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# THIRD CONCEPT

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- ❖ **2012 Doha Conference on  
Climate Change**
- ❖ **Entitlement Issues in MGNREGS**
- ❖ **Development Dynamics  
in Arunachal Pradesh**
- ❖ **The Nudge Theory**
- ❖ **Domestic Violence against Women**
- ❖ **Dr. Ambedkar & Water Policies in India**





## An International Journal of Ideas

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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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### New Foe!

Environmental pollution, in the form of filthy air and contaminated water, has emerged as humankind's new foe that is killing more people every year than all war, violence or disaster in the world. According to a recently released study by UK-based Lancet medical journal, environmental pollution claimed about nine million deaths in the world in 2015. The study further discloses whopping financial cost, some \$4.6 trillion in annual losses — or about 6.2% of the global economy. Findings of this study puts India on the top of list of individual countries where one out of every four premature deaths in 2015 or some 2.5 million deaths occurred in India, followed by China, with more than 1.8 million deaths. Various other countries like Bangladesh, Pakistan, North Korea, South Sudan and Haiti also see nearly a fifth of their premature deaths caused by pollution.

While pointing out that pollution is a gigantic problem that is not catching people's serious attention because look at scattered bits of the environmental pollution, some experts opine that he estimates of about nine million deaths is just a partial estimate, and the number of people killed by pollution is undoubtedly higher and will be quantified once more research is done and new methods of assessing harmful impacts are developed. Lamentably, the world's poorest fall an easy prey to environmental pollution and experts are unanimous in their assessment that bulk of pollution-related deaths take place in low or middle income developing countries, "where policy makers are chiefly concerned with developing their economies, lifting people out of poverty and building basic infrastructure, and environmental regulations in those countries tend to be weaker, and industries lean on outdated technologies and dirtier fuels. Apart from aerial pollution, water pollution is also assuming serious dimensions. It becomes discernible from the UN statistics that 844 million people in the world – one in ten – do not have clean water, and around 289,000 children under five die every year from diarrhoeal diseases caused by poor water and sanitation and it amounts to almost 800 children per day, or one child every two minutes. Every minute a newborn baby dies from infection caused by a lack of clean water and an unclean environment.

Water pollution presents a grim situation because Planet earth is already faced with water scarcity and pollution of surface and groundwater resources make it more serious because water is a finite resource. According to UN data, about 42% of healthcare facilities in Africa lack access to safe water and nearly half of all people using dirty water live in sub-Saharan Africa, and one-fifth live in Southern Asia. At current rates of progress, everyone in low- and middle-income countries won't have clean water until 2039. Almost all rivers in India are contaminated because of unscientific manner of discharge of domestic, municipal and industrial wastewater into the rivers. According to 2007 study, discharge of untreated sewage is the single most significant factor of pollution of surface and groundwater in India. According to one estimate, between 1991 and 2008, the flow of untreated sewage has doubled from around 12, 000 liters per day to 24, 000 liters per day. There is yawning gap between generation and treatment of domestic wastewater in the country

Some experts opine that the problem is not only that India lacks sufficient treatment capacity but also that the sewage treatment plants that exist do not operate and are not maintained. The bulk of the government-owned sewage treatment plants remain closed most of the time due to improper design or poor maintenance or lack of reliable electricity supply to operate the plants, together with absentee employees and poor management. The wastewater generated in these areas normally percolates into the soil or evaporates. The uncollected wastes accumulate in the urban areas causing unhygienic conditions and releasing pollutants that leach into surface and groundwater. This contributes to deterioration of the water quality. There exists a close proximity between pollution and poverty and controlling pollution is definitely prone to help address many related problems, from climate change to malnutrition because inter- and intra-linkages cannot be ignored. Given the fact that the UN is hosting its first-ever conference on pollution December this year, one can hope that the world body will come out with some tangible solution to keep this new foe at bay.

— BK



# Perspectives on 2012 Doha Conference on Climate Change

Dr. Satyabrata Mishra\*

*[After tethering on the edge of a collapse, the United Nations Doha conference on climate change ended with an agreement, but it was an agreement of low ambitions. Avoidance of collapse is a poor measure of success and Doha revealed deep divisions on how to combat climate change, division which will surface when negotiations resume this year. In terms of progress towards real actions to tackle the climate change crisis, the Doha conference was another lost opportunity. For 2012, the annual United Nations climate conference was in Doha and concluded on 8 December with low levels of commitments by the developed countries in two crucial areas - emission cuts and provision of climate financing for developing countries.]*

The Doha meetings of the 18th Conference of Parties of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) - dubbed as COP-18 - can thus be described as a climate summit of “low ambition”.

The conference adopted many decisions. The main ones were on the Kyoto Protocol's second period in which some developed countries committed to cut their emissions of greenhouse gases for the period 2013-20; on remaining Bali Action Plan issues in the working group on long-term cooperative action, which has now terminated its work; on a new set of activities on assisting developing countries suffering from “loss and damage” resulting from climate change; and on the work programme of the Durban Platform, which will be the main arena of new negotiations starting in 2013. (For a discussion of previous conferences see Khor 2010a and Khor 2010b.)

Many delegates left the Doha conference quite relieved that they had reached agreement after days of wrangling over many issues and an anxious last 24 hours that were so contentious that most people felt a collapse was imminent. The relief was that the multilateral climate change regime had survived yet again, although there

were deep differences and distrust between developed and developing countries.

The conflict in paradigms between these two groups of countries was very evident throughout the two weeks of the Doha negotiations, and it was only papered over superficially in the final hours to avoid an open failure. But the differences could surface again when negotiations would resume. Avoidance of collapse is a poor measure of success. In terms of progress towards real actions to tackle the climate change crisis, the Doha conference was another lost opportunity.

The conference was held at the end of a year of record extreme weather events, including Hurricane Sandy in the United States (US) and heavy rainfall and flooding in many parts of Asia. Scientists are increasingly linking these extreme events to climate change. As the Doha conference started, news of the typhoon in the Philippines which caused over 600 deaths and made 3,00,000 homeless reminded the participants of the present reality of the climate crisis.

Before the conference began, a new report by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) reaffirmed that there was an enormous gap between what countries had pledged to do to curb emissions, and what is needed to be done if the average global temperature rise is to be restricted to 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels. The World Bank released its own report warning that the world is heading

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towards global warming by 4 degrees if countries do not do more.

Despite the clear signs that the climate crisis is already with us, and that greater disasters are just round-the-corner, the dictates of economic competition and commercial interests are unfortunately of higher priority, especially among developed countries, which explains their low ambition in emission reduction. They also broke their promises and commitments previously made to provide adequate funds and to transfer technology to developing countries. The prospects for effective actions are thus rather gloomy, post-Doha.

### **Kyoto Protocol's Second Period**

The most important result in Doha was the formal adoption of the Kyoto Protocol's second period (2013 to 2020) to follow immediately after the first period expired on 31 December. However, the elements in the agreement are weak. With original members Canada, Russia, Japan and New Zealand having decided to leave the Kyoto Protocol (in the case of Canada) or to remain but not to participate in a second period, only the European Union (EU) and other European countries, Australia, and a few other countries (totaling 35 developed countries and countries in transition) are left to make legally binding commitments in the second period.

Also, with regard to the emission cuts, these Annexure-I countries agreed to commit themselves to add up to only an 18% reduction by 2020 from the 1990 level, compared to the 25-40% required to restrict global temperature rise to 2 degrees Celsius. The countries in the main submitted the low end of the range of the pledges they had made in the Copenhagen (2009) and Cancun (2010) climate conferences as their Kyoto second period commitments, which was a disappointment, although expected and this was a major component of the overall "low ambition" status of the Doha conference.

A saving factor in the Kyoto Protocol decision is the "ambition mechanism" put in by developing countries, that the countries will "revisit" their original target and increase their commitments by 2014 in line with the aggregate 25-40% goal.

It was this provision that persuaded the developing countries to go along with the decision, as otherwise they gave notice that they found the draft with the low numbers on emission reduction un-acceptable. Of course, it remained to be seen if the 2014 review of commitments resulted in higher figures.

There were at least two other points that the developing countries had to fight for in the Kyoto Protocol decision. First, the decision severely limited the amount of credits or surplus allowances that can be used during the second period. These credits were accumulated in the Kyoto Protocol's first period by countries that cut their emissions by more than the targeted level. According to the decision, these countries cannot use or trade most of the surplus allowances as a means to avoid future emission cuts. The most important country affected is Russia, and in the final plenary session it strongly objected to the way the president of the conference, Abdullah Bin Hamad al-Atti-yah of Qatar, bulldozed through the Kyoto Protocol decision even though three countries (including Russia) tried to raise objections to this decision.

Second, the developing countries were adamant that Annexure-I countries that are not party to the Kyoto Protocol or have decided not to participate in the second period should not be allowed to make use of the protocol's "flexibility mechanisms" that enabled countries to offset their domestic emission reduction commitments by paying other countries to do the mitigation on their behalf, such as through the Clean Development Mechanism. Some developed countries wanted this flexible mechanism to be open to these parties.

In the draft decision floated on the eve of the closure, the Kyoto Protocol draft decision did not contain many of the demands of developing countries. A determined effort by these countries, including a like-minded group, to make their grievances known to the ministers coordinating the issue, yielded a result that was just about acceptable to them.

### **No Commitment on Finance**

A major criticism of the Doha decisions is the very unsatisfactory results on the issue of financial resources for developing countries to enable them to take climate actions. In Cancun in 2010, the Conference of Parties decided that developed countries would mobilise climate finance of \$100 billion a year for developing countries, starting by 2020. It also agreed that \$30 billion of “fast start” finance would be provided in 2010-12.

The fast-start period ended in 2012. There is a gap between 2013 and 2020, with no commitment for that period. The G-77 and China, representing all developing countries, made a demand that this gap be filled up, with a benchmark of \$60 billion by 2015. However, at Doha, the developed countries were in no mood to give any numbers nor even any qualitative commitment. The decision on finance at Doha only “encourages” developed countries to provide at least as much as they had in the 2010-12 period. This “encouragement” is thus for only \$10 billion a year in aggregate, which is a climb-down from the previous fast-start period in which the annual \$10 billion was at least a commitment. Moreover, there is no roadmap of a progressive increase towards the \$100 billion target in 2020.

The lack of a credible finance commitment led to an outcry by developing countries on the plenary floor. The absence of a commitment on funding leaves a major gap in the chain of undertakings and actions in the climate regime. Under the UNFCCC, developed countries made a commitment to finance the incremental costs of mitigation actions by developing countries, the full cost of preparing national communications (reports on emissions and actions by countries) and to help meet the costs of adaptation.

Estimates by UN agencies and other international organisations show that the mitigation and adaptation costs by developing countries are in the order of many hundreds of billions of dollars, or even exceed a trillion dollars a year. Thus, even the \$100 billion goal for 2020 is an underestimate, while the lack of any clear commitment or even target for the 2013-20

period became a major factor for the mood of despondency among developing countries at the close of the Doha conference.

### **Long-term Cooperative Action**

The Doha conference also adopted a set of decisions under its Ad Hoc Working Group on Long-term Cooperative Action (AWG-LCA), which was formed to negotiate on the Bali Action Plan adopted in December 2007. Before and at Doha, the developed countries were insisting, based on a report at the end of the previous conference of the parties in Durban in December 2011 that there were only a few outstanding issues left to be decided on. The controversial report had been prepared by the then chair of the AWG-LCA, Dan Reifsnyder of the US “on his own responsibility” (meaning that it had not been approved by the members of the AWG-LCA).

But many developing countries had considered the report as one-sided as it had ignored their views on several key issues and had also omitted several issues altogether. Before and at Doha, a like-minded group of 25-30 developing countries (including India, China, the Philippines, Malaysia, Pakistan, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Mali, Democratic Republic of Congo, Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Venezuela, Nicaragua, Cuba) proposed two major things: that several outstanding issues of interest to them that were unresolved since the launch of the Bali Action Plan in 2007, should be decided on and that other issues be transferred together with their contexts and frameworks to other bodies of the UNFCCC. Only then could there be a successful conclusion of the work of the working group.

The chair of the working group, Aysar Tayeb of Saudi Arabia, produced a succession of drafts that were heatedly debated at Doha, as the developed countries were adamant that he should not produce texts and developing countries were strongly in favour of them. In the end, the developing countries were satisfied with several of the decisions, including specific issues or paragraphs, including on equity in the context of long-term global mitigation targets, the need to continue discussions on unilateral trade measures

taken on the grounds of climate change, and the need for technology assessment.

On the contentious issue of intellectual property and technology transfer, developed countries led by the US, were very adamant in rejecting any text on intellectual property, even a mere mention of this term. They even rejected any mention of the concept of access by developing countries to affordable technology. The final draft contains only a reference to a report of the UNFCCC's technology executive committee, which itself has a reference to barriers to technology transfer, including the possibility of discussing intellectual property rights based on evidence and on a case-by-case basis. This debate on technology transfer shows that the developed countries, particularly the us, do not intend to fulfill their commitments to technology transfer to developing countries on concessional terms.

Even though the decisions on these issues were extremely weak, the US registered its disagreement or reservations on many of them after the adoption of the text in the final plenary, giving a foretaste of how it will continue to object to future discussions on these issues.

### **Loss and Damage**

A positive decision made in Doha was to prepare by next year's conference to set up an "international mechanism" to help developing countries deal with loss and damage caused by climate change. So far, loss and damage suffered by developing countries as a result of the effects of climate change, such as increased incidence and level of strength of storms, hurricanes, heavy rainfall, flooding and drought, have been largely excluded from the scope of the adaptation issue in the UNFCCC. They are thus not included in the discussions for financing under the convention.

At Doha, the developing countries fought hard to get greater recognition and more detailed elaboration of the issue, and to affirm that loss and damage would be eligible for financing under the convention. Several developed countries, particularly the us were resistant to elements of

the concept, particularly any link to the notion of liability by countries responsible for a significant proportion of the stock of emissions in the atmosphere.

It was thus a considerable advance for developing countries that there was an agreed decision on loss and damage, with a preamble "highlighting the important and fundamental role of the Convention in addressing loss and damage associated with climate change impacts", and an operational decision acknowledging the need to enhance finance and technology for actions. The decision includes the establishment at the next conference of "institutional arrangements, such as an international mechanism" to address loss and damage in developing countries that are particularly vulnerable. Meanwhile, the secretariat has been asked to carry out interim activities, including conduct of an expert meeting and preparation of technical papers on non-economic issues and gaps in existing institutional arrangements on this issue.

### **Battles on the Durban Platform**

The Doha conference also adopted a work plan for the new working group on the Durban Platform, which is the new negotiating process launched at the 2011 climate conference. The negotiations are targeted to end in 2015 with a "protocol or another legal instrument or an agreed outcome with legal force under the Convention, applicable to all Parties", and which would take effect from 2020.

There were major fights in Doha over the decision on the work plan, which continued the battles that had begun in Durban itself during the plenary session that launched the platform and that had continued through two sessions in Bonn and Bangkok during 2012. Many developing countries, led by a like-minded group, insisted but mention be made in the Doha decision that the Durban Platform will operate on the basis of equity and common but differentiated responsibilities (CBDR).

They proposed that the Doha decision on Durban Platform refer to the Rio-plus 20 summit's outcomes that a section on climate changes

recalled that “the UNFCCC provides that parties should protect the climate system ... on the basis of equity and in accordance with their common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities.”

However, the developed countries were adamant in rejecting this reference to the Rio-plus 20 climate texts. They even refused to accept a compromise weak reference to merely “taking note” of the Rio-plus 20 outcomes without any mention of the climate section, let alone the terms equity and common but differentiated responsibilities. What was eventually placed in the text, as proposed by Uganda and supported by China, was a reference that the Durban Platform’s work will be “guided by the principles of the Convention”.

This was a small gain because in Durban the decision only referred to the fact that the Durban Platform’s outcome would be “under the Convention” without mentioning the key word “principles”. The understanding of the developing countries is that equity and CBDR are among the fundamental principles of the UNFCCC. Even then, the US in the final plenary placed a reservation that reference to “guided by the principles of the Convention” has no effect on the mandate for the negotiations agreed to in Durban, and that the provision cannot and will not be the basis upon which the US will engage in the work of the Durban Platform group.

Another fight at Doha was over whether there remains a difference in the nature of mitigation obligations between developed and developing countries in the outcome of the new Durban Platform. In the last plenary session on the Durban Platform, India proposed to amend the text on ways of defining and reflecting the “undertakings” of the parties to “commitments and actions” (instead of the single term undertakings). To observers, it was clear that the Indian proposal was referring to the understanding in the UNFCCC and in previous negotiations (including under the Bali Action Plan) that there is a difference between the more binding commitments of developed countries, and

the voluntary actions of developing countries, supported by finance and technology.

The Indian proposal was supported by several developing countries, including China and Argentina. However, the US strongly rejected the wordings “commitments and actions”, stating that this was language used in the Bali Action Plan but that the Durban Platform was not the Bali Action Plan, which elicited a response from China that the Bali Action Plan was not “poison” and that the title of the Durban Platform decision referred to “enhanced action” and it could thus not understand why the word “actions” could not be used. In the end, it was agreed that the term “undertakings” be amended to “ways of reflecting enhanced action”.

This reveals how much lacking in the spirit of international cooperation the US and some other developed countries have become. They are no longer willing to assist the developing countries, and, incredibly are even objecting to the principles of the UNFCCC being applied to negotiations to set up a new agreement that will be under the convention.

More than anything else, this shows the tragic paradox of the Doha conference. It succeeded in adopting many decisions and kept the functioning of the multilateral regime alive, but the actual substance of actions to save the planet from climate change was absent, as was a genuine commitment to support the developing countries.

### **The Process in Doha**

On the process in Doha, a positive feature was that the developing countries were more united and coordinated than in previous COPs, often speaking with one voice on some critical matters including loss and damage, finance and the Kyoto Protocol. There was also the emergence in this COP of a group self-designated as “like-minded developing countries”, which operated on several negotiating fronts.

The developing countries found the management of the COP to be more transparent and participatory because of the connection between the negotiators’ process (in contact groups and

their “informal” spin-off groups) with the ministerial process in which a few ministers or high-level officials were requested by the presidency of the COP (the host country Qatar) to hold consultations to resolve outstanding issues that could not be settled by the negotiators.

In the final official plenary session, the president of the COP gavelled through all the decisions of the working groups and the COP one by one in quick succession. There was a serious objection by Russia, on the issue of carry-over of the surplus allowances, in the Kyoto Protocol decision, but this was overruled by the president

of the COP. There thus remains the uncomfortable issue of the procedure as to how formal decisions are adopted at the final moments of COPs. Since the Copenhagen COP in 2009, each conference has had its own way of adopting decisions, and each of these have been controversial.

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# The Nudge Theory and Choice Architects

Prof. Mandira Dutta\*

**R**ichard H Thaler, economist and professor at the University of Chicago Booth School of business was awarded the Economics Nobel Prize on 9th October 2017. Thaler is also considered as the founding member of behavioural economics. Known for his book “Nudge” co-authored by Cass Sunstein, he has been into the spotlight for his recent book- “Misbehaving- the making of behavioural economics” which is getting him much acclaim.

Prof. Richard Thaler in one of his lectures mentioned four economists who had initiated the concept of behavioural economics much ahead of their time. Adam Smith, as he quoted, explained the concept with relation to overconfidence, aversion and self-control of individuals, whom Thaler refers to as agents. Later, Prof. J.M. Keynes observed that day-to-day fluctuations in the profit level in 1981 could be an outcome of behavioural economics.

In 1906, Pareto used the psychology of the individuals in explaining his concept of welfare economics. Finally, Thaler spoke about Milton Friedman and his theory of “As If...” It is known that some people are smarter and some are slightly less smart than the others. Bounded rationality as

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an assumption to most of the theories in the field of Economics is an error. Human behaviour, in advance cannot be made predictable.

To begin with Thaler’s Nudge Theory, it is inevitable to understand behavioural economics. Economics, as a discipline relates to the activities of macroeconomic variables in a particular society, country and corporations along with microeconomic variables of individuals and firms who become the rational agents aiming at maximizing utility, welfare and profit margins. Behavioural economics, as a branch of economics, is defined as the psychological branch of study focusing on the insights of human beings which undertakes policy decisions.

Prof. Thaler’s Nudge theory is based on the behaviour of the individuals’ (econs as he addresses them) studies how decision-making is subjected to irrationality and deviates from rational behaviour in the real world, incorporating it into economic modelling. His analysis developed a tie between human psychology and economics, forming a core in the field of behavioural economics.

Thaler’s theory has stressed on three factors for varied and unconfirmed human traits resulting in disparity between individual decision making and market decision making.

- Bounded/ Limited Rationality due to cognitive limitations- Explains how financial decisions are simplified at the human intellectual level. This results in minute accounts made at a psychological level focusing only on the narrow gains made at the micro level than focusing on the overall impact.
- “Econs”/Agents with social preferences – social preferences may relate to consumer-producer fairness deals. For the benefit of the consumer, big firms may restrict from raising their price levels in the periods of high demand. e. g., a shopkeeper selling umbrellas may be reluctant to raise the price of his commodity during the rainy season just to be fair and satisfy his conscience.
- Lack of self-control: Econ’s psychiatric trait- capitulating short term temptations regarded as an important factor, he explains why the present standard of living is restricted to enable a plan for a secured old age.

This branch of the study suggests solutions to certain hurdles which come in the way. Firstly, it is identified that there could be a stigma in the traditional theory. Human beings find it difficult to change their pattern of thoughts. Behavioural economics can combine fundamental principles with this new branch of science to bring about a change in the perspective of the individuals. Secondly, the field requires a robust, real world tested framework for crisp decision-making.

While dealing with human beings, unrealistic assumptions like controlled or known variables for the analysis cannot be considered. The real world is subjected to multiple biases. Most market decisions are based on the rational aspects of decision-making. Behavioural patterns can incorporate real life contexts for their analysis based on non-rationality or limited rationality quotient. Thirdly, this field is criticized stating that it needs help from other sciences in managing and planning procedures.

As an answer to this, it can be debated that de-biasing strategies are adopted in this particular field of economics, e.g., the existence of an invisible hand wave can execute better results in understanding

the working of the economy. Many corporate agencies have adopted “Devil’s advocate” as their strategy where an employee is deployed the job of counter narrative to the decisions made by the others. This enhances the Performa and takes it to an enriched level.

### ***Behaviour Analysis and the Essential ‘Nudge’***

Nudge theory, as the quintessential part of behavioural study, undertaken by the Nobel Laureate Richard. H. Thaler makes a simple and smart disclosure.

Question: Can a slightest change/nudge cause people to make better decisions?

Thaler answers this question in three dimensions-

- People (the agents in the economy who are referred to as econs) tend to buy more than they always need. It is difficult to curb that temptation to not buy a commodity when the board outside a shop reads- “Sale” or “Buy one and get one free”
- Default setting operations are simple nudges in the economy. An automatic sign up for any program instead of options given can benefit the individuals.
- Nudge can also be a bet on goals. This factor may restrict a nudge as once the goal is achieved, the agents might want to quit the game.

The Nudge theory could make an analysis at a psychological level. People who are the economic agents do not act rationally; in fact, they are seen to be acting irrationally but in predictable ways. As earlier researches suggest, this predictability can be identified and rectified to avoid further mistakes and encouraging the agents to make better choices in the future. Daniel Koheman has also been instrumental in forming this theory along with Prof. Thaler. They have envisaged the concept of Behavioural Nudge which focuses on how to get an individual do something with restrained freedom or a slight change in the financial incentives.

There could be nudges to make the agent do something like saving money with new schemes or getting into a healthier life pattern with monitored diet and regular exercising. On the other hand, it could even stop/refrain the individual from doing

something like wasting money, drink and drive or even basic mannerisms like non-littering. In such cases nudges could be activated boosting self-control, being mindful towards the directive desired behaviour. Like, for saving money for the future mandatory deductions could be made along with simplified decision payment process.

On the contrary, ban on junk food or raising the price level of such commodities or even placing them on a higher rack at the supermarkets could reduce the intake. Smart lunch rooms make-over in Cornell University (2013) shows a 13% rise in

healthy food habits of the students. In case of littering, paying fines, paying people for using dustbins or placing green foot print on the ground pointing the way to the nearest garbage bin could bring down the percentage of garbage spilling.

Thaler's contribution to the behavioural theory definitely adds a nudge of the common people or to be precise the choice architects. And, with the support of the government policies there can be a ray of hope that it could extend itself to the common man rather than being constrained to the educational campuses alone.



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## Domestic Violence against Women

Dr. C. Jeya Paul\*

*[Social conventions play an important role in the continuance of the phenomenon of child prostitution. These include child marriages, polygamy, dowry and social stigma against single, unwed, divorced women and girls who have been sexually abused (Trade in Human Misery, 1998). Children, especially young girls, in these circumstances are especially vulnerable to the prostitution racket.]*

There have been instances of girls being driven into the sex trade following traumatic sexual experiences during childhood, including rape. If, in the case of Shahida of Kozhikode, it was the violence inflicted by her father's younger brother followed by molestation by her cousin and men rape (*The Hindustan Times*, 2 October 1998), Lakshmi's tale of woe began when she was raped by her step father at age 8 and her further sexual exploitation for food when she left home (Uniyal, 1998). Prostitution thus becomes a viable option for children who have been abandoned, for those from disrupted families and for those who are financially supporting their families.

### The family

Women, because their life and dignity are at stake, have emerged as the most significant agents

of change in the struggle against gender-based violence. While women's organizations have played a critical pole (see section on civil society), the collective strength and courage of individual women has been notable in fighting many forms of violence. Poor and often illiterate, these women have managed to mobilize hundreds of other women, raised resources, designed strategies and forced policy-makers to revise laws and policies.

A systematic effort has to be made to listen to the voices of grassroots women and survivors of domestic violence, and to incorporate solutions they have to offer. Their perspectives will provide valuable lessons in making programmes and services effective and targeted to their needs. Women need to be empowered through education, employment opportunities, legal literacy, and right to inheritance.

Human rights education and information regarding domestic violence should be provided to them because this is a matter of their absolute rights.

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Integrated supportive services, legal intervention and redress should be made available in situations of domestic violence. Assistance to help women rebuild and recover their lives after violence should be part of the intervention strategy, including counselling, relocation, credit support, and employment. Consistent support for women must be provided by all relevant sectors - the criminal justice system, health, welfare, and the private sector.

Support must also be available to women via informal networks such as family, friends, neighbours, and local community groups. Community groups and government institutions should be trained to identify women, men, adolescent boys and girls, and children at risk of domestic violence, and to refer them to confidential and accessible services. Where such services are not available, communities must be helped to establish local culturally appropriate mechanisms to support women.

Children need to be identified as victims of domestic violence, and their safety has to be ensured. This requires ensuring the safety of their mothers and making childcare facilities available to women in shelters. Appropriate programmes should be developed by the community and the state to assist children to recover from the violence and abuse they have suffered and/or witnessed.

### **Domestic Violence**

Physical violence as well as explicit forms of aggression are used by the more powerful in the household as methods to ensure obedience of the less powerful and therefore related to power dynamics in a household. At every stage in the life cycle, the female body is both the objects of desire and of control (Thapan, 1997).

Domestic violence includes not only inter-spousal violence, but also violence perpetrated by other family members. Generally, an important part of the power relationship between spouses and their families relates to dowry and its ramifications (Karlekar, 1995).

There is a wide societal tolerance for wife-abuse, which is very often even considered justifiable under certain circumstance: Disputes over dowries, a wife's sexual infidelities, her neglect of household duties, and her disobedience of her husband's dictates are all considered legitimate causes for wife-beating. It is only when the torture becomes unbearable or death appeared imminent that most women appeared willing to speak out (Karlekar, 1995).

Glass defines domestic violence as "anything that is experienced as fearful, controlling and threatening when used by those with power (invariably men) against those without power (mainly women and children)" (Ravindran, 1991).

Domestic violence includes, harassment, maltreatment, brutality or cruelty and even the threat of assault - intimidation. It includes physical injury, as well as "willfully or knowingly placing or attempting to place a spouse in fear of injury and compelling the spouse by force or threat to engage in any conduct or act, sexual or otherwise, from which the spouse has a right to abstain". Confining or detaining the spouse against one's will or damaging property are also considered as acts of violence (BediK, 1999).

### **Violence against Women**

Violence against women is the most disturbing consequence of cultures which tolerates unequal relations between the sexes. In launching his 2008 campaign, UNiTE to End Violence against Women, UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon observed that "at least one out of every three women is likely to be beaten, coerced into sex or otherwise abused in her lifetime."

Examples of appalling gender-based violence extend beyond the smokescreen of poverty and war. None is more horrifying than the practice of sex-selective abortion and female infanticide, associated particularly with China and India.

## **Sexual Harassment at Work**

According to Mac Kinnons (1979), sexual harassment of working women is primarily a problem faced by women while men rarely face this problem and therefore it should be considered a form of sex discrimination (Sikri, 1999: 128).

### ***Sexual harassment as defined by the court stipulates:***

- “Such unwelcome sexually determined behaviour (whether directly or by implication) as physical contact and advances,
- A demand or request for sexual favours, sexually coloured remarks,
- Showing pornography and any other unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of sexual nature”. Burt (1980) says “unwanted sexual overtures”, has the virtue of parsimony but necessarily concerns intentions and motivation, not just overt behaviour. Defining sexual harassment as unwanted sexual overtures has the same problem inherent in defining rape as unwanted sexual relations. In practice, the woman has to prove that the sexual relations or the sexual overtures were unwanted (Sikri, 1999: 128). The male colleague will go out of the way to prove that the woman is of loose character (Ibid. 40).
- According to Quinn (1977), defining sexual harassment means setting boundaries on the term and differentiating sexual harassment from expressions of sexual interest. Not all expressions of sexuality in the workplace could possibly be called sexual harassment.

Men and women do meet, dating partners and future spouses at work. Some people may even enjoy sexual jokes and flirting that can be ego-enhancing and enrich their fantasy life.

### **Physical abuse**

A growing body of research studies confirms the prevalence of physical violence in all parts of

the globe, including the estimates of 20 to 50 per cent of women from country to country who have experienced domestic violence. Statistics are grim no matter where in the world one looks. Data from industrialized and developing countries as well as from transitional countries provide an overview of the global problem. There are few comparable statistics on psychological violence, sexual abuse, and murder of women at the hands of intimate partners and other family members. As already mentioned, physical violence is usually accompanied by psychological abuse, and in many cases by sexual assault.

### **Sexual abuse and rape in intimate relationships**

Sexual abuse and rape by an intimate partner is not considered a crime in most countries, and women in many societies do not consider forced sex as rape if they are married to, or cohabiting with, the perpetrator. The assumption is that once a woman enters into a contract of marriage, the husband has the right to unlimited sexual access to his wife. Surveys in many countries reveal that approximately 10 to 15 per cent of women report being forced to have sex with their intimate partner.

Some countries have begun to legislate against marital rape. These include Australia, Austria, Barbados, Canada, Cyprus, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Mexico, Namibia, New Zealand, Norway, the Philippines, Poland, Russia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Trinidad and Tobago, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Although provision of such laws represents considerable progress, it is often difficult for a woman to press charges because of the evidential rules concerning the crime.

### **Psychological and emotional abuse**

Because psychological violence is harder to capture in quantitative studies, a full picture of the deeper and more insidious levels of violence defies quantification. Victim-survivors report that

ongoing psychological violence - emotional torture and living under terror - is often more unbearable than the physical brutality, with mental stress leading to a high incidence of suicide and suicide attempts.

A close correlation between domestic violence and suicide has been established based on studies in the United States, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Peru, India, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. Suicide is 12 times as likely to have been attempted by a woman who has been abused than by one who has not. In the United States, as many as 35 to 40 percent of battered women attempt suicide.

### **Conclusions**

All studies on the costs of violence against women have the same goal and use the same accounting model. Differences arise in the details of how the research is carried out and the jurisdiction to which it applies, rather than the questions asked or approach taken. Although each research project has attempted to reach the same challenging goal, the data resources available to them vary widely. This, more than anything, determines the differences in how researchers have approached the techniques of the common goal of estimating a nation's costs of violence against women.

The costs of violence against women are enormous. Economic development is limited as long as violence against women exists. All of the economic costing literature indicates that the whole of society pays for the costs of not addressing this pressing social concern. The sooner that countries bring in effective policies and programs to end violence against women, the sooner they will begin to reduce the economic cost of that violence to their society and benefit in the long run.

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# Changing Dynamics of Development in Arunachal Pradesh

Dr. Prasanta K. Nayak\*

*[Development has been a key-term-discussion these days. India has been on track to reorient its development policy. The Northeast India is geo-strategically assessed to link East and Southeast Asia through cross border trade. Strategically sharing its border to three of the Southeast Asian countries, Arunachal Pradesh has proved its potential as a hub to Look East Policy. In response to development-drive and neo-liberal market dynamism various reforms are being brought in by the state to boost its economy-development. Being an abode to distinct tribal ethnicity and cultural heterogeneity it has hardly kept itself insular to contours of globalisation, deterritorialisation and neo-liberal economy. It has modified its economic and trade policies inviting both domestic and foreign investors to invest their capital on agro-based, ethnic textile and cottage industries, adventure tourism, and hydro-power projects. Intra-state linking Trans-Arunachal Highway expected to connect Stilwell Road could suffice export-import delivery mechanism to the advantage of India, China and other South East Asian countries. This paper attempts to link Arunachal with the changing dynamics of ongoing development process.]*

**D**evelopment has been a key-term-discussion these days. Seekers introspect, calibrate and dissect it to the resonance of their strength, capacity and thought. They realise within it a multi-dimensional 'one-world' mechanism nullifying strategic barriers. Challenges and fissures go hand in glove with each other. Globalisation stands next door. India has been garrisoning its approaches to reorient the crux of development policy. Its recent economic growth with thrust on regional growth trajectories to be steered under *Niti Aayog* provides avenues for the national and transnational economic dynamics to have their brunt in the regional 'identity economics'.

Identity of individuals in terms of caste, religion, ethnicity, gender and language has got a significant bearing on the economic exchanges taking place in India (Harriss-White: 2005) and in the northeast, none but ethnicity becomes the key. Globalisation as well as India's high 'growth driven economy' vision points to a decimating income inequality and intensifying social and

political exclusion. Quite wobbly is the North-East India's stance in this regard seeking a shift from the 'growth driven vision' of development to a more 'inclusive' one.

In a kind of 'cosmetic' regional federal order in which the Centre retains sufficient control to achieve its strategic and developmental objectives (Baruah: 2004), the state is left with little to contribute towards the trajectories of development. But in the global politics of building an alternative institutional structure of global governance, based on democratic principles of political equality, social justice, cultural diversity and non-violence, and ecological principles of sustainability and maintaining biodiversity (Sheth et al, 2002: 87-125), the state too is a potential stake-holder to acquire the centrality in the inclusive development paradigm.

## Neoliberal Economy Dynamics

The twentieth century world experiences the failures of the liberal market ideology during the inter-war period, doctrine of welfare state in the post-Second World War era, the Keynesian policy of state intervention during the 1950s and

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the 1960s, and the emergence of a neo-liberal paradigm in the 1970s with market and state intervention simultaneously operating. Neo-classical economists like Walras, Jevons and Menger slate the theory of classical liberalism in the 1870s rationalising and maximising individual-utility on the basis of demand and supply.<sup>1</sup>

The state seen as a non-coercive factor here assumes importance in the demand-supply mechanism of public goods and services regulating the market trends. Liberty here rests on a corresponding act of control to be provided by the state (Hobhouse: 1911).

The neo-liberalism emerges as an important doctrine in the later phase of capitalism. Foucault's analysis of neo-liberalism (Foucault, 1991: 87-104) reinforces the principles of market whereby policies get boosted to create entrepreneurship to be rewarded best if provided autonomy and safety by the state. It reinforces the idea of individual rationality of liberalism. It also argues in favour of competition as the basis of market mechanism in achieving equilibrium.

Under neo-liberalism, state actively constructs the market and encourages social engineering. Control of state is more devolved and flexible. The LPG (liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation) model of development advocated by the developed nations is contemplated to be a relief-centre for the developing ones (Grugel, 2008: 502-503).

Given the scope of conjugality between development and neo-liberalism, India embraced the latter in the nineties and brought necessary changes. The net outcome was the Look East Policy of 1991 by the then Prime Minister P. V. Narasimha Rao towards its Southeast Asia for cross-border trade. Apart from being an active SAARC nation, India became a member of the MGC (Mekong-Ganga Cooperation) in 2000; BIMSTEC (Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Co-operation) in 1997; a partner in ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations); and subsequently a member of East Asia Summit in 2005.

On 26 August 2007, ASEAN stated to complete all its free trade agreements with India along with China, Japan, South Korea, Australia and New Zealand by 2013, in line with the establishment of the ASEAN Economic Community by 2015 (Channel News Asia: August 2007).

Northeast India is geo-strategically assessed as a linchpin between East and Southeast Asia through cross border market corridor. People of the region foresee their region emerge peaceful, strong, confident, and ready to engage with global economy by 2020. They want to expel poverty and illiteracy forever, maximizing self-governance, participatory planning, augmenting infrastructure, rural development and development of sectors with comparative advantage call for significant expansion of capacity of the people and institutions both in the government and private sectors (Chandran et al, 2011: 163-165).

The strategic importance of Arunachal Pradesh sharing its international border to three Asian neighbours- Myanmar, China and Bhutan is multiple times greater than that of any other state of the Indian Union to prove its potential as a hub to Look East Policy. It is such a backdrop of changing dynamics that this paper is focused on.

### **Response Syndrome**

Arunachal Pradesh, despite being predominantly a tribal state of around 26 major tribes and 110 sub-tribes with unique indigenous customs, practices and culture, is development-friendly and has greatly borne the brunt of 'ethno-convergent-characteristics' of globalisation. "The people of Arunachal Pradesh are fast in learning, adaptable to change, open in their outlook and technology-friendly" (*Arunachal Times*: 30 November 2013). Largest in the Northeast, the state, uniquely situated in a crux zone between the Himalayan and Indo-Burmese regions, is a cradle to all flowering plants, containing nearly 50% of the total flowering plant species (about 5000 of angiosperm) in India (*Arunachal Times*: 2 August 2013) and is recognized as one of the 25 mega-biodiversity hotspots of the world.

Each tribe with its distinct language, social customs and dress codes has continued to live as an identifiable ethnic entity within its social boundary. Racially, linguistically and culturally they seem to be intertwined with its Southeast Asian neighbours.

The dynamism in Arunachalee society is incredibly outstanding. Despite being an abode to 82% evergreen forests, the state has never kept itself insular to both globalisation and neo-liberal economy. It has proved itself to be a hub to India's Look East Policy with its geography opening up opportunity and the doorway to South East Asia.

Contextualising the importance of Northeast and Arunachal Pradesh, former President Pranab Mukherjee reiterated, "The North East of India provides a natural bridge between us and South East Asia... Considering the huge pool of natural resources and the quality of its human resources, the North East of India has the potential of being an important investment destination and a centre for trade and business... And Arunachal Pradesh since has common borders with three countries, is a core stakeholder in country's 'Look East' foreign policy which must receive our utmost attention" (*Arunachal Times*: 30 November 2013).

The state with about 65% of tribal population is moving rapidly towards a market economy, breaking down the traditional mechanism of barter system and community ownership of income resources. With a neo-liberal market economy, there has been a striking introduction of vertical demarcation or social class into an already horizontally demarcated tribal society. In response to development-drive and neo-liberal market dynamism, various reforms are being brought in by the state to boost its economy-development.

It has also come up with initiatives to facilitate the border trade and has enlisted Bletting (Namtsering), Bongkhar and Dongshengmang of Tawang district in Indo-Bhutan border, Pangsau Pass (Nampong) in Changlang district of Indo-

Myanmar border, Kibithoo of Anjaw district, Bumla and Kenzamani (Zemithang) of Tawang district, Gelling (Kepangla Pass) of Upper Siang district, Mechuka (Lolla pass) and Monigong (Dumla pass) of West Siang district in Indo-China border as possible trading centres. The motion to develop infrastructure for Indo-Bhutan and Indo-Myanmar border trade is also underway.

The proposal for conversion of the present Stilwell road into Trans-Arunachal Highway under Prime Minister's package announced on January 31, 2008 at Itanagar connecting all Southeast Asian countries is also in offing. The state might experience a quantum jump in terms of gaining infrastructure on border trade to showcase its product-variants in Asian market (*Centrally Sponsored Schemes*, Department of Trade and Commerce, Government of Arunachal Pradesh).

The state government works on such line to operationalise another route which extends about 500 kilometers, connecting Ledo with Kunming in Yunnan province of China through Pangsau Pass and Myitkyina to establish border trade with China and Myanmar respectively (Alam, 2002:164-165; *Arunachal Times*: 8 November 2013). "Interconnections between western China and northeastern India are going not only to benefit the two countries, but also to prove conducive to the establishment of the BCIM Economic Corridor. It can help shape a critical economic circle to provide more vigour and dynamism to Asia and the whole world" (*Ibid*).

The 'Act East' and 'Make in India' policies of the Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi have accelerated the process of India-Southeast Asia ties further. It is believed that the Modi-Xi chemistry after their meet at the BRICS summit in Brazil in July 2014 and Xi Jinping's visit to India in September 2014 will go a long way strengthening bilateral relations. The three-nation visit of the Indian Prime Minister to China, Mongolia (first ever) and South Korea from 14-19th of May, 2015 and winding up with a Deal worth \$ 22 billion with China, \$ 10 billion with CEOs of Hyundai and Samsung in South Korea

and reinforcing the spiritual bond through Buddhism in Mongolia are certainly going to yield dividends for 'Make in India' in the wake of 'Act East' Policy.

The other aspect is that trade between India and China is heavily skewed in the latter's favour, for India exports mostly commodities like iron ore, and China exports value-added manufactured goods; the net trade is almost \$40 billion in China's favour, and it needs to be reversed. It is not clear how it would work, unless India ends up erecting trade barriers to prevent dumping; or, more positively, India starts building highly-engineered, innovative products that the Chinese need.

The increasing ease of communication and travel, combined with the natural charms of the place has led to a sharp increase in tourists and visitors. Apart from its 400-year-old Tawang Monastery being considered a significant Himalayan zone in global tourism map, its hotspots for adventure sports like trekking, hiking, surfing, para-gliding and car-rallying along with regular hosting of festivals like 'Buddha Mahatsova' and 'Siang Festival' have multiplied manifold the scopes of tourists' inflow.

Tourism has benefited the state and boosted its economy, widening employment opportunities. The state has declared tourism as an industry and emphasised to explore its cultural, adventure and ecotourism potentiality. It is believed cross-country tourism can promote Indo-Asian trade through Arunachal.

Arunachal Pradesh enters into global networks of culture when eighteen artists and designers from across the world – Maya Lin, Monica Castiglioni, Manolo Blahnik and Dayanita Singh, among others – donated their works for an auction to support conservation and development of ecotourism in the state (Nayak, 2011: 264).

The recent developments like Ziro of the Lower Subansiri district being tentatively listed for world heritage site (WHS) by UNESCO along with Thembang under West Kameng district; marketing of state's rich potential in adventure

and cultural tourism in the International Tourism Bourse (ITB) at Berlin from March 5-9, 2014; and showcasing its splendid tourism potential in the Incredible India pavilion in the 35th World Tourism Market (WTM) held at London from November 3-6, 2014, are going to posit Arunachal Pradesh as a hub to world tourism.

The traditional knowledge on *Ayurveda*, *Siddha* or *Unani* medicine is the treasure acquired by people by experience. If harnessed properly, they can be of great importance world-wide. It is being proved so. The state is endowed with wide variety of Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFP) comprising about 73 species of bamboos, 18 species of canes, about 570 species of orchids, about 450 species of medicinal and aromatic plants, toko plant (*Livistona jenkinsiana*) etc. The recorded forest cover of the state is 67,410/ 83, 743 sq. km, which constitutes 80.50% geographical area of the state. The bamboo bearing area in the forests of the state is 16, 083 sq. km (31% area of total recorded forest area of state) (*Arunachal Times*: 2 August 2014).

The *Mishmi teeta* botanically known as *Coptis teeta*, is now mentioned in the *Red Data Book* of Indian plants due to its endangered status. Aconite, a poison as well as compound for medicine has become a rare commodity while *Taxus baccata*, a well-known tree yielding cancer treatment drug, is facing the danger of extinction due to over-exploitation by outside traders and high-priced export. Indian Sandalwood (*Santalum album*) widely considered a 'gold wood' has found its mooring in its hilly terrains of East Siang district and plain highlands of Assam-Arunachal boundary areas which is expected to push the state to undergo an economic revolution in near future (*Ibid*).

State's new industrial policy of 2001 and its subsequent protective amendments have boosted local entrepreneurs to open up industries with local resources. Agro-based industries: horticulture, plantation produce, medicinal and aromatic plants, textiles, handicrafts, and food processing are largely underway. The ethnic textiles do have an opportunity to be globally

marketed along with other products such as food items, indigenous herbal products, beverages, dance and music. The unique indigenous cottage industries of the people such as weaving, wood carving, mask making, ivory and bead works, smithy, cane and bamboo works, pottery making, painting and other decorative art have earned laurels from all walks of life when exhibited in state, national and international trade fairs.

The Government's Hydro-Power Policy of August 2005 aims at generating resources for the state. The rivers like Kameng, Subanasiri, Siang, Dibang and Lohit are taken as potential feeder basins for hydro-power projects. Around eighty-nine projects expected to generate 49,126 MW are in the pipeline under the Central Electricity Authority. State's policy to encourage entry of Public Sector Undertakings (PSUs) and Private Power Developers (PPDs) like NHPC, NEEPCO and NTPC to tap its potentials to make it the real 'Hydro-Power House of India' goes to suggest a global step.

The NHPC has received environmental clearance for its Dibang Multipurpose Hydropower-cum-Flood Moderation Project, worth over Rs 25,000 crore proposed on Dibang River in Lower Dibang Valley District of Arunachal Pradesh. It is expected to generate 11,330 (million units) MUs (in a 90 per cent dependable year) (*Arunachal Times*: 27 May 2015). It seems to be an eye-opener for this state to think big.

### **Conclusion**

The above discussion goes to suggest that Arunachal Pradesh, despite being an abode to distinct tribal ethnicity and cultural heterogeneity spread over hilly terrains and rugged mountains, has not kept itself insular to the impact of globalisation, deterritorialisation and neo-liberal economy contours. To set its economy high on standard, the state from time to time modifies its economic and trade policies inviting both domestic and foreign investors to invest their capital on agro-based, ethnic textile and cottage

industries, adventure tourism, and hydro-power projects.

Sharing its international boundary with three Southeast Asian countries is of course an additional advantage that the state contemplates to encash through border trade and infrastructure. Intra-state linking Trans-Arunachal Highway expected to connect Stilwell Road could suffice export-import delivery mechanism to the advantage of India, China and other Southeast Asian countries. Time is not very far when Southeast Asia will sneeze and Arunachal Pradesh will catch no cold.

### **Notes**

1. Neo-classical economists like Leon Walras (1834-1910), W. S. Jevons (1835-1882) and Carl Menger (1840-1921) spoke of classical liberalism in the 1870s by which they advanced the choice theoretic framework of a rational utility maximising individual that formed the basis of demand and supply theory. The theory of market supply and demand was supposed to achieve equilibrium and efficiency in the allocation of scarce resources. Competition meant that the resources were to be diverted towards high profit from the lower profit sectors till a uniform rate of profit is achieved.

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**THIRD CONCEPT** *welcomes your valuable comments on articles published in each issue. Suggestion to further improve quality and get-up of your favourite magazine, which has a record of uninterrupted publication since 1987, are also solicited.*

# Dr. Ambedkar's Contribution to Water and Power Policies in India

Mr. Devindrappa.K\* & Dr. Vikram Singh\*\*

*[Dr Bhimrao Ramji Ambedkar was a great social and political leader, economist and a lawyer. He is best known as Father of the Indian constitution. He is remembered for his social and political thoughts but his economic work also deserves special mention. His contributions to the nation are his direct participation and role in the formulation of certain development policies and planning. At least on two occasions, Dr. Ambedkar was directly involved in policy making: once as Law Minister in the Central Cabinet of independent India during 1947-51 and earlier as a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Labour, Irrigation and Power portfolio during 1942-46. Though he made a substantial contribution to the nation's development, he was instrumental in creating the Multi-Purpose River Valley Projects and Large Dam Technologies in India. If there was any person who played the most central role in introducing large dam technologies and Multi-Purpose Projects into India, it was none other than Revolutionary Dr. Ambedkar. The present paper mainly focuses on the contributions of Dr. B. R. Ambedkar to water policies India.]*

**D**r. B. R. Ambedkar, popularly known as the father of the Indian Constitution, can also be called as the architect of the water and river navigation policies in India. "Many of the people do not know about Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar that he has created two powerful institutions related to water, navigation and power." He emphasized on the importance of new waterways policies to lay the foundation for a regime of prosperity in India.

He laid the foundation for the development of infrastructure in India such as electric power, irrigation, communication, roads and transport services and technical manpower were treated as prerequisites for industrial and agricultural development. He suggested interlinking of major south Indian rivers. He was man of vision and foresight. While drafting the Constitution of India, he had not put water resources and their management entirely in the State List but he had concluded this subject under the provision of Central control.

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Dr. Ambedkar was tirelessly devoted to the reconstruction of modern India. He not only contributed towards restructuring of the Indian social structure but also contributed in the fields of agriculture irrigation, industrialization and modernization. In this field, his important contribution is welfare of the labour classes, agricultural irrigation and initiatives and preparation of water transport schemes, flood control schemes, river transport schemes for increasing power production.

He suggested collective farming, equal distribution of land, large-scale industrialization, provision of providing money, water, seeds and fertilizers to farmers by the government, cultivation of waste land by allotting waste land to landless labour, minimum wages to labourers, control and regulation of private lenders of loan to farmers for solving the problem of agriculture in India etc. Due to his efforts the 'Land Ceiling Act' was passed after Independence.

## **Methodology of the study**

The study has been conducted on the basis of secondary data. The data has been compiled from the books, internet sources, articles, journals and other published works etc.

## Objectives of the Study

*The objectives for study are given below:*

1. To discuss the contribution of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar to water policies in India.
2. To understand the power policies of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar.

## Contribution to Water Policies in India

The development of infrastructures such as electric power, irrigation, roads, communication and transport services and technical manpower were treated as prerequisites for agriculture and industrial development and therefore received top priority in the plan. It was believed that development of infrastructure would bring a relatively higher growth in industrial output and employment than the growth in rural labour force and help to absorb the surplus labour from agriculture.

In a policy committee on public work and electric power, Dr. Ambedkar emphasised that the country needed “cheap and abundant electricity” without which no effort for industrialisation could succeed. Development of irrigation and electric power were long-term projects involving large capital expenditure. The development of electric power (transport, road and communication) was crucial for industrial and agricultural development. Improvement in irrigation facilities was expected to raise agricultural productivity. The main features of the new water policy, mentioned in an earlier section, constitute:

1. Adoption of a multipurpose approach for water resources development on the basis of river valley basin.
2. Introduction of the concept of river valley authority.
3. Creation of technical expert bodies at the Centre to undertake planned development of water and power resources. ‘

On each of the above issue, Dr. Ambedkar had views of his own. In the period 1943-46, when the new policy was evolved, he actively participated in all discussions and expressed his

views through presidential addresses and lectures, between November 15, 1943 and November 8, 1945.

## ***Multi-Purpose River Valley Projects and Large Dam Technologies in India:***

Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar was instrumental in creating the Multi-Purpose River Valley Projects and Large Dam Technologies in India. If there is any person who played the most central role in introducing large dam technologies and multi-purpose projects into India, the person was none other than Dr. Ambedkar. According to some petty-minded persons, Dr. Babasaheb is mostly related only with two things: One is ‘Architect of the Indian Constitution’ and other as the leader of some particular section. But the important aspect of his being the “Founding Father of Modern India” who contributed in various fields of our nation is totally ignored and neglected. After all, how many Indians know that Dr. Ambedkar was instrumental in creating and outlining the projects like:

1. Damodar Valley project (the first multipurpose river valley project in India) in 1944 on the lines of Tennessee Valley Authority.
2. Bhakra-Nangal dam (India’s biggest multipurpose river valley project, highest gravity dam in India)
3. The Sone River Valley projects; and
4. Hirakud dam (Longest dam in India)

He introduced the idea of the establishment of multipurpose river projects in India on the lines of Tennessee Valley project. He was the 1st person in India having made efforts for the establishment of Damodar Valley project. He was the pioneer of multipurpose river projects in India.

## **A) Damodar Valley project**

Damodar valley was known as ‘Sorrow of Bengal’ because of the problems of flooding. To tackle the problem, Babasaheb had entrusted the work of planning and designing to Central Power

Board, set up the machinery and directed the planners, engineers who executed the plan prepared under his guidance. Till 1946, the responsibility for the Damodar Valley project was under Babasaheb and afterwards, the entire work for the dam was given over to Damodar Development Corporation.

Here, it seems appropriate to allude to an extract from the speech of Dr. Babasaheb before the representatives of Bengal and Bihar Governments at a Conference held in Calcutta on January 3, 1944 to discuss the means and methods for developing Damodar Valley. As a Member of the Labour, Irrigation and Electric Power Department in the Executive Council of the Viceroy, he said, "The Damodar project must be a multi-purpose project. We intend that it should not only deal with the problem caused by floods, it should also provide for irrigation, electricity and navigation. Along with the question of a site, these matters have also to be examined."

On April 23 and 24, 1945 at New Delhi under the chairmanship of the Dr. Babasaheb, Rs. 55 crore was recommended for the Damodar River Project for starting immediately the construction of the first dam (at Tilaiya). After considering the reports of the Central Technical Power Board and the advice of the Tennessee Valley Authority engineers, Ross Reigel and Fred C. Schlemmer, and their associates, Rai Bahadur A. N. Khosia and M. Narasimhaiya, then Chief Engineer, Mysore State, the conference was convinced of the advisability of pushing forward as rapidly as possible the scheme as a whole.

It had accepted the proposal that the dams across the Barakar, tributary of the Damodar, should be at Tilaiya (near Kodarma) and at Maithon, just above its confluence with the main river.

### **B) Multi-purpose Plan for Development of Orissa's Rivers:**

In 1945, the plan outlined under the chairmanship of Dr. Babasaheb, it was decided to invest in the potential benefits of controlling Odisha's rivers,

particularly Mahanadi for the multipurpose use to conserve water, serve irrigation, generating electric power etc., B.K. Gokhale, Adviser to the then Governor of Orissa, welcomed the plan outlined by Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar to invest in the potential benefits of controlling Odisha's rivers, particularly Mahanadi, for the multipurpose use to conserve water, serve irrigation, generating electric power etc., and said: "Orissa is perhaps the most backward part of India and no single project is likely to do more to improve the conditions of the people than the multipurpose development which we have under contemplation. He outlined the history of Orissa up to modern times. Orissa expected that the thought which had been given to planning and regional development would start her on an era of happiness and prosperity."

### **C) Hirakud and Sone River Projects**

Mahanadi is the biggest river in Orissa. The flood and destruction of July-August 1943 were the worst ever. Many temporary expedients had been tried in earlier decades to tame the fury of the river, without much success. In 1858, Sir Arthur Cotton visited the Orissa Province with the specific object of giving advice on controlling the flood water of Mahanadi.

He recommended the construction of a complete system of irrigation and navigation canals, on lines of the schemes for the Godavari and Krishna River. From 1928 down to 1945, a series of Committee studied the problem. The Orissa Flood Enquiry Committee (1928) was the first of these. In 1937, the enquiry was entrusted to M. Visveswaraya, the renowned engineer, who submitted two reports. Then followed the Orissa Flood Advisory Committee, which submitted a preliminary report in 1938, three interim reports, and the last report in March, 1945. At this time, the Government of Orissa approached Dr. Ambedkar to consider the taming of the Mahanadi on lines of the Damodar Valley project. H. K. Mahtab, a nationalist leader from Orissa, also suggested him to pay special attention to the problem.

## D) Bhakra-Nangal Dam project

A major initiative was taken by Dr. Babasaheb when he was member in-charge of irrigation and power during 1942-46 to take concrete steps to see that the Bhakra-Nangal Dam project should be taken up on priority. An expert from the United States Bureau of Reclamation in 1944 was invited, who after examining the feasibility report recommended that the dam site was suitable for the construction of a dam with maximum reservoir level at 487.68m and suggested further exploration for foundation and abutments. This work was carried out during 1945-46, while Dr. Babasaheb was the Member of Irrigation of the Viceroy's Council.

Dr. Ambedkar laid the foundation for water resources and electricity development, the two sectors which are so crucial for the development of India when he was Member, Labour, Irrigation and Electric Power Department in the Executive Council of the Viceroy during 1942- 46. His major achievement was the establishment of two technical organizations, presently known as 'Central Water Commission' and 'Central Electricity Authority', that have contributed for the development of irrigation and power in the country. He also created the Central Technical Power Board (CTPB) on 8th November 1944. He suggested interlinking of major south Indian rivers.

### ***Foundation for Water resources and Electricity development:***

The proposal for creation of Central Irrigation, Waterways Advisory Board was approved by Dr. Babasaheb in September 1944. Subsequently, it became Central Waterways, Irrigation, and Navigation Commission (CWINC) and was approved by Dr. Babasaheb in April 1945. It became Central Water Power, Irrigation and Navigation Commission (CWPINC) on 16<sup>th</sup> January 1948 and subsequently it became Central Water and Power Commission (CWPC) in April 1951. It was bifurcated into Central

Water Commission and Central Electricity Authority in October 1974. He also created the Central Technical Power Board (CTPB) on 8<sup>th</sup> November 1944 for power system development, hydropower station sites, hydro-electric surveys, analysing problems of electricity generation and thermal power station investigation which was subsequently merged with CWPINC and became Central Water and Power Commission (CWPC) in April 1951.

### **Conclusion**

Dr. B. R. Ambedkar was tirelessly devoted to the reconstruction of modern India. He not only contributed towards restructuring of the Indian social structure but also contributed in the fields of agriculture irrigation, water, industrialization and modernization. In this field his important contribution is water and irrigation, very important policies for nation building because without water and power policies development cannot take place in a sustainable manner. In this way, Dr. B. R. Ambedkar's vision and farsightedness was not only limited to constitution-making, but also entailed a broad vision of national reconstruction and strengthening of the socio-economic foundations of India.

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# Employment Opportunities for Marginalised Sections via CSR

Dhavaleshwar C U\*

*[Public policies have to bring integrated changes in the programmes and activities which promote technical education and increased job opportunities in both the public and private sectors for marginalized sections. Section 135 of the Companies Act 2013 is one of the important initiation in that approach. Most of the provisions concentrate on improving the basic infrastructure and the traditional trainings and development activities for employees, community members and customers. Hence, this study is intended to ascertain the holistic efforts of corporate sector in providing technical education and training to improve the employment opportunities for marginalized sections of the Indian society. This paper is based on secondary data and descriptive research methodology is used for this purpose.]*

The process of attainment of social welfare through government policies began with the dawn of independence of India. Planning Commission of India introduced five-year plans to achieve the integrated development of the country. Various sectors got boost and succeeded in achieving objectives of development by sustained efforts and they privileged with the different policy incentives. But the empowerment of marginalized sections still remained to be achieve, as five- year plans concentrated on development of agriculture and industrial sector, because the marginalized sections, especially SCs/STs didn't have land ownership and literacy and technical skills to hunt jobs in any sector.

Therefore, these community were bereft of the benefits accruing from such plans and policies. Providing land ownership to all is practically not possible, but imparting quality education and technical skills is possible, with the help of which the marginalized sections can get jobs in different sectors and sustain economically. Industries have expanded considerably after the adoption of new economic policy in the 1990s and they have created huge number of employment opportunities for all, but marginalized sections of the society have failed to get jobs.

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Lack of adequate technical knowledge and apathetic attitudes by the authorities have been the main reasons for their marginalization. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities reach out to a wide array of constituents of the marginalized sections to improve their technical skills and boost employment opportunities for them. Bhaskar Chatterjee, DG & CEO, Indian Institute of Corporate Affairs, opines that CSR must bring direct benefit to marginalized, disadvantaged and deprived section of the community." Therefore, this study attempts to know the efforts of the corporate sector in increasing technical education among the marginalized sections and creating job opportunities for them by adopting national technical education policy.

## **Marginalized Sections and Technical Education**

The government policies, laws, programmes and society as whole fail to give technical education as well as job opportunities at expected level to the marginalized sections of the society. National Education Policy 1986 speaks about free and compulsory education but still we have evidence of illiteracy in society. Technical education is not addressed in the policy and Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan has failed to reach all its objectives, and Right to Education (RTE) suffers from technical and administrative issues. Traditional

education may not be able to provide employment to the entire population of the marginalized sections and along with that cottage industries have failed to compete with the small and largescale industries.

This scenario has proved instrumental in worsening the socio-economic plight of the marginalized sections. Most of the marginalized sections have remained dependent upon cottage industries, traditional employment sources and agricultural laboring but such jobs failed to attain economic sustainability of these sections.

Interdisciplinary approach of the technical education of the marginalised sections includes community development, social justice, issues of deprived classes and social policy. Community development is all-inclusive concept connoting the well-being of various sections of the community, especially the poor, illiterate, and marginalised sections. Community development promotes the social justice (Gary Lowe, 1995) by dual-focused holistic-systematic and ecologically-oriented approach to seeking social advancement of individuals as well as broad scale societal institutions. Hence, social justice is not merely about reservation of the marginalised sections; it is about providing equal opportunities in all manners to the needy people.

Therefore, social policy must be designed in such a way so that deprived, weaker and marginalised sections should have special provisions for their development with the spirit of protected discrimination. Providing technical education and employment opportunities are major steps towards promoting inclusive growth of these sections. Marginalised sections must have special concern in getting technical education as their representation is poor in this field. Importantly, they should be employed with the corporate sector, it does not mean reservation in private sector, and it is about to take optimum advantage of the talent without having biases. Therefore, it should be the policy matter of providing technical education and encourage them to get jobs in corporate sector.

## **Review of Research and Development**

### ***International status***

There is a possibility that big businesses could become key players in addressing unmet needs in education (Mark Anthony Camilleri, 2016). Several companies have the resources and the political influence to help improve curricula and their educational outcomes; which will in turn help them cultivate local talent. This contribution shows how leading businesses are already devising corporate social responsibility (CSR) programmes that are actively supporting education across many contexts. Educating and training the marginalised and deprived sections and under-privileged is equally important to train their own employees by corporates.

The CSR is a global phenomenon having concern about development of both hard and soft infrastructure, developing countries give more importance to hard infrastructure and developed countries accord importance to improve soft infrastructure, but many studies reveal that technical education is not the priority of any corporate.

### ***National Status***

Notification of Section 135 of the new Companies Act, 2013 in March 2014 by the Ministry of Corporate Affairs, has paved the way for the mandatory CSR regime in the country. As per the new requirement, every company having net worth of Rs 500 crore or more, or turnover of Rs 1000 crore or more or a net profit of Rs 5 crore or more during any financial year shall spend at least 2% of its average net profits towards CSR activities starting April 2014. The Companies (CSR Policy) Rules, 2014 clarify that every company, its holding or subsidiary, and a foreign company as defined under the Act having its branch office or project office in India, which fulfills the criteria mentioned above shall comply with the Act and the Rules.

Therefore, the company shall seek to impact the lives of the socially and financially disadvantaged by supporting and engaging in activities that aim to improve their well-being and dedicated to the cause of empowering

people, educating them and in improving their quality of life. Mahindra & Mahindra, for promoting education among Indians at all levels, established the K. C. Mahindra Education Trust in 1953. Every year the Trust offers up to 30-40 interest-free loan scholarships to post-graduate students going abroad for higher studies.

The Mahindra Search for Talent Scholarships is a scheme established in 34 schools in India to enthuse and reward students who have achieved excellence in their academic pursuits. The Mahindra All India Talent Scholarships are awarded every year from all over India to over 300 students from lower income group families with good scholastic record pursuing job-oriented diploma courses in various polytechnics.

Similar commitment to CSR has been displayed by several corporates in India. The list, which at best can be far from complete, includes Arvind Mills, Escorts, Dabur, Bajaj, Godrej, Hero Honda, DCM Sriram, Ashok Leyland, Ballarpur Industries, Eicher, Kinetic Group, Kirloskar, Infosys, Reliance, Ranbaxy, Wipro, each of which has been deeply committed to their community-engaging programmes encompassing education and integrated rural development.

However, very few corporates are concentrating on refining the technical skills of marginalised sections for improving their employment opportunities; therefore, the government must take initiation in accelerating technical skills of marginalised sections and improve their representation in private sector.

### **Major Gaps in CSR and Technical Education**

1. Previous studies have concentrated on corporate efforts towards traditional education system rather than providing technical education.
2. Community development activities initiated by the corporates are implemented to having consideration of the community as a whole, but studies reveal the neglect of the welfare of the marginalised sections.
3. No previous studies propose any new model or policy initiative to improve the technical

skills and create employment opportunities for marginalised sections with the support of the corporate sector

### **Role of Corporate Sector in Creating Employment Opportunities**

A marginalised section comprises Schedule Castes, Schedule Tribes, Nomadic tribes, Devadasis, commercial sex workers, sexual minorities and others. SC/ST communities are considered important communities of marginalised sections and according to 2011 census report, these communities constitute 25.2% of the total Indian population. It is very important to improve the quality of their lives, because since independence they are less focused in terms of improving social status and economic sustainability.

Education and employment are the important tools to improve their status. Government has introduced many creative policies, programmes and activities in this regard and the country has witnessed considerable growth in literacy and employment opportunities. However, the Government alone can't provide job opportunities to all, as numbers of jobs are less and competition is very high. On the other hand, the Government has taken many progressive steps in creating job opportunities by giving scope to industrial sector. Every year, states like Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and many other states organize the investors meet (Global Investors Meet - GIM) and investors given scope to start their business, which in turn can generate employments.

In the past couple of years, the Central Government has introduced many programmes in this connection, which *inter alia*, include: start-up, skill India, make in India etc. and there deemed as some important steps in promoting industrial sector and creating job opportunities. On the other hand, investors complain that Indian labor market has failed to provide labor with the expected professional skills. Narayan Murthy, the mentor of Infosys has described that only 25% of India-educated engineers are employable material and rest of them are just certificate holders. Therefore, we are at a stage where we need to improve the technical skills

of the Indian labors, particularly the marginalized sections.

Serious attention needs to be paid to the marginalized section as their representation in technical education and employment in corporate sector is still poor as compare to other segments of the population. Education and training is the one of the core component of CSR activities, but corporates are investing in to develop infrastructure rather than improve learning abilities, technical skills, technical knowledge and scientific applicability of knowledge, which can boost the employment opportunities. Therefore, the present researcher has tried to ascertain the corporate efforts towards improving the technical skills and employment opportunities as a result of CSR activities. Emphasis is also laid in this study on the need for developing adequate policy measures to provide skills and technical education to the under-privileged and marginalized segments to enable them part of national mainstream of development.

### **Implications of the Study**

*Hypothecated implications are as below:*

- i. Corporate sector may design special programmes and provisions for the students of marginalised section to provide them technical education
- ii. Corporate sector may start technical education institutions
- iii. Corporate sector may offer technical jobs to candidates of marginalised sections
- iv. Technical education should be the priority policy matter by the Government.

### **Conclusion**

This is the high time for the corporate sector to providing technical skills for marginalised sections; they must focus on it with the positive spirit of integrating them into national mainstream and help promote inclusive development in the country. The Government must also develop adequate national policy for technical education, with special emphasis on marginalised sections. There is also need to modify the existing programmes and policies

according to the needs of the communities and need of the time in order to fulfill the societal needs.

Therefore, social workers should analyse the needs of the community with the help of community members and prioritize them accordingly. Various client groups, NGOs and government officials ought to take active part in the process of need-analysis and ascertain the ideas of the community members to be incorporate in the proposals catering to the needs of the community. Beyond development of hard infrastructure, investment in soft infrastructure is expected. Therefore, along with literacy and training & development activities, the skill development activities must be designed in such a manner so that the members of the marginalised sections join the mainstream development process.

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# Role of CSOs and NGOs in Rural Development in Imphal West

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*[Subsequent governments have been implementing various rural development programmes in rural areas of the country over the years. The importance of civil societies organizations (CSOs) and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) in promoting rural development programmes has also been quite increasing day-by-day and even more, especially after the passage of the 73rd Amendment to India's Constitution. The CSOs & NGOs, with their expertise, technical know-how, people-friendly approach, issue-specific and flexible character shall be an advantage to the government in the execution of rural development programmes effectively. This study visualizes and discusses various problems and the possibilities of increased role of the CSOs and NGOs. The need of people's participation in the governance and functioning in rural areas can become even stronger when there is active participation of civil societies and NGOs.]*

As far as the role of civil society in Manipur's rural development is concerned, we have to see the discernment of space occupied by these CSOs with public voluntary sense. We require CSOs for social change in democracy and they have to protect their space also. The three important spaces are state, market and partnership with government. Among the CSOs, some are agents of the state, some are ethnic-based ones, human right groups, path finders and organizational civil society. They should be having critical outlook and scientific thinking in order to achieve social justice. Exposure to power relationship helps in achieving democratic values.

The CSOs in Manipur, in view of the contemporary understanding, are a group of people who can take part in the movement. They have ability to make argument and finally sharing in decision-making. But the problem is that government always tries to rule without their choice and reflection, which often spurs reaction from the civil society. Even one-fourth of the year is often lost to bandh and hartal in Manipur. For making logical queries and interpretation, it is better to comprehend the concept of civil society.

The state itself is a society. It can be divided into two i.e. political society and civil society. A civil society is a society minus government. The term *civil society* covers various actors including religious

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leaders, women's organizations, NGOs, scholars and intellectuals. It further includes organizations like trade unions, professional associations, chambers of commerce, ethnic organizations and others.

It also encompasses many other associations formed for purposes other than advancing specific social or political agendas such as religious organizations, student groups, community development associations, the human rights associations, the press, cultural organizations, sports clubs, and other forms of organizations outside the state arena. The function of the civil society has been largely regarded as facilitating interaction between the political society and society at large.

The concept of civil society has a long history in political philosophy. Its overall meaning has changed over the years with Roman, Hegelian, Marxist and Gramscian influences. In accordance with the traditional ideas existing in the social sciences, civil society is meant to the space in a certain society that is prevalent between individuals or families, and is independent of the state. According to the Latin, *Civilis Societas* meant to communities, which have certain norms that existed above and beyond the state.

The state in Roman thought was identified with the community of citizens. With the development of Roman law, a separation between the public and the private appeared. Private law referred to the

family, and to conventions regulating contract, property and inheritance. With the legalization of private property, a conceptual separation appeared between the public aspects of an individual's life and his personal needs, which became the subject of a separate law. It was recognized that apart from the political life an individual was entitled to live a private life. This separation between the public and the private formed the conceptual environment within which the notion of the civil society took shape (Chandhoke 2002).

However, Locke used civil and political society interchangeably. It was due to that fact that the term *civil society* was used to distinguish a particular form of social and political organization from the state of nature. Civil society to Locke was the conceptual opposite of the state of nature. John Locke's civil society is one in which importance is given to the rights of individuals over the rights of society. Locke maintained that civil society came into existence when men possessing the natural right to life, liberty and estate, came together, signed a contract and constituted a common public authority. In the state of nature men have equal natural rights but there is no legal authority that can uphold these rights and punish the offenders. Civil society emerges when citizen's right to life, liberty and property is guaranteed by law. Legal recognition and protection of the natural rights of individuals transform a political society into a civil society (Weaver, Kent and James G Mc Gann, 2000).

Hegel is said to be the theorist who distinguished the state from the civil society, in contrast to those theorists who used political and civil as synonymous categories. Hegel saw the civil society as a domain where the individual could find the freedom to pursue his self-defined interest. Hegel expanded the notion of civil society and rescued it from being excessively identified with the economy. To Hegel, civil society is a set of social practices, which have an existence distinct from the economy. He located these social practices between the family and the state and invested them with historical significance.

Hegel considered civil society as one of the moments of ethical life which regulate the life of the individual, the other two being the family and the state. And civil society is distinguished both from the family and the state. In the family particular

interests are transcended in a natural way. Civil society is also the domain of particularity of the self-seeking individual. Civil society is an important stage in transition from the family to the state because it is the sphere where the two principles of particularity and universality are negotiated. For Hegel civil society is a collective body whose members are conceived as "self-subsistent 2drpersons" (Chandhoke 2002).

Marx inherited the Hegelian perspective on civil society, but he took the analysis further to interrogate the system itself. Hegel started from the primacy of civil society and proceeded to subordinate it to the state. Marx restored the primacy of civil society and subordinated the state to this sphere. Civil society in Marx's formulation became the stage where the dialectic between the social and the political, between domination and resistance, between oppression and emancipation is played out.

Marx argued that the modern individual is not predominantly political. The modern state with its specialized apparatuses monopolizes political life. For Marx, the bureaucracy prevents access of the individual to the state. The modern individual is, therefore, destined to live his life in civil society which is the setting of everyday practices of life and work. And this sphere of civil society is oppressive because it has been left untouched by the political revolution which has transformed the political domain. It is a sphere where greed, egoism, selfishness and exploitation continue to govern the life of the individual. If the individual is debarred from participation in the state, then he is forced to live his life in the civil sphere, which is constituted by the routine mundane practices of everyday life.

Marx thinks that modern civil society provides avenues for self-realization which can be achieved only through reflective, conscious labour. According to Marx, labour should be a joyful activity. But in a bourgeois society, labour is reduced to a repetitive and monotonous work. Confined to this specialized activity, individuals become interdependent on each other. In such a society, the individual has to exchange goods, but these exchanges are based on the principle of commodity. Each looks to the other as one who satisfies a particular need. The result is individualism, competition and egoism which replace natural bonds.

Civil society develops as a corruption of the natural bonds of humanity generating instrumental social relations. It is the product of capitalism. As a product it creates a world where individuals are bound to each other by ties of dependence. According to Marx, civil society has failed to create a space where the individual could find freedom and self-determination.

Civil society all but disappeared from political and academic debates in the post-First World War era. It is Antonio Gramsci whose writing represented a notable exception to the lack of interest in the notion of civil society in the post-First World War era. For Gramsci, civil society was not merely the sphere of individual needs but also of organizations where the hegemony of the ruling class and consent to that rule was negotiated. In this sense civil society comprised not only all material but also political and cultural relations. Gramsci portrayed civil society as a special nucleus of independent political activity, a crucial sphere of struggle against tyranny.

A civil society exists when there is a sustained attempt by people to be in charge of shaping their own life conditions by influencing the relevant decisions of various public bodies and institutions. The core characteristic of civil society is its composition of autonomous self-organized associations limited by a framework of law. Civil society is the location of independent thought and, within legal boundaries, voluntary action. Diversity, tolerance, respect, and consensus are considered the four main keys in building and maintaining a civil society.

Nevertheless, those who work as government agents are less active than others. Ethnic-based organizations emphasize mainly on the interest of the particular group not for all communities in most of time. Even religious associations work for their own interest. However, the path finder's group like Senior Citizens confers constructive and positive suggestions rather than reaction.

Moreover, there are not many members and groups who work on various issues and problems and they hardly react. Thus, the main reaction against the government when diverge the zest, interest and willingness of the masses is started and performed by the organizational civil society. Because of that in Manipur, people perceive only such organizational

civil society as the only real civil society. That means the concept of West on civil society is really speckle to us.

The need of popular movement for strong panchayats in rural development calls for necessity of participation of civil societies and NGOs. The lead of such movement should be initiated by these organizations. There is need to transfer some related areas to the voluntary agencies who are more conversant with requirements of the local people. These civil societies and NGOs can narrow down the gap between the executive, administration and local people. There should be mutual trust and belief to these civil societies, taking into consideration their experience with the local people.

These civil organizations help the government in gathering services to those people whom the government cannot reach. The civil societies have been extending their hands in reducing black money, corruption and social injustice existing in this society. We should take extreme care in selecting the genuine civil societies and NGOs taking into consideration their experience, commitment and their working profile which includes their supervisory capacity. As for the government alone, it would be difficult to supervise and monitor every work, there is need to transfer some areas of services so that the efficiency, accountability and transparency are maintained.

These bodies are aware of the local problems and issues in the local areas. Owing to their non-bureaucratic nature, certain new pioneering ideas and services in increasing the participation of people can be organized. They can even raise funds from the people so that they can organize better and efficient services. Over the years, the number of civil organizations is increasing especially after the introduction of grants-in-aid from various government departments like Human Resource Department, Social Welfare, Labour department etc.

Apart from the government and administrative machinery, there is need of these civil societies considering their experience in rural development works in good and effective governance. Their role is much more important, especially in developing countries, where there are a lot of incidents like corruption, red-tapism, partiality and unnecessary political interference etc. In this condition, the role

of civil societies is necessary for better local administration with better understanding of the local people.

Certain questions may arise at this point of time such as, how effectively shall the civil societies control the government irregularities in the implementation of the rural development programmes? What is the actual role they can play in the rural development works? Is there possibility of transferring some of the services to them? Is it going to be practicable in real sense? Will the development programmes be implemented by the participation of the civil societies and NGOs?

### **What is Rural Development?**

Rural development means an overall development of areas in social, economic, political and cultural spheres so that people could lead a pleasant life (Pandit and Kulkarni, 2012: 160). The rural development programmes propose to reduce the poverty and unemployment, to improve the health and educational status and to fulfill the basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing of rural population (Panda and Majumdar 2013). For this to realize, Government of India launched various developmental programmes such as Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGSY), Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) etc.

### **Objectives of the study**

1. To evaluate the types of activities and performance, the Civil Organizations and the NGOs provide in rural areas.
2. To study their arrangement and handling of funds, their coordination and ability to handle rural development projects.

### **Methodology**

In the light of above objectives, the study uses both primary sources and Secondary sources. For the collection of primary data, Registered Civil societies and NGOs are interviewed. The secondary source comprises government publications, books, journals and newspaper etc., in order to substantiate the study.

### **Present nature of Government Administration**

The administration of rural development programmes can be started with the district administration. Many work programmes of the district heads start with the controlling of the law and order problems. Their duty exposes some kinds of authoritarian nature to the people. When the questions arise about the rural development works, they expose the humanitarian nature. There are two kinds of exposures which are actually contrasted in real sense. There is overlapping in their functioning.

Stating the role of the NGOs, the late Prime Minister Shri P.V. Narasimha said in a public meeting of NGOs on March 7, 1994 at Vigyan Bhavan as thus:

“In all this, we have to remember that the people must occupy the centre stage. At all times, they should be the focus of all that we aim to do. Therefore, when I talk of a participatory approach to development, I have in mind approach where the people would be helped to help themselves. In other words, we should envisage a situation in our country where people would deal with their problems on their own in the not too distant a future, without having to depend upon outside agencies.”

In the ultimate analysis, the people should not merely change their masters; people should be their own masters. That is what people – centered development is all about. Therefore, if a particular area is taken up by a NGO it is not expected that it would function there for all times to come. A time should come when the people would have been fully mobilized and made aware of and empowered to deal with their own problems. In other words, the NGOs should withdraw after the task is done and shift to other area where their services are needed (S.N. Mishra and Chaitali Pal 1997).

The concept of state has changed to the “welfare state” in this modern state thus increasing the role of government for welfare and development activities for the people. It means that the role of the civil societies and NGOs is increasingly necessary in not only promoting the social welfare programmes but also understanding the need of the people with utmost care. The NGOs need to be trained properly in performing these services. They have to participate in narrowing the present gap between the bureaucratic services and establishment and actual need of the services of the people by starting innovative and social-oriented programmes.

Many civil organizations and NGOs are engaging in many child welfare services i.e. schools of mentally retarded homes, rehabilitation centres, child welfare centres etc. It is necessary to transfer some government programmes like the Integrated Child Developmental Services (ICDS), Government-sponsored homes, social welfare programmes sponsored by the Health Department. The transfer should be done after proper scrutiny of the concerned NGOs' performance and their honesty and efficiency in providing the public services. It can also be done in the form of public-private partnership.

### **Selection of CSOs and NGOs**

There are numerous civil societies and Non-Governmental Organizations exercising various activities in the society. Not all the NGOs are not performing well and their popularity among the local people is varied in degree in providing services in terms of efficiency, accountability and honesty. They should be known for the transparency and clean services to the local people and their popularity among the local people in performing the services.

The decisive factors of the good and sincere NGOs can be categorized into three: (a) participative (b) charitable (c) developmental. They should be known for their initiative in providing self-employment programmes to the local people. The selection should be based on their popularity among the local people. They should have properly trained members in regards to the social activities and social service. They should have knowledge regarding the policies and its changes from time to time. They should be registered ones and known to the government for popular services. They should have their roots in the local leadership and local people.

There should be proper cooperation between the Panchayati Raj Institutions and Non-Governmental Organizations. It is often misunderstood that there will be overlapping of functioning and activities among them. The PRIs should take the help of the NGOs in proper implementation of the various development programmes. These will facilitate in increasing the trust of the people towards the government. It will not only increase in maintaining the transparency in the functioning but also in completion of the work in time.

The NGOs and non-profit organizations (NPOs) are all part of the civil societies. NGOs and NPOs are almost similar to a great extent and are taken as synonymous for this research work. Both are voluntary organizations of people with certain objectives. They exist in various levels i.e. in local, district, national and international level. The objectives of these various organizations are different depending on the socio-economic, environmental issues, political condition of the area, district and the country. They are organized to tackle social issues. They play an important role in the development of rural areas.

### **Civil organizations in Manipur**

Manipur is a north-eastern state of India bordering with Myanmar, which has a long-standing conflict between the state actors and non-state actors. This state has been facing a lot of socio-political and economic issues. This calls for the need of various civil society organizations and non-governmental organizations in solving these problems, in addition to the government efforts. These civil organizations help to act as a mediator between the government and people in narrowing the differences and problems.

People commonly treat many civil organizations, except a few, as passive actors. It is wrong interpretation in the minds of people because most of the civil organizations are voluntary organizations which depend only on grants and volunteers. Most of the volunteers are not paid except getting satisfaction from helping the needy ones. The fund of this organization depends on donation from helping hands and grants from the government.

Most of these civil organizations and NGOs deal with poverty eradication, disaster management while some others deal with rural development works. Some others act as a mediator between the government and local people. The people of the state consider the performance of government as inefficient and private enterprises as profit-making ones. That is the result that the need of civil organization comes into existence. There are unregistered voluntary organizations that do not get any fund and financial help from the government, which act as pressure groups for various purposes. There are also registered NGOs which receive fund from government from time to time as given below.

Numbers of registered NGOs are given below:

**Table 1.1**

Type and place of the NGO	Total number of NGOS			
	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11
Imphal East	2674	1405	1405	1465
Imphal West	3904	3892	3975	4013
Bishnupur	1909	1935	1927	2015
Chandel	931	870	926	927
Thoubal	2607	2629	2660	2682
Senapati	586	592	1192	1204
Churachandpur	1563	1554	1645	1648
Ukhrul	880	925	936	947
Tamenglong	810	810	810	842
State level	2327	2466	2466	2512
Total	18191	17168	17942	18255

*Source: Department of Co-operative, Government of Manipur, 2010-11*

The number of societies in the district varies as shown in the table above. Imphal West district has 3904 out of 18191 in 2007-08, 3892 out of 17168 in 2008-2009, 3975 out of 17942 in 2009-10 and 4013 out of 18255 registered NGOs in 2010-11. The number of Registered NGOs in the district is increased year by year. It shows that the needs for NGOs for various purposes are increasing in the district.

These NGOs are registered in the office of the Co-operative Societies under the Manipur Societies Registration Act, 1989. There are also non-registered NGOs which are ready to promote development in the society.

These organizations function under certain norms prescribed by the Government. They have their own office bearers varying (7 or 9) depending upon the size of the organizations. The members of the organization elect these office bearers for a period of time as decided by the organization. They elect the president or the chairman as the head of the office bearers and other assistants. These organizations have their own bank account in which fund is deposited and run their offices.

On-going problems invite the NGOs to come forward to the common cause of the society. The role of NGOs in the rural development programme is essential for proper implementation of the work. The need of these organizations has to be emphasized. There are many organizations in Imphal west district. Unfortunately, some of these NGOs are not functioning well. Strong NGOs like All Manipur Anti-Drug Association (AMADA) are actively involved in controlling social evils which later help in controlling the Manipur youth from these social evils like alcoholism, drug abuse etc.

In Keisampat, Khoiyathong, Sagolband etc., there are branches of the organization. There are also many youth organizations at places like Kawakeithel, Langthabal, Kodompokpi, Phayeng etc. are actively involved in development activities meant for youth. These youth organizations organize games and sports events like football, cricket matches etc. for young talented youth in sports. Above all, they actively participate in management of natural disasters like flood, earthquake etc. They also organize social service activities and conduct socio-economic surveys to find out the living standard of the rural poor. These NGOs act as a link between the local people and the Government of Manipur. There are also baby care centres run by NGOs under Social Welfare Board. These centres pay special

attention to orphans, poor babies who are helpless. The centres take care of their health, pre-school activities etc.

### **Activities of Women organizations**

Gender inequality and discrimination towards woman is a continuous and one of the challenging problems in India. In order to strengthen the position of women and a step towards the empowerment of women, the Constitution, through various rights, especially the fundamental rights as in the Article 14 that talks about no discrimination against women, gender equality, and the erstwhile five-year plans of the Planning Commission support this directive by defining actions and programs of welfare measures in favour of women. Accordingly, the government has emphasized the gender problems and concerns and introduced various welfare measures in various five-year plans.

The Central government budget (2013-2014) had introduced a notable initiative like the Nirbhaya Fund of Rs 1000 crore for the safety of women and women empowerment. In addition, it proposes to set up India's first Women's Bank. In rural India, this paradigm shift received major support from the 73rd Constitutional Amendment which came into force in 1993, under which one-third seats of the total seats are reserved for women in Panchayats emphasizing the importance of women in the good governance, decision-making and development works in the rural area. The participation of women in the decision-making is seen quite apparently as compared to the status of women in the past.

History tells us pathetic and poor conditions of women in this caste-based Indian society. The role of women is limited inside the four-walls looking after the domestic activities in this society. The status of women in Manipur is quite developed and advanced as compared to that of the women in other parts of the country. Fortunately, such atmosphere of mistreating women in such ways has not swept away women of Manipur. The conditions of Manipur women are ahead of other Indian women in many ways.

Manipur women have been actively participating in non-violent movements. Every year Manipur women celebrate 'Nupilal day' to pay tribute to those brave women who fought against the British during the

colonial period in the years 1904 and 1939. Manipuri women actively participated in many other movements of different natures and kinds. They even rose against the injustice done by the king.

In the ancient time, there was a separate court for women called court of *Parja* (L. Chandramani, 1973). It dealt with cases of women problems and activities only. It maintained the socio - economic and political life of the women during that period. It also preserved the ancient culture of Manipur women.

The women folk of Manipur step up with a new name called '*MeiraPaibi*' literally denoting 'women torch-bearer', which tackles the issues relating to socio - economic and political problems of Manipur. The *MeiraPaibi* signifies the importance of motherhood in protecting their sons and daughters from various crimes, unwanted activities etc. The popularity of '*MeiraPaibi*' has spread beyond the boundaries of Manipur, reaching different parts of the world. Its importance has been appreciated by all sectors of government and NGOs. Even, the government agencies extend cooperation in dealing with the complicated issues and problems.

The Government considers them as helpers of society and also transformers in bringing a peaceful organized society. Recently, these torch-bearers (*Meirapaibi*) took a new direction towards crime handling. They focus more attention on handling and controlling social epidemic of alcoholism, drug abuse and immoral trafficking. As a whole, the role of *MeiraPaibi* in this society is significant. In many international conferences, World leaders have emphasized the increasing role of women in dealing with social issues.

In Manipur also, the great leaders like H. Irabot Singh founded the *Mahila Sammilini*, which actively participated in many movements particularly 1954 and 1959 movement. The *Mahila Sammilini* also tried to improve the poor conditions of the women.

### **NGOs in the 21st century**

The need of NGOs in tackling the grievances of the local people in this district is always on the rise. Numerous NGOs have mushroomed in this district as already mentioned above. Every corner of this district is circled with one or another type of NGOs

based on a particular issue. Based on the issues, NGOs can be categorized into three:

- a) Civil societies based on the environmental concerns
- b) NGOs based on child welfare schemes
- c) NGOs based on welfare measures, especially to deal with development

The Social Welfare Department of Manipur provides monetary help, technical guidance and training to members of these NGOs. The NGOs, especially women voluntary organizations, take up the cause of the social evils like alcoholism, drug abuse, ganja abuse etc., and ban further spread of epidemic diseases. These women organizations organize regular inspections at night and check unwanted social problems including drunkards disturbing the pleasant sleep of the people during the night.

The Civil societies and NGOs can take initiative for the formation of self- help groups (SHG) for the successful implementation of rural development programmes like SGSY. These NGOs can interact closely with the local people at the village level and find out their requirements. These NGOs can act as facilitators themselves or help in training and knowledge improvement of other facilitators being used by DRDAs. Before selecting the suitable NGOs to act as facilitator in group formation, the selected committee has to examine their past record in community organization, capability to remain intact with local people etc.

The NGOs should have good communication skills so that they can interact with the local people. The NGOs involved can be from any place or from any community. These NGOs can take care of as many as 10-15 group formations known as SHGs and coordinate with these groups. A good coordination from the NGOs is important from the point of the

success of this programme. Even the DRDAs should give proper co-ordination to the NGOs.

Likewise, in other rural development programmes like MGNREGS, IAY, SGSY, the NGOs can act as monitoring-cell of the progress of the construction of the dwelling houses and other development activities. NGOs can propagate the facilities available through media, newspaper, interaction with the local people and thus make them aware of the programme, including use of smokeless chulhas, innovative technology etc. Such involvement of NGOs would surely help in achieving the target of the programme. Thus, the government should extend cooperation and monetary help to the hard-working suitable NGOs so that they can do better in performing their duties.

In such a complex society, any development programme without the help of NGOs will be hard to achieve the very objective of the programme. The Government authority like DRDA should seek help from these NGOs and community-based organizations.

NGOs can inspect the works including socio-economic activities and development work provided under the SGSY programme. Thus, the NGOs can report about the progress of the work and other development activities and help in achieving the target of the government.

Involvement of NGOs will facilitate in making the rural development programmes more transparent and efficient. The NGOs will be more useful in finding out the basic needs of the local people and minimum requirement of the people. Thus, society as a whole should encourage the sincere, experienced NGOs and get involved in the rural development programmes with the help of media persons, newspapers, radio etc. Here are some important NGOs as given below:

**Table 1.2**

**Some important NGOs in Imphal West District**

<b>Sl.No.</b>	<b>Name of NGOs</b>	<b>Registration no.</b>
1.	All Manipur Women's Association	810 of 1967 - Khuyathong
2.	Manipur State Young Farmers Association	1679 of 1975 - Khumbong
3.	Centre for Mental Hygiene	2674 of 1979 - Sangaiprou
4.	New Life Crusaders	3484/M/SR/81- North A.O.C.

5.	Charik Pareng and Child Welfare Association,	4081 of 1982 - T.B. Hospital, Mantripukhri
6.	Ideal Mothers' Association	5142 of 1984 Naoriya Pakhang Lakpa
7.	Leirik Memorial Charitable Hospital	5736 of 1984 - Sangaiprou
8.	All Manipur Chakma Schedule Caste Development Association	5906 of 85 – Phayeng
9.	The Rural Reconstruction Organisation	350/Imphal of 86 Mongsangei
13.	Lifetime Foundation Mantrikhong	19/M/SR/92 - Langthabal
14.	All Manipur Fisherwomen's Welfare Association	25/M/SR/92 - Lamphel Sana Keithel
15.	Manipur Rural Institute Society	Tera Sapam Leirak
16.	RUSA (Rural Service Agency)	Palace Compound
17.	RDO (Rural Development Organisation)	Lamsang Bazar

Source: Information provided by the Department of Co-operation, Government of Manipur. 2008

### **Findings of the working of some important NGOs in Imphal West District**

The NGO like Rural Development Organization (See above table) is one of the well-functioning civil organizations in Imphal West district, in particular and in Manipur in general. Over the years, it has been providing various services like nursing services and banking services. It has opened nursing colleges providing courses like GNM and B.Sc. nursing courses. It also conducts door to door health check-up in the surrounding rural areas thus providing health consciousness and checking health problems among people.

Another popular NGO, Rural Service Agency (See above table) organizes training programme for women and empowerment awareness programme for Self Help Groups formation and HIV/AIDS awareness, vocational training programme for bamboo making, running old-aged residential home for 15 years, providing training to women for food-cooking and nutrition health care training programme and child trafficking. Manipur Rural Institute Society (see above table) aims at all-round development of weaker and deprived sections specially for woman and children in the field of education, health and sanitation, rural development, support and welfare measures to rural poor, awareness and prevention of drug abuse and control of HIV/AIDS.

Leirik Memorial Charitable Hospital (see above table) is a health-related NGO which organizes health related programmes in the nearby rural areas. It was

established in Sangaiprou in 1984. Manipur State Young Farmers Association in Khumbong, which is established in 1975 with an aim to solve the various problems of both progressive farmers and non-progressive farmers, has almost decreased in its activities now-a-days due to various reasons.

Rural Reconstruction Organization (See above table), which was established with about 45 members in 1986 at Mongsangei of Imphal West, is one of the well-functioning NGOs in Imphal West District with an aim to bring overall improvement in the socio-economic conditions of rural people and rural areas. In the beginning, this organization was established from funds through self-contribution among members with a small amount and later substantiated from the grants from both the state and the Centre. It focuses on the increase in agricultural productivity and development of dry land agriculture, popularize cultivation of the rare rice plant called Chak-hou (local name) and conserve the rare species of rice.

It also emphasizes on natural agricultural farming method by adopting organic farming thus protecting the environment in rural areas from pollution and agricultural land from infertility. It also focuses in spreading awareness of eco-friendly bio-fertilizers with the help of various self-help-groups in the rural areas. Till now, it has formed around 600 self-help-groups providing work and employment in vermin-culture, plantation of chak-hao, pop rice thus providing them a sustainable income. Its overall aim is to improve the socio-economic conditions of the rural poor. This organization is the first to expertise in vermin-culture.

### Some observations

- i. Civil organizations, especially women organization called meirapaibis, are very much active in rural areas.
- ii. Some NGOs are performing well providing various welfare measures, although a few NGOs lack proper organizational set-up and specific purpose and direction.
- iii. Most NGOs are fully dependent on funds from funding agencies and some NGOs are established from funds through self-contributions.
- iv. Most NGOs lack proper coordination, leadership and proper planning.

### Conclusion

The success and the real efforts of the genuine civil societies lie in the fact that they are able to penetrate at the grassroots. The government should be alert in order to find out the genuine and nonprofit-based societies. This is where the successive governments in Manipur have failed. Their work is laudable. Their performance is noteworthy. The government should fund the civil societies solely on merit. There is necessity for the urban middle-class to wake up to the contribution of the NGOs towards the society. They should take part in their endeavour through monetary contribution or volunteer to cooperate with them.

Educational institutions could organize tours or excursions to such institutions (NGOs) to make the students aware about the reality of life and make them responsible towards the society. The rich and the affluent could give patronage to any such organization of their choice. Their charisma would then be transferred to the organizations they support. Such help from these people could give more meaning to the cause and purpose of the NGOs and enable those (NGOs) to achieve the target.

There is no doubt that the civil societies are a great force, if not an informal power centre. It is dubbed as the “second superpower” by intellectuals and political experts, civil societies are poised to become a force to reckon with which can serve as the counterweight to the increasingly oppressive regimes sprouting up in many parts of the world like a contagious disease. The role of the civil societies is crucial in today’s world where brute forces and unilateralism are increasingly becoming a norm rather than the exception.

The NGOs are necessary to train properly and have adequate knowledge of the capacity building so that they can play an effective role in the good governance. The NGOs working at the grass root level are not properly structured and suffer from lack of proper coordination and planning. Most NGOs largely depend on the availability of funds and resources from the funding agencies. Despite these restraints and limitations, their role in mobilizing local people, effective services to the people, especially in the services like health, family planning, eradication of poverty, self-employment through self-help-groups etc. and their contributions in the enhancement of the society especially in rural areas, is enormous. Their service has brought a difference in the quality of life of the people in rural areas. Their contribution to the rural areas in particular and society in general, is commendable.

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## Issues Concerning Entitlement in MGNREGS in India

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*[MGNREGS- world’s largest employment guarantee programme- is deeply rooted in the theory of entitlement. The theory presumes that poverty is not caused by lack of income but deprivation of capabilities. In the era of rights-based approach to development to get rid of poverty, hunger and unemployment is the inalienable right of every citizen. Correspondingly the state has the ultimate responsibility of eliminating myriad conditions of unfreedom. Provision of a legally guaranteed demand-driven employment scheme has great potential in ensuring livelihood security for the poor while compensating for lost entitlement. A functioning democracy with robust constitutional mechanism of political accountability can protect the basic entitlements of the poor. MGNREGS is certainly not a mere ad-hoc type famine relief programme; it has far reaching positive impact in transforming the lives of the rural poor and requires timely reform to serve as an effective social security measure.]*

It has been over a decade since the introduction of world’s largest employment guarantee programme i.e. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS) in the India. Since its inception, the scheme has witnessed experiences of two successive UPA regimes followed by the NDA government at present. Apprehensions were raised regarding future of the scheme when NDA government came to power in 2014. The Prime Minister had criticized the scheme as “a living monument of the failure of the UPA government”, because of which “even after sixty years of independence people had to dig holes”.

Although the NDA regime never reduced the budgetary allocations under the scheme in real terms, the funds meant for the scheme are now being routed through the state budgets. Direct transfer of funds is now being abolished paving the way for states to exercise more control over the funds. But the capacity of states to utilize these funds effectively remains a crucial issue and these capacities vary widely across the states.

Apart from funding issues, the present regime’s new-found obsessions on procedural matters have generated manifold problems on the path of successful implementation of the scheme. While pre-2014 version of the scheme was basically *wage-focused*, the post-2014 period has shifted the focus on *asset creation* (Pankaj, 2017: 52,33). In order to ensure efficiency of the scheme in terms of outcome the emphasis was justifiably on creation of durable assets rather than digging holes to fill it again. The CAG Report and studies in many states have reached the conclusion that MGNREGS has not performed up to expectation.

Numerous instances of leakages, corruption, inefficiencies and inadequate internal controls very poor monitoring in the implementation were major weaknesses of the scheme (CAG 2008). Studies indicate that the scheme was becoming supply-driven and top-down in nature, instead of becoming demand-driven and bottom-up as envisaged (Mukhopadhyaya et al., 2015). So far, the impact factor of the scheme on poverty reduction has been modest which has made it an instrument for distribution of doles (Bhattacharjee, 2017: 52,25&26).

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Right from the start, there prevailed widespread cynicism and distrust regarding the long-term success of the scheme. Noted economist, Lord Meghnad Desai dismissed the government's ambitious MGNREGA as "a mere 'palliative', a 'temporary measure', a 'waiting room' and not a cure for the problem" (Datta and Sundaram, 2007: 421). Indira Hirway (2004) apprehended that the Act would result in the creation of a large permanent army of unskilled workers to be supported by the national exchequer. Notwithstanding such forebodings, the scheme continued to operate in the country unaffected by regime change. In this backdrop, one is certainly moved to question the continuity of the scheme despite discouraging outcome. Such queries can be addressed by pitching our analysis on some sound theoretical issues.

### **Objectives**

Consequent upon the completion of eleven years of MGNREGS throughout the country, objective evaluation of its performance seems legitimate. But one cannot shy away from basic theoretical moorings under the scheme. In this context the present article contains four broad objectives. First, to reaffirm the hypothesis that poverty and unemployment are deprivation of capabilities and can be compensated by robust entitlement provisions. Second, to effectively determine various strategies of entitlement protection. Third, to enlist the comparative advantages of entitlement protection mechanism over 'handout' system. Finally, to identify the challenges to entitlement protection system and suggest measures for making it more effective.

### **Methodology**

Method of study adopted in this paper is purely analytical and evaluative. The data used for the purpose pertains to secondary sources comprising field studies conducted by scholars and activists from across the country. Primary study on the subject on Gajapati district of Odisha by this author has also been taken into account. Annual Reports of MORD and various reputed agencies on the performance of MGNREGS available in the public domain are also being followed. Besides, books and journals on the topic authored by eminent writers/activists are also duly adhered to. Then, a complete data analysis is done with the help of these

relevant information followed by formulation of comprehensive report and concluding observations.

### **Review of Literature**

Being a paradigm shift in social security, MGNREGS has attracted scholars and activists across social science spectrum for critical analysis. A number of field studies have been taking place throughout India by various agencies and autonomous institutions focusing on its theory and practice. Keeping in view the basic objectives of the paper, an attempt has been made to confine the review of literature concerning entitlement issues. *The Battle for Employment Guarantee* edited by Reetika Khera (2011) is a brilliant collection of views of eminent authors and activists and it is perhaps the first comprehensive account of MGNREGA based on field studies across different states.

Theoretical underpinnings of the need for employment guarantee within liberal democratic framework are supported mainly in the scholarly works of Nobel laureate Prof. Amartya Sen and his colleague Jean Dreze. Renowned development economist Sen (1981) provides a critique of 'food availability decline' theory of famine and argues for 'food entitlement approach'. In his award-winning *Poverty and Famine*, Sen rescued famines from climate-population framework and lent them some much needed ingredients of political economy.

In another classic work, *Development as Freedom*, Sen (2000) equates development with removal of major sources of unfreedom like poverty, tyranny, poor economic opportunities, and systematic social deprivation. Along with Prof. Sen, Prof. Jean Dreze's excellent contributions to the field provides enormous theoretical inputs relevant to the topic. As an erudite scholar and activist par excellence, Dreze is widely recognized as the chief architect of MGNREGA of 2005. *Hunger and Public Action* published in 1989 is a seminal contribution by Dreze and Sen in the field of employment guarantee. It focuses on the problem of hunger in the world due to 'entitlement' failure and supports public action in the form of famine relief measures, food supply and wage employment programmes to compensate for the lost entitlements of the victims.

In another volume *India: Development and Participation*, Dreze and Sen (2002) explore the

role of public action in eliminating deprivation and expanding human freedom in India. The analysis is based on a broad and integrated view of development which focuses on well-being and freedom rather than the standard indicators of economic growth. In this volume the authors place human agency at the centre stage and stress the complementary roles of different institutions (social, economic, and political) in enhancing effective freedom. Apart from these classics, a number of articles, reports and field studies published in reputed journals and relevant online study materials concerning the topic are also thoroughly reviewed.

### **Theoretical Issues Concerning Entitlement**

Seminal works of Dreze and Sen constitute the cornerstone of a theoretical framework of MGNREGS concerning protection of entitlement. Sen (2000: 36) views the 'expansion of freedom as the primary end and principal means of development'. He considers five kinds of 'instrumental freedoms', viz. political freedoms, economic facilities, social opportunities, transparency guarantees, and protective security. These instrumental freedoms enhance the capability of a person to live more freely.

In the context of employment guarantee, the freedom of protective security merits significance as it aims at providing social safety net to the disadvantaged. The domain of protective security includes fixed institutional arrangements such as, unemployment allowances and statutory income supplements to the indigent as well as ad-hoc arrangements like famine relief or emergency public employment to generate income for the destitute.

Dreze and Sen (1989: 12) consider poverty and unemployment as deprivation of basic capabilities rather than lowness of income. The 'capability approach' concentrates on deprivations that are *intrinsically* important (unlike low income which is only *instrumentally* significant). Since we are ultimately concerned with the lives we can lead (and income is only instrumentally important in helping us to lead adequate lives), the case for capability approach is quite strong (Sen, 1997, 220). It follows, therefore, that poverty exists when a person lacks the real opportunity of avoiding hunger or unemployment.

Public action needs to be augmented so as to substantially enhance the capabilities of the deprived communities and enable them to lead a reasonably distress-free life. This is not to be considered as a matter of charity; instead, the poor is 'entitled' to a life free from hunger, undernourishment and other conditions of avoidable morbidity. In his epoch-making *Poverty and Famine*, Sen (1981: 45) advances a strong case for 'food entitlement approach' while refuting the conventional 'food availability decline' theory of famine.

In his empirical analysis of four major famines (Bengal 1943-44, Sahel 1968-73, Ethiopia 1972-74, and Bangladesh 1974), Sen concludes that one cannot have a precise idea of the extent of starvation by simply dividing the food availability of a country by its population. Other factors such as volume of income of the affected people, prices of goods, and loss of livelihood also contribute to the magnitude of destitution and starvation. These factors, taken together, are encapsulated in the entitlement approach.

Entitlement roughly indicates the ownership of a person over food in the economy. Starvation occurs when the people cannot establish their entitlement over an adequate amount of food. The mere presence of food in the economy does not entitle a person to consume it. The ability to acquire food has to be earned. A man's ability to command food depends on the entitlement relations that govern possession and use in that society. 'It depends on what he owns, what exchange possibilities are offered to him, what is given to him free, and what is taken away from him' (Sen, 2000: 162). The entitlement theory thus rescues famine from a climate-population framework of analysis and pitches it on the much-needed ingredients of the political economy.

The end of poverty and starvation, therefore, requires firm commitment to the entitlement system, both in the form of social security and through systems of guaranteed employment at wages that provide exchange entitlement adequate to avoid starvation and distress. With the support of experiences and lessons from India (Maharashtra), Cape Verde, Kenya, Zimbabwe, and Botswana, Dreze and Sen (1989: 122-161) strongly put forward the case for employment creation as a strategy for entitlement protection.

In case of India, entitlement protection relies on the operation of administrative system to recreate the lost entitlements caused by droughts floods etc. It also relies on the political system to act as a triggering mechanism to make the administrative structure operational. Entitlement protection through employment generation is not a new strategy in India. Kautilya, in the fourth century BC, spoke of employment creation and redistribution to the poor as parts of a sound administrative system to defeat famines.

During the British rule, the Famine Commission of 1880 recommended for region-specific “Famine Codes” to deal with famine. It also recommended for provision of entitlement protection based on the combination of guaranteed employment at a subsistence wage and unconditional relief for the unemployable (Dreze and Sen, 1989: 123). The Maharashtra famine of the early 1970s was averted on the basis of entitlement protection in the form of employment guarantee (Maharashtra Employment Guarantee Scheme).

Dreze and Sen cite success stories of African nations such as Cape Verde (1975), Kenya (1984), Zimbabwe (1982), and Botswana (1979) in the field of entitlement protection. The three major areas of action on entitlement protection in the African context included: (1) restoration of adequate food availability, (2) large-scale provision of employment for cash wages, and (3) direct food distribution to selected groups.

The lessons from Indian and African successes in averting famine vindicate the importance of entitlement protection system. The general problem of ‘entitlement protection’ has many different facets. Effective famine prevention calls for much more than simply rushing food to the victims when they have started dying of starvation. It involves a network of decisions relating to diverse policy areas such as the generation of incomes, the delivery of healthcare, the stabilization of food prices, the provision of drinking water, and the rehabilitation of the rural economy.

It is obvious now to recognize that “no matter how fast they grow, countries where a large part of the population derive their livelihood from uncertain sources cannot hope to avert famines without specialized entitlement protection mechanisms

involving direct public intervention” (Dreze and Sen, 1989: 158). It has also been observed that diversification of economic activities through wage employment programmes for the vulnerable groups constitute a crucial measure for entitlement protection.

The strategy of guaranteed employment has many *advantages*. The greatest advantage of employment guarantee is that, it is based on “agency” approach. Sen observes that “the approach of relief through employment allows the potential famine victims to be treated as active agents, rather than as passive recipients of governmental handouts” (Sen, 2000: 178). The other advantages include: firstly, it facilitates large transfers to the vulnerable households while imparting a strong redistributive bias to the entitlement protection process. Secondly, employment guarantee with wages in cash is advantageous for market mechanism in the movement and distribution of food.

Thirdly, the strategy is compatible with the idea of state intervention at an early stage of subsistence crisis. Fourthly, it obviates the necessity of movement of entire families to feeding camps and also the necessity of taking food to every village. Fifthly, it preserves family ties as employment is offered near residence. Sixthly, it induces positive market responses in the form of an upward pressure on local wages. Finally, it allows reliance on ‘self-selection’.

As evident from the experience of Maharashtra draught of 1970-73, employment creation strategy needs to be adopted at the initial stage in order to avert famine. Dreze and Sen (1989: 115) rightly observe: “the strategy of employment provision must be seen intrinsically, as a strategy of early intervention. It is primarily ‘preventive rather than curative’ as an anti-famine strategy”. They further assert, “the provision of employment—perhaps with cash wages—combined with unconditional relief for the ‘unemployable’ is likely to be one of the more effective options in many circumstances”.

In the broad parameters of public support for entitlement protection Dreze and Sen (1989: 121) prescribe two alternative strategies, viz, “growth-mediated security” and “support-led security”. Growth-mediated security process works through fast economic growth, and its success depends on

the growth process being wide-based; the utilization of enhanced economic prosperity to expand the relevant social services including healthcare, education and social security.

Countries such as Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, UAE and Kuwait clearly fit into this model. In contrast, the support-led security system does not operate through fast economic growth, but works through a programme of skillful social support of healthcare, education and other relevant social arrangements. This process is well exemplified by the economies such as Sri Lanka, pre-reform China, Costa Rica and Kerala which possess impressive social indicators sans much economic growth.

However, the distinction between the two security mechanisms should not be oversimplified as activism *versus* disengagement on the part of the state; nor should it be construed as a distinction between market and state provisioning. But the real source of contrast lies in the fact that the nations which adhered to the strategy of support-led security had not waited to grow rich before providing large-scale public support to guarantee certain basic capabilities. This in no way should lead one to oppose the values of high growth.

In fact, the higher the growth higher will be government revenue and its capacity to finance public provisioning in health, education, and livelihood security. Although there is no alternative to high growth, it cannot be allowed to undermine the importance of support-led security to address the basic needs of the people. As Sen (2000: 178) puts it, “the support-led process is a recipe for rapid achievement of higher quality of life, but there remains an excellent case for moving on from there to broader achievements that include economic growth as well as the raising of the standard features of quality of life”. It is worth mentioning that the market economies of the western hemisphere espousing the cause of growth-mediated security are also the leaders in respect of public provisioning in key social sectors.

The theory of entitlement protection assumes the protective role of democracy in mitigating economic distress. Sen (2000: 151) has empirically proved that no famine has ever occurred in a functioning democracy. The instrumental values such as free

press, responsible opposition and dissent are central to any democratic system. Democracy as a reward in itself can also help register high growth. In contrast, the authoritarian regimes marked by absence of regular elections, censored press and absence of public criticism, witness frequent famines resulting in low growth rate.

Equipped with standard set of civil and political liberties a functioning democracy is certainly capable of preventing famines. Owing chiefly to these reasons, there has been no case of famine in independent India. In a functioning democracy the government has to face elections, responsible opposition, a free press and the pressure of public opinion. This ensures accountability on the part of the government to respond to public demand. There cannot be any appropriate form of governance structure except democracy to redress the vulnerable groups with their lost entitlements.

### **Concluding Observations**

India is one of the fastest growing economies of the world and a regional power on its own merit. Yet India registers dismal performance in terms of human development (rank 131 among 188 countries) and global hunger (rank 97 among 118 countries) and is home to 26% of the global extreme poor. One in every third of the world’s poor is an Indian. Alongside huge income inequality justifies the presence of the rich as stakeholders of the economy. Piketty and Chancel (2017) prove that the top 1% of income earners have owned 22% of the national income in 2014.

This indicates that the world’s ability to end extreme poverty by 2030- an objective originally adopted by the World Bank and now a key element of the Sustainable Development Goals- hinges on India’s ability to make strong and sustained inroads in reducing poverty. With four out of every five of India’s poor living in rural areas progress must focus on the rural poor. It was in this backdrop that MGNREGS earns relevance as a crucial mechanism for rights-based approach to development.

Any poverty alleviation scheme can hardly be expected to be perfect. Right from the beginning, the scheme had to pass through myriad problems at least at the implementation level. Diverse field studies report certain grey areas within the scheme

hampering its effectiveness. Lack of awareness, creation of fragile assets, inadequate wages, delayed payment of wages, bureaucratic hurdle and corruption pose major constraints to the working of the scheme. Despite these shortcomings MGNREGS has registered tremendous success in transforming the lives of rural poor.

The scheme has substantially increased the per capita income of the people over the years. The national data shows 5% rise in income of people in rural areas due to MGNREGS. Assured income helps them overcome indebtedness and rescue them from the greedy money-lenders. In fact, MGNREGS wages have positive impact on labour market and worker's welfare (Basu, 2011).

The scheme has not only increased the income of the poor but also helped the workers to make preference for non-food items (Ravi and Engler, 2009). In another study Imbert and Papp (2012) concluded that with the introduction of the scheme public employment has increased, casual wages have increased by 4.5% and private sector work by unskilled workers fell by 1.6%. Wages under MGNREGS had an impact on real wages in agricultural sector too. In a study of 209 districts across 18 states Berg and his associates (2013) found that on average MGNREGS wages boost the growth rate of real daily agricultural wages 4.8% per year.

The significant contribution of the scheme has been its positive impact on ultra-leftist elements to come to the national mainstream. Dasgupta et. al. (2015) in their study of 144 sample Maoist affected districts spreading across six states conclude that due to the demand-driven nature of the programme, MGNREGS has been able to curb Maoist violence to a considerable extent.

By now the rich dividends of MGNREGS has been well acknowledged by scholars and policy makers. In a functioning democracy the state cannot afford to remain indifferent to the basic needs of the poor. Entitlement of basic facilities is what the citizens deserve as inalienable right in a civilized nation. Access to employment is an essential component of freedom of economic choice. Absence of such opportunity means depriving the people not only of economic freedom but of hope as well. It is foolish to argue, as the neo-liberals believe, that economic

growth will create employment opportunities. On the contrary, economic growth rate must be seen as the outcome of the full employment policy, and not an end in itself.

Access to employment should not only be a top priority of the government but a constitutionally guaranteed fundamental human right. Ethically it is prudent to argue that the poor need no charity, but opportunity. It is always better to teach the poor the art of fishing than to give them fish. MGNREGS certainly puts emphasis on the former so as to enable the poor to live with dignity.

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## Appraising Time Overrun by NHPs in India

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*[Many studies have been made to analyse the reasons for time overrun by the national highway projects in India. This review paper analyses such studies made by several other authors and tries to find out the real reasons behind such time overrun of national highway projects and also attempts to find out the role of government in providing a solution to this problem. The time overrun of projects will lead to cost overrun of a project and the project will become too costlier which finally has to be endured by the people. Thus, this study helps in finding out the reasons for such problem and helps us to find a solution to reduce the time overrun by insisting the government to do some changes in laws and have cost control over the national highway projects.]*

Infrastructure development is considered as more important for the sustainable economic development of an economy. Inadequate and inefficient infrastructure of an economy will lead to high transportation cost which may prevent the economy from growth even if there is a progress on the other end of the economy. The road sector plays a primary role in development of other sectors in an economy. Thus, a time overrun by a road infrastructure projects may lead to non-accessibility of the public goods and services to the people.

The time overrun variable is "the difference between the estimated project duration and the actual time taken to complete the project".<sup>1</sup> Times overrun of a project will lead to cost overrun of the project which

cannot be rectified back. According to Nagesha Gopalkrishna, a Non-Public Private Partnership (Non-PPP) National Highway projects have experienced 22 months of time overrun on an average and a Public Private Partnership (PPP) National Highway projects have experienced 15 months of time overrun on an average. This has become the reason for Government depending on PPP concern over the Non-PPP concern for infrastructure development in India.<sup>2</sup> This paper analyses the various reasons for time overrun by road projects through various reviews of related literature.

### Related Work

Patil. S.K, Gupta. A.K, Desai. D.B, and Sajane. A.S., made a study on "time performance of different types of construction projects in western

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Maharashtra to determine the causes of delay and their importance according to each of the project participants, i.e., the owner, consultant and the contractor". They found 64 projects had been delayed during the study period. And according to them the 72% of the projects taken for study were provided late, and only 28% completed on time. In their study, according to Clients' respondents, 59% of the public projects were finished late and according to Consultants' respondents, 62% of the projects were finalized late.

The Contractors' respondents, feel 77% of the projects have outdone the duration. According to the study the reason for time overrun by the projects are "Land acquisition, environmental impact of the project, financial closure, change orders by the client, poor site management and supervision by contractor". They believe that the delay is also due to contractor (50% of the response), client (40% of the response) and consultant (10% of the response).<sup>3</sup>

According to J.L. Narayan, Joint Adviser Infrastructure and Projects, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, the reasons for public Projects getting delayed are due to "land acquisition, realignment of public utilities like water supply, power supply line" etc. Some projects suffered due to lack of "proper response from the State Government authorities" and some other projects are delayed due to "contractors requiring award of the contract afresh".<sup>4</sup>

Nagesha Gopalkrishna and Gayithri Karnam analysed that the Government sector projects had time overrun about "70% in 1986 and 40% in 1998" and according to Planning Commission, "83 percent of 700 central infrastructure projects have sustained cost overruns of nearly Rs 1,90,000 crore and delays of up to 12 years". The important causes of this delay are "land acquisition issues, various government clearances, financial issues, and other issues comprise like accessibility to raw materials and equipment, followed by deficit in technical, managerial, and professional expertise of the contractor".<sup>5</sup>

From the above three reviews, it is revealed that the main reasons for delay in implementation of projects or the time overrun by the projects are due to land

acquisition and its related issues. The problems in land acquisition and environment clearances are analysed in the following reviews of related literature.

According to Raghuram. G, Samantha Bastian, and Satyam Shivam, the "Environmental clearances and land acquisitions have been the two major reasons for delays in the projects". But, there are certain projects which are running on schedule because of "better financing, project management, and reform in the regulatory frameworks related to environmental and land acquisition aspects". According to them the "user-fee collection and development of alternate sources of revenue like getting loan from private bank have helped to attract larger investments in mega projects".

Researcher believes that the delay in projects, due to no proper management of the projects will come down if the private sector started to participate in this road infrastructure. The environmental and land acquisition issues are also moving in the right direction as the modification of regulatory framework is done. According to them, the methods used to assess the environmental impact and land acquisition are still done manually, which makes the process slow and it takes more time. Thus, to reduce the time taken for completion and to bring a transparency in the process, the technological instruments are used and they are more effective.<sup>6</sup>

According to Bikram Kumar Dutta, India as a developing country needs infrastructure development for the economic growth of the country. And this needs land which belongs to the people. Government can acquire land from the people for public purpose. The people are reallocated as they have to leave their belongings like home, assets and means of livelihood behind because of this acquisition of land for public purpose. The Government of India (GoI) needs to minimize the larger scale of displacement so they have formulated R&R Policies under "Land Acquisition Act, 1894" which is replaced by "The Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement (RFCTLARR) Act, 2013".

According to the author "the importance of land policies and state control over urban development

had always been a political and economic imperative. Historically, it has been an instrument of exerting political controls. Today in democratic set up, it is a geographic and locational dimension of social and economic development and distribution of the resources. Land and society are profoundly linked: development and evolution of societies is expressed as corresponding to spatial organization".<sup>7</sup>

"Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Act, 2013" states that, the old "Land Acquisition Act, 1894" which was introduced during the British period was repealed and replaced by the "Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Act, 2013". Government of India realized that there is a public concern on land acquisition issues in India and despite many amendments India's "Land Acquisition Act of 1894", is not a consistent general law that talks about fair compensation and rehabilitation and resettlement to the land owners whose lands are taken away by the government for development.

The GoI proposed to have a collective law, dealing with land acquisition process and deals with rehabilitation and resettlement. "The Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Act 2013" exemplifies a change in the land acquisition legislative approach and the provisions for social impact assessment of the proposed projects is been introduced for the first time and recognizes the "non-owners as affected persons like agricultural labourers, tenants, share-croppers or artisans or who may be working in the affected area for three years prior to the acquisition of the land, whose primary source of livelihood stands affected by the acquisition of land". In addition to this, this law has limited the grounds on which the land is acquired by the government under the "urgency clause". But also found that the Act is still problematic in many aspects.<sup>8</sup>

In the opinion of Vikas Nandal, the government authorities have the right to acquire the land from the people forcibly under the "land acquisition act, 1894". The sentiments and emotions of the land

owner towards the land has been given least importance by the government of India. And the compensation given to the land owners, not even reach to the near price of the land in actual term. Another issue is the unclear way of defining the "public purpose" in the law. This helps the Government to acquire the land for even private companies which is unethical.<sup>9</sup>

Amlanjyoti Goswami's working paper reconnoiters the key issues in the new Land Acquisition Rehabilitation and Resettlement (LARR) Bill, which attempts at 'balance' within the larger political context of land acquisition in India". It has also analysed certain questions on the legal and political aspects of land acquisition. On the concept "public purpose", the paper concludes that "even if the new Bill renders the concept less vague, it will still not stop the judiciary from looking into questions of abuse in actual land acquisition or use of the land". The LARR Bill should clearly define the legal framework within which the Judiciary could answer these questions in general, and on "public purpose" in particular.<sup>10</sup>

Maiyreesh Ghatak and Parikshit Ghosh have analysed that the "Indian Parliament has the new Bill on land acquisition recently tabled and said that it is well intentioned but seriously flawed. Its principal defect is that it attaches an arbitrary mark-up to the historical market price to determine compensation amounts. This will guarantee neither social justice nor the efficient use of resources. The Bill also places unnecessary and severe conditions on land acquisition, such as restrictions on the use of multi-cropped land and insistence on public purpose, all of which are going to stifle the pace of development without promoting the interests of farmers".

But an alternative approach has been given by authors that "will allow farmers to choose compensation in either land or cash, determine their own price instead of leaving it to the government's discretion, and also reallocate the remaining farmland in the most efficient manner. The proposed method involves a land auction covering not only the project site but also the surrounding agricultural land."<sup>11</sup>

### **Findings and Conclusion**

Reasons for time overrun by the road infrastructure projects are mainly due to land acquisition and its

related laws and issues in India. In India, land acquisition should be done for ‘public purpose’ only. Public purpose is construction of household and amenities which benefits the entire population. But here land acquisition is done for construction of road infrastructure which doesn’t come under ‘public purpose’. Thus the “old Land Acquisition Act, 1894” enacted during the British period, was repealed and replaced by “The Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement Act, 2013 (also Land Acquisition Act, 2013)”.

To lay down the procedures and rules for granting compensation and to regulate land acquisition, resettlement of the affected people and facilitate their rehabilitation, this law has been introduced in the Indian Parliament. The Act has the provisions to bring transparency to the process of acquisition of land for setting up factories or buildings, providing fair compensation to those whose land is taken away for infrastructural development and infrastructural projects and assures rehabilitation for those affected people in India.

Now this is again replaced by the amendment of the “Right to Fair Compensation and Transparency in Land Acquisition, Rehabilitation and Resettlement (Amendment) Ordinance, 2015” by the Union Cabinet, chaired by the “Prime Minister. The changes in this act will facilitate farmers to get better rehabilitation, resettlement benefits in lieu of land which was forcibly acquired by the Government.<sup>12</sup>

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# Appraising Depression among MSMs in Hyderabad

Bandi Parwathalu\*

*[A systematic review showed that MSM (Men have Sex with Men) population had higher risk of depression & anxiety disorders and two-fold excess in suicide attempts compared to heterosexual men. Stigma, discrimination makes and exclude them from mainstream society and result in poor health outcomes. Being HIV infected could result in psychiatric disorders as a psychological consequence of the infection. Disorders may be as varied as depression, post-traumatic stress disorders, AIDS phobias, grief and the whole gamut of cognitive disorders. There is also strong evidence of the relationship of substance use disorders and severe mental illnesses with HIV/STI infection. Infection related psychiatric disorders also offer a challenge to clinicians in issues of differential diagnosis and management. In this study, Beck's Depression Inventory (BDI) scale used to find the depression level of the MSMs who belong to the Hyderabad city. And reviews indicate that there is a nominal research in understanding mental health issues and coping mechanisms among MSMs in India. Therefore, this study was carried out on depression among MSM population in the district of Hyderabad of Telangana state, India.]*

**D**epression is a mental health condition marked by an overwhelming feeling of sadness, isolation and despair that affects how a person thinks, feels and functions. The condition may significantly interfere with a person's daily life and may prompt thoughts of suicide. Depression can affect all ages, races and socioeconomic classes, and can strike at any time.

Everyone feels sad or low sometimes, but these feelings usually pass with a little time. Depression—also called “clinical depression” or a “depressive disorder”—is a mood disorder that causes distressing symptoms that affect how you feel, think, and handle daily activities, such as sleeping, eating, or working. To be diagnosed with depression, symptoms must be present most of the day, nearly every day for at least 2 weeks (National Institute of Mental Health).

## Causes of Depression

Scientists at NIMH and across the country are studying the causes of depression. Research suggests that a combination of genetic, biological, environmental, and psychological factors play a role in depression. Depression can occur along with

other serious illnesses, such as diabetes, cancer, heart disease, and Parkinson's disease. Depression can make these conditions worse and *vice versa*. Sometimes, medications taken for these illnesses may cause side effects that contribute to depression symptoms. For more information on ongoing research on depression, visit [www.nimh.nih.gov.in](http://www.nimh.nih.gov.in).

There are multiple variations of depression that a person can suffer from, with the most general distinction being depression in people who have or do not have a history of manic episodes. Depressive episode involves symptoms such as depressed mood, loss of interest and enjoyment, and increased fatigability. Depending on the number and severity of symptoms, a depressive episode can be categorized as mild, moderate, or severe.

An individual with a mild depressive episode will have some difficulty in continuing with ordinary work and social activities, but will probably not cease to function completely. During a severe depressive episode, on the other hand, it is very unlikely that the sufferer will be able to continue with social, work, or domestic activities, except to a very limited extent.

Bipolar affective disorder typically consists of both manic and depressive episodes separated by periods of normal mood. Manic episodes involve

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elevated mood and increased energy, resulting in over-activity, pressure of speech and decreased need for sleep. (Developed by Marina Marcus, M. Taghi Yasamy, Mark van Ommeren, and Dan Chisholm, Shekhar Saxena "DEPRESSION A Global Public Health Concern").

### **Risk Factors**

The exact cause of depression is not known. Many researchers believe it is caused by chemical changes in the brain. This may be due to a problem with your genes, or triggered by certain stressful events. More likely, it's a combination of both. Some types of depression run in families. But depression can also occur if you have no family history of the illness. Anyone can develop depression, even kids. The following may play a role in depression: Alcohol or drug abuse, certain medical conditions, Sleeping problems, Stressful life events, Divorce, Childhood abuse or neglect, Job loss, and social isolation. (Debjit bhowmik<sup>1</sup>, K.P. Sampath Kumar<sup>2\*</sup>, Shweta Srivastava<sup>3</sup>, Shravan Paswan<sup>3</sup>, Amit Sankar Dutta (Vol. 1 No. 3 2012) "THE PHARMA INNOVATION Depression - Symptoms, Causes, Medications and Therapies retrieved from [www.thepharmajournal.com](http://www.thepharmajournal.com))

### **Review of Literature**

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 7.6 percent of people over the age of 12 have depression in any 2-week period. This is substantial and shows the scale of the issue. *Depression* (2015, October 7). Retrieved from <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/fastats/depression.htm>

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), depression is the most common illness worldwide and the leading cause of disability. They estimate that 350 million people are affected by depression, globally. *Depression* (2016, April). Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs369/en/>

**CHENNAI:** More than half of the MSM (men who have sex with men) community is prone to depression, and about 28% show high alcohol use due to psycho-social pressures, according to a pilot study done over two years in Chennai. Depression and alcohol dependence are linked to lack of family support, societal disapproval and low self-esteem, among other reasons. (Priya M Menon |TNN|Apr

5, 2012, "50% MSM prone to depression: Study". *Times of India*).

### **Psychosocial issues - Stigma, low self-esteem, and depression**

Studies have also revealed that stigma has been shown to contribute to negative self-images and low self-esteem, depression, increased sexual risk behaviour and/or decreased use of HIV prevention services. Engaging in unprotected sex perhaps is related to low self-esteem due to marginalization and stigma. The silence and secrecy associated with institutional stigma and discrimination may provide ideal conditions for escalation of the AIDS epidemic. This included stigma from health providers, employers and other service providers.

These challenges pose serious obstacles to effective HIV services provision as stigma, discrimination and harassment can hinder access to HIV and sexual health services and prevention programmes. An understanding of issues around stigma and discrimination would help MSM cross the barriers associated with stigma with respect to sexual risk, disclosure issues and access to health care. (Beena Thomas<sup>1</sup>, Matthew J. Mimiaga<sup>2,3,4</sup>, Senthil Kumar<sup>1</sup>, Soumya Swaminathan<sup>1</sup>, Steven A. Safren<sup>2,4</sup> & Kenneth H. Mayer<sup>4,5</sup> (*Indian J Med Res* 134, December 2011, pp 920-929), *HIV in Indian MSM: Reasons for a concentrated epidemic & strategies for prevention*". *Review Article*).

In addition, there are very limited data on the prevalence of depression among MSM in India. One study found 55 per cent of 210 participants screened in for clinical depression on a self-report measure. Screening in for depression was associated with having had unprotected anal sex, and higher numbers of male partners. Additionally, statistically significant bivariate predictors of meeting the screen in for depressive symptoms included sexual identity (Kothi > Panthi), not being married, not having a child, family not knowing about one's MSM identity, having been paid for sex, and perceiving that one is at risk for acquiring HIV.

Given the estimated level of depression among this population, a strong mental health component should be incorporated into interventions for MSM. (Safren SA, Thomas BE, Mimiaga MJ, Chandrasekaran V, Menon S, Swaminathan S, et

al. *Depressive symptoms and human immunodeficiency virus risk behavior among men who have sex with men in Chennai, India. Psychol Health Med 2009; 14: 709-15).*

**Research Design**

For this study, descriptive research design was chosen and purposive sampling from Non-probability sampling method. Selection of the area has Hyderabad, which is located in Telangana state, India. The sample size was 163 from universal registered (283) MSM population.

**Measurements**

For the study, to know the Depression among MSMs, the researcher selected Beck’s Depression Inventory (BDI), it has 21 questions to measure the level of the depression that belongs to the Hyderabad city of Telangana state of India. And this depression inventory can be self-scored. The scoring scale is at the end of the questionnaire and each question carried the score value 0 to 3.

**Interpreting the Beck Depression Inventory**

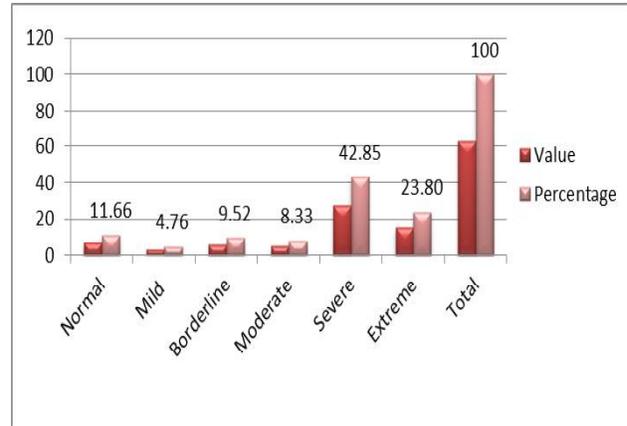
Now that you have completed the questionnaire, add up the score for each of the twenty-one questions by counting the number to the right of each question you marked. The highest possible total for the whole test would be sixty-three. This would mean you circled number three on all twenty-one questions. Since the lowest possible score for each question is zero, the lowest possible score for the test would be zero. This would mean you circled zero on each question. You can evaluate your depression according to the Table below.

Total Score	Levels of Depression
1-10	These ups and downs are considered normal
11-16	Mild mood disturbance
17-20	Borderline clinical depression
21-30	Moderate depression
31-40	Severe depression
Over 40	Extreme depression

**Discussion**

The factors that influenced participation in depression among MSMs study in Hyderabad city where MSMs who are between age from 18 to 40

older, the sample (n=163) from Kothi (Receptive) and Panthi (Penetrative). The participants have reported that normal range depression level 11.11% (percent) and only 4.76 % mild depression level among the community members. Borderline depression level 9.52 % has shown that greater than (>4.76) mild and moderate level (>7.94) depression among the MSMs community irrespective of education, age and income of the members.



facing the severe depression level and the study results shown that 42.86 %, greater than extreme depression (>23.81%) due to low self-esteem, lack of social and family support. And 23.81% participants have been facing the extreme depression level due the above reasons. Lesser the mild, moderate, borderline and normal level of depression and found higher the severe and extreme level of depression among the MSM community regardless of their caste, education, status, and income.

Social exclusion, stigma and discrimination of the MSMs are increasingly used in highlighting the issues and problems depression and they became a disadvantaged group to the health services (HIV/AIDS/ART and STI). Many case studies revealed that due to stigma, it contributed to the negative self-image, low self-esteem, and depression increased the sexual risk behavior like unprotected sex, escaping from the use of condoms and/or decreased the HIV prevention services. This is the challenges to effective HIV prevention service programmes implementation. An understanding of issues of stigma and discrimination would help to MSMs cross the obstacles and increased access of health care.

## Conclusion

HIV/AIDS prevention programmes for Indian MSMs could benefit from conceptualization of risk from the individual to group consideration of psycho-social, cultural and interpersonal determinants. When the other than MSM community understand and sensitive the issue of the MSM's stigma and depression and it could be help to effective implementation of the HIV prevention services to the MSM community.

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## Gender Issues in Gujarat

Dr. Sanjay A. Pandya\*

*[All the countries in the world are striving for economic development. Developing countries are trying to eliminate poverty and unemployment through their economic development while developed countries continue to strive for their economic growth at further levels. "Economic development is not possible without the participation of human resources. Population is a human resource. Human resources stand for both means and the end. The economic development depends upon the human capacity to use the natural resources. Moreover, the ultimate goal of economic development is to increase human well-being. Economic development is not possible without the participation of the human resources."<sup>1</sup> There are two bases of human resources - male and female. The joint efforts of these two pillars are important to accelerate economic growth.]*

India is one of the world's fastest growing economies. Without proper participation of half the population i.e. women, country like

India (or any country) cannot make proper and possible progress. Today, women have made unprecedented progress in every field of life, the world over. There is no such area where women have not attained their eligibility. Woman has

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proven herself equal to man in all fields. She shaped herself into a talented scientist, a scholar teacher, an ideal housewife, a pilot, a doctor, a politician, an astronaut etc. All the fields, including defense - aviation, women participation is notably increasing.

However, it is also a fact that in most countries of the world, women have to struggle for their legitimate rights. This is why gender equality index has been introduced. "Gender inequality in India refers to health, education, economic and political inequalities between men and women in India"<sup>2</sup> In the human development, status of women has been evaluated separately in human development index too. In present paper, women's literacy and sex ratio and the difference in this has been discussed. This difference has also been discussed in a way of differences at rural and urban levels.

Gujarat is one of the leading states of India in the realms of economic and industrial development, per capita income-urbanization etc. But Gujarat is ranked 17th in terms of literacy ratio in the country. Literacy rate in Gujarat has seen upward trend and is 78.03 percent as per 2011 population census. Of that, male literacy stands at 85.75 percent while female literacy is at 69.68 percent, which indicates that the female literacy is very less in Gujarat state.

Gujarat is 22nd in sex ration among 28 states of India. Gujarat (42.58%) is fourth most urbanized state of India. So, in this paper changes in the population, literacy and sex ratio of Gujarat state (from 1961-separation of Gujarat state to 2011-last census) have been examined and the question of gender equality has been examined in these matters. Rural urban differences have also been discussed in these matters.

### **Objectives**

*The core objectives of the present paper are as under:*

1. To present statistical scenario of literacy rate, sex ratio and urban-rural population of Gujarat, from the year 1961 to 2011.
2. To throw light on the literacy, sex ratio and urban-rural population and changes in the state of Gujarat.
3. To examine the rural-urban difference in the literacy rate and sex ratio.
4. To discuss gender equality in these matters.

### **Research Methodology**

"The present paper has been prepared by using secondary data. "Secondary data, which means already available data i.e. the data already collected and analysed by others and available may be either published data or unpublished data."<sup>3</sup> The most reliable sources have been used for this purpose.

### **Importance of the Study**

Education plays a vital role in the development of any nation whether it is social or economic growth. A nation can be educated in the real sense of the term, when its entire population is educated. "A person who can read and write a simple message in any language with understanding is considered literate."<sup>4</sup> India's literacy rate has improved manifold, from 12% in 1947 to 74.4% in 2011. Even though, the literacy rate is still below the average of 84% around the world. As per 2011 census report, there is a huge gap between male (82.14%) and female (65.46%) literacy rates in India.

Gujarat is one of the leading states, but it is ranked 17th in terms of literacy rate and 19th in terms of female literacy in the country. Low women literacy rate has a huge negative impact on the overall growth and development of the society – where women are majorly responsible for child care and development. Education plays a positive part in the progress of any country where women are about 50% of the total population. Education is the key to their standard of living, self-reliance, protection of their rights etc. So, in the presented paper, female literacy and changes of it and difference in male-female literacy has been discussed which show its usefulness.

According to the census of 2011, the sex ratio is low in all the states of India (excluding Kerala 1084 and the Union Territory Pondicherry 1037). The sex ratio is low in Gujarat; sex ratio has decreased from 940 to 919 in the period of 1961-2011 in Gujarat. In the case of the age group of 0-6 years, the condition of sex ratio is more serious. The child sex ratio is 918 against 894 in India and Gujarat. Therefore, these types of changes in the sex ratio in the state may cause serious concerns.

The imbalance of the male female ratio may lead to anarchy in the structural system of society and may also spread disorder in the social system. So, in

the present paper, changes in sex ratio in rural and urban population have been discussed.

Urbanization helps in accelerating the economic growth and increases the level of per capita income. Many countries of the world have had such kind of experience. “Cities are engines of growth because they “manufacture” wealth. This is literally true as most manufacturing occurs in urban locations. That is why rich economies are predominantly urban, and those economies that are largely rural are relatively poor.

The transition from a poor economy to a rich one depends on the transition of the majority of the population from being rural to urban.<sup>5</sup> Gujarat is

among the most urbanized states of India. Gujarat (42.58%) is fourth most urbanized states after Tamil Nadu (48.51%), Kerala (47.72%) and Maharashtra (45.23%). Thus, in Gujarat the sex ratio and literacy have also been examined in the context of urbanization.

Even though literacy rate is high, female literacy is still low in all the states of India. At such a juncture, urbanization, which is an important element for accelerating economic growth and industrial development, has become need of the time. In such a situation, the study of the changes in the sex ratio, female literacy and its relative time in the rural areas and in the urban areas in the state of Gujarat deems appropriate.

**Table - 1**  
**Growth of Population in Gujarat State (1961-2011)**

Census	Rural Population			Urban Population			Total Population		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1961	15316726	7830222	7486504	5316624	2803680	2512944	20633350	10633902	9999448
1971	19200975	9842483	9358492	7496500	3960011	3536489	26697475	13802494	12894981
1981	23484146	11986672	11497474	10601653	5565968	5035685	34085799	17552640	16533159
1991	27063521	13884299	13179222	14246061	7470910	6775151	41309582	21355209	19954373
2001	31740767	16317771	15422996	18930250	10067806	8862444	50671017	26385577	24285440
2011	34694609	17799159	16895450	25745083	13692101	12052982	60439692	31491260	28948432

Source: Statistical Abstract of Gujarat State-2014, Director of Economics and Statistics, Government of Gujarat Gandhinagar, pp. 16-17.

Table No.-1 shows the population details in every census during the period from 1961 to 2011 in

Gujarat. The table shows the details of the population rural and urban and male and female separately. It is further revealed from the table that there has been a steady increase in population in Gujarat. There has been an increase in male and female ratio in rural and urban areas.

**Table-2**  
**Decadal Growth of Population in Gujarat State**

Census	Rural Population			Urban Population			Total Population		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1961									
1971	3884249	2012261	1871988	2179876	1156331	1023545	6064125	3168592	2895533
1981	4283171	2144189	2138982	3105153	1605957	1499196	7388324	3750146	3638178
1991	3579375	1897627	1681748	3644408	1904942	1739466	7223783	3802569	3421214
2001	4677246	2433472	2243774	4684189	2596896	2087293	9361435	5030368	4331067
2011	2953842	1481388	1472454	6814833	3624295	3190538	9768675	5105683	4662992

Source: Statistical Abstract of Gujarat State-2014, Director of Economics and Statistics, Government

of Gujarat Gandhinagar, Page, 26- 27.

Table No. 2 shows the numerical additional details of the population during each census. It is evident in the detail of the table that there has been increase in the population in every census (in both male and female) in the urban area. It is almost similar position

in the total population (excluding the 1981-1991 period), when there is no specific trend discernible in rural population growth. It is so precise that the population has consistently increased at a high rate.

**Table-3**  
**Decadal Growth of Population in Gujarat State**

Census Year	Population %		Density Per sq. Km.	Sex Ratio		
	Rural	Urban		Rural	Urban	Total
1961	74.23	25.77	110	956	896	940
1971	71.92	28.08	136	951	893	934
1981	68.90	31.10	174	959	905	942
1991	65.51	34.49	211	949	907	934
2001	62.64	37.36	258	945	880	920
2011	57.40	42.60	308	949	880	919

Source: Statistical Abstract of Gujarat State-2014, Director of Economics and Statistics, Government of Gujarat Gandhinagar, Page, 16-17.

Table No.-3 shows the detail of urban and rural population, density and sex ration in urban and rural areas in every census during the period from 1961 to 2011 in the state of Gujarat. Table details show that even though there has been a steady increase in the rural population, its percentage ratio has declined constantly. That is, the rapid urbanization has taken place in Gujarat. Urbanization is considered as an important part of development because urbanization helps in accelerating the economic growth and increases the level of per capita income. Gujarat is among the most urbanized states of India.

According to the 1961 census, density of Gujarat was 110 persons per sq.km. In 1971, the density increased to 136. In 1981, 1991 and 2001 the density increased to 174, 211 and 258 respectively. Density of population as per last census 2011 is 308 persons per sq.km. in Gujarat. As the state's geographical area remains stable, the increase in density of population has increased in every census with population increase.

Sex Ratio is defined as the number of females per thousand males. It is ideal condition of population in which there are 1000 men against 1000 women. In India, there has been imbalance in sex ratio for a long time and with the passage time this imbalance further widened. From 1961 to 2011, sex ration has decreased from 940 to 919 in the state of Gujarat. Gujarat is 22nd in sex ratio among 28 states. If we examine the gender ratio separately from rural and urban areas in the context of the state of Gujarat, it can be seen that the rural sex ratio in Gujarat is 949. Sex ratio of entire Gujarat state was 946 in 1911. In this way, it can be said that even today in rural Gujarat, sex ratio is what it was in 100 years ago.

Even though, sex ratio also decreased in the rural areas; however, its proportion is much lower than the urban area. In Gujarat, sex ratio in urban areas is 880. Sex ratio of less than 880, out of the major 28 states of India, is only in Haryana (879), which represents the seriousness of the condition of the sex ratio of the urban areas of Gujarat. However, a little consolation is that it has not decreased during the last decade (1901-1911).

*(.....Continued the Next Issue)*

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