86%), Maharashtra (10.08%) and Madhya Pradesh (14.69%). The percentage of tribal population in Kerala to the total tribal population in India in 2011 is 0.46%. Tribal population of Kerala are living on the hill ranges, mainly on the Western Ghats, bordering Karnataka and Tamil Nadu⁵. As per the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes Orders (Amendment) Act, the government of Kerala has enlisted 36 tribal communities in the state as Scheduled Tribes.

The total tribal population of Kerala, according to 2011 census, is 4,84,839 which accounts for 1.5 per cent of the total population of the state. Tribal concentrations in the state are seen in the districts of Kasaragod, Kannur, Kozhikodu, Malappuram, Wayanad, Idukki, Palakkad and the north eastern parts of Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram districts. As per 2011 census, the tribal population of these districts together constitutes 73 per cent of the total tribal population in the state. Wayanad district recorded the highest percentage of tribal population with 18.5% and Thrissur district with lowest percentage of 0.30%⁶. This article analyses the literacy of tribals of Kerala in comparison with India.

Table I**Percentage of ST Population in Kerala to India**

Year	Tribal Population in India (in 000s)	Tribal Population in Kerala in (000s)	% STs in the State to Total ST Population in India (in %)
1961	30,130.18	212.8	0.71
1971	38,015.16	269.4	0.71
1981	51,628.64	261.5	0.51
1991	67,658.64	321.0	0.47
2001	84,326.24	364.2	0.43
2011	10,45,45.72	484.8	0.46

Source: Census Reports

The population of Scheduled Tribes has been on the increase since 1961. The tribal population of the country was 30,130,184 in 1961 and in the year 2011 it increased to 10,45,45,716. Only two times increase could be seen in the population of tribes in Kerala from 1961 to 2011. The tribal population of the state records an increasing trend even though the percentage of scheduled tribes in the State to total scheduled tribes population in India decreases during successive years. That denotes the population growth of scheduled tribes in India goes on increasing faster than that of the population growth of scheduled tribes in Kerala.

Developmental Activities

Educational development is a stepping-stone to economic and social development and is also the most effective instrument for empowering the tribals. The Government of India is implementing numerous schemes among scheduled tribes with the objective of enhancing access to education through the following measures ; a) provision of infrastructure by way of construction of hostels for ST students, b) establishment of Ashram Schools, c) Vocational Training Centres; d) Pre Matric Scholarship, e) Post Matric Scholarship (PMS), f) Scholarship for Top Class Education, g) Rajiv Gandhi National Fellowship, h) National Overseas Scholarship for ST students, i) schemes

of 'Hostels for ST Boys' and Girls', j) Ashram Schools, etc.

The Government of Kerala has taken many steps for the educational empowerment of the tribals and has appointed different commissions to evaluate and suggest reforms. The various education commissions have also given special interest to tribal education. The Kothari Commission emphasised in its report about the importance of education in the case of scheduled tribe welfare. In fact, education has become the main tool of all tribal welfare programmes, because, "Educational schemes are very important from the point of view of the various changes they bring in the life of the community"(Report of the Education Commission, 1964).

From the beginning itself, greater emphasis is being paid to education by the state government. Major part of the money for tribal development activities is being spent on education. Pre-matric and Post-matric scholarships, Pre-matric and Post-matric Hostels, Model Residential Schools, Gothrasaradhi, Ayyamkali Memorial Scholarship, Tutorial grants, financial assistance to capable students, School and College study tours, Special annual grant to parents of the students, Training for self-employment and skill development, Vocational training, Distribution of Lap Tops, etc. are the major schemes

implemented by the Department of Scheduled Tribes in the state.

Financial assistance for professional education, entrance coaching and education in national and international universities, tables and chairs to ST students, bicycles to ST students in 10th class, computer and laptops to the post-graduate students in medical, engineering and computer subjects etc. are provided through the local self-governments of the state. Apart from these assistances, the Departments of College Education, Technical Education and General Education are offering many schemes to the ST students in the form of IAS coaching, skill development programmes, scholarships to talented students from villages, single teacher schools etc.

During 2013-2014, the state government had utilized Rs. 1446.2 lakh for the pre matriculation studies, Rs 630 lakh for post-matriculation studies, Rs 50.78 lakh for running the nursery schools, etc. The state government has distributed Rs 49.98 lakh as special encouragement to talented students and Rs 39.98 lakh under Ayyamkali Memorial Scholarship in the same year.

In 2013-2014 the state government had utilized Rs 303.2 lakh for Gothrasaradhi and distributed Rs 155.12 lakh as Tutorial grants. In addition to these financial allotments, the government has distributed lakhs of rupees for the implementation of educational programmes meant for the tribals. The programmes targeted to the general students by different departments are also available to the tribal students. Some of the programmes are mentioned below.

1. Balavadis are meant for developing attitude in learning, to encouraging children for accelerating the development of their intellectual capacity to make them strongly attached to hygienic circumstances.
2. ST Development Department runs 25 kindergartens and thirteen Nursery Schools for the children in the age group of 3 to 5 years. The children are given free mid-day meals and dress in addition to grant.
3. Single Teacher Schools were started with the intention of creating awareness about education, health and cleanliness of the surroundings among the STs those who dwell in forlorn areas and spread education among their children.
4. Apart from giving full fee concession to all scheduled tribe students lump sum grant and special stipends are also being given to them up to the high school level.
5. Hostel facilities are provided to those students who do not stay within reasonable distance from the schools. 107 pre-matric hostels and 3 post-matric hostels are working in the state. In addition to warden and other employees, special facility for private tuition also is arranged.
6. Financial assistance is provided to the ST students who seek admission in Boarding.
7. Special annual grant is provided to the parents those who send their children to school.
8. Promotional prizes are given to the ST students those who secure higher marks in different examinations.
9. Assistance for the study at tutorials is made available to students those who fail in the SSLC in the form of lump sum grant. Tuition fee are provided to failed students in Plus-Two Examination.
10. Enhanced assistance to selected capable students on the basis of marks scored is given. The selected students are sent to eminent residential schools under which tuition fee, residential facilities, boarding, dress and educational aids etc. are met by the government.
11. Educational recreation centres are being run in the scheduled tribes' residential centres with furniture, books, newspapers and recreational aids.
12. Selected boys and girls who score high marks in S SLC Examination have the opportunity

for Bharath-Darsan-Programme and Kerala-Darsan-Programme.

13. Encouragement through the provision of prizes to ST students who score victories in arts and sports activities at the state level. They are admitted to the sports schools run by the SC Department.
14. In order to provide high quality education to students belonging to STs 18 Model Residential Schools have been working for boys and girls.
15. Rajiv Gandhi Memorial Ashram School has been started with the purpose of giving accommodation and coaching belonging to efficient tribal students.
16. Students of the STs are being exempted from paying fees including the examination fee. They are given lump sum grant and monthly stipend at various rates. In order to provide adequate hostel facilities to students admission is given to them in the cosmopolitan hostels and recognised hostels. Educational assistance is offered to the students undergoing studies in other states also.
17. In order to make increase employment facilities to ST students employment training centres have been established. The trainees are being given lump sum grant and per month stipend.
18. Travelling allowance will be given to the candidates who appear for interviews conducted against the vacancies in the central and state government services.
19. For training candidates for the appointment to the vacancies notified by the major institutions in the public sector Pre examination training centres are functioning in the state.
20. Monthly fee concessions and stipend are available for ST candidates studying in private institutes giving technical training courses.
21. Reservation is made to SC and ST students in ITIs for the provision of employment oriented education and other technical training.
22. Mobile Employment Exchanges are started for giving information regarding employment opportunities arising in government and non-government institutions.

Literacy Status in India and Kerala

The Central and state governments have been allocating a major portion of the fund for educational programmes. Tribal development programmes have attained some implications and positive effects on tribal education. The Central and state government programmes have far reaching consequences upon tribal education which is reflected in the literacy and educational levels of tribal population. The literacy status of scheduled tribes in India and Kerala can be analysed from the following tables.

Table II
Literacy Rate among STs (in %)

Census		India		Kerala		
Year	Total	ST	Gap	Total	ST	Gap
1971	29.45	11.30	18.15	60.42	25.5	34.92
1981	36.03	16.35	19.68	70.42	31.7	38.72
1991	52.21	29.60	22.61	89.81	57.2	32.61
2001	64.36	47.10	17.26	90.86	64.4	26.46
2011	72.99	59.01	13.98	94.00	75.8	18.20

Source: Census Reports

The gap between literacy levels of STs and the general population has widened. According to the Census figures, the literacy rate for the Scheduled Tribes in India increased from 47.1 per cent in 2001 to 59 per cent in 2011. The literacy rate for the total population in India has increased from 64.4 per cent in 2001 to 73 per cent in 2011. Data show that literacy rate of STs is lower by 14 percentage points as compared to the overall literacy rate of the general population. The ST literacy rate in the country is increased approximately by 47.71 percentage points in the year 2011 as compared to the literacy rate in 1971.

It is also observed that literacy rate increased by 11.9 percentage points from 2001 to 2011 for STs and by 8.16 percentage points for total population during the same period. The general ST gap in literacy rate reduced from 17.26 percentage points in 2001 to 13.98 percentage points in 2011. While the early years records a rise in the literacy gap in general ST percentage points, a declining trend is recorded during the later years.

In Kerala the literacy rate of Scheduled Tribes accounts for 75.8 per cent in 2011 against 94 per cent for the literacy rate of Scheduled tribes in the same year. The literacy rate for the Scheduled Tribes in Kerala increased from 64.4 per cent in 2001 to 75.8 per cent in 2011. The literacy rate for the general population has increased from 90.86 per cent in 2001 to 90 per cent in 2011. In 2011 literacy rate of STs are lower by 18.2 percentage points as compared to the overall literacy rate of the general population. While in 1971 the literacy rate of the general population in Kerala was 60.42 percent, the literacy rate

for the scheduled tribes' records 25.5 percent. Here the gap in literacy rate is 34.92 per cent. It is also observed that gap in the literacy rate in 2011 for STs and general population in Kerala is 18.2 percentage points.

Table III

Gap in Literacy Rates among STs in India and Kerala (in %)

Census Year	ST India	ST Kerala	Gap
1971	11.30	25.5	14.2
1981	16.35	31.7	15.35
1991	29.60	57.2	27.6
2001	47.10	64.4	17.3
2011	59.01	75.8	16.79

Source: Census reports

The gap between the literacy rates of scheduled tribes in India and Kerala from 1971 to 1991 is increasing at an increasing rate. In the year 1991 the gap reaches maximum. That is, 27.6 percentage points. Afterwards the gap began to diminish at a diminishing rate.

The impact of the development programmes like Pre metric and Post metric scholarships, Pre metric and Post metric Hostels, Model Residential Schools, Gothrasaradhi, Ayyamkali Memorial Scholarship, Tutorial grants, financial assistance to capable students etc. implemented by the Central and state governments have far reaching consequences among scheduled tribes as it is reflected in the literacy levels of their lives.

(.....Continued the Next Issue)

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