



Status of Irrigational Development during the First Decade of Economic Reforms – A Study

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Abstract: The Economic Reforms in India have been initiated forcefully not only industrial sector but also the rest of sectors like primary and service, it is well known fact for all. The economic reforms given some fruitful results but these are not spread over the economy, because the results have not been distributed for all the sections. Still majority of the population are vulnerable sections and those are in BPL, illiteracy, unemployment especially those are in rural areas and majority of them are depending agriculture and its allied activities as the main occupation. In general the agriculture in India is gamble with monsoons and these are uncertainty. To overcome the uncertainty situation in agriculture, the number of programmes, schemes and projects has been initiated in planning period by the state and central governments. Even though these problems still exist in our economy especially in the rural India. This paper mainly uses the secondary data collected from various official reports especially the agriculture census 2001 and the official web data have been gathered by the researcher.

Keywords: Irrigation, planning period, economic reforms, agriculture, sectors

Introduction:

India is mainly an agricultural country. Agriculture is the most important occupation for most of the Indian families. In India, agriculture contributes about sixteen percent (16%) of total GDP and ten percent (10%) of total exports. Over 60 % of India's land area is arable making it the second largest country in terms of total arable land. Agricultural products of significant economic value includes rice, wheat, potato, tomato, onion, mangoes, sugar-cane, beans, cotton, etc. Though, with the growth of other sectors, the overall share of agriculture on GDP of the country has decreased from the initiation of economic reforms. Still, Agriculture continues to play a dominant part in the overall economic scenario of India. This sector has contributing the food and fodder for essential human beings and cattle management. India produces large quantity of food grains (274 million tonnes) such as millets, cereals, pulses,

etc. A major portion of the food-stuffs produced is consumed within the country. It is providing the large scope for the export of commercial and some food process crops, in 2013 fy, 39 billion of dollars value of agro-based produce we got by the trade. As per the planning commission reports half of the Indian mass directly depends on agriculture sector as directly. In addition to this the primary sector providing the raw material for some of the agro-based industries as the result another 10 to 15 percent of employment has been generated in secondary and tertiary sectors. In the 1960 and 70 decades the green revolution began in India with the objective of strengthen the agriculture and providing the food for all, but the results are limited some of the crops and some of the areas and at the same time some negative shades are also emerged in the economy. It is due to the lack of proper irrigational sources and other



infrastructural facilities in the agriculture.

Irrigation is the fuel for the agriculture and the human beings, it is having its own importance such as increase in agricultural production and productivity. Provision of irrigation facilities can make possible the growing of two or three crops in a year in most areas of the country. Assured irrigation can give the good results on the green revolution. Irrigation helps in stabilising the output and yield levels. It also plays a protective role in promoting the both income and employment for uneducated rural youth. Irrigation has enabled many states to acquire 'partial immunity' from drought relief. It helps in developing allied activities, means of water transport etc. are improved income of government from agriculture. Availability of regular water supply will increase the income to farmers. The irrigated land share is 17.0 percent in 1950-51 and at present raised to around 40.0 percent to the gross cropped area in 2014-15 FY. Even though 60.0 percent of cropped area depends on the monsoons. Due to this fact 60.0 percent of land is in uncertainty conditions. Hence, the importance of irrigation is, however, the availability of irrigation facilities which is highly inadequate in India. To overcome the long standing problem irrigation, the central and state governments have been initiated the number of steps in the form of different irrigational projects during the before and after the LPG periods. Some of the irrigational development programmes and policies have given here under.

At the beginning of planning in India in 1950-51 irrigation schemes were divided

into three categories – Major, costing more than Rs 5 crore each; medium costing individually between Rs. 10 lakh Rs. 5 crore each; and minor, costing less than Rs 10 lakh each. A new classification was adopted in April 1978. According to this classification, major schemes as those) having CCA (Cultivable Command Area) between 2,000 hectares and 10,000 hectares, and minor schemes as those having CCA of less than 200 hectares.

Common Area Development (CAD) programme and flood control. The outlay on irrigation and flood control in the Tenth Plan (2002-07) had been kept at Rs. 1,03,315 crore. Substantial expenditure has gone in for developing the major and medium irrigation potential specially the major river valley project like the Bhakra Nangal Project (Punjab), Beas Projects (Punjab and Haryana), Hirakund Dam Project (Orissa), Damodar Valley Corporation (Bihar and West Bengal), Nagarjuna Sagar Project (Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka), etc. However, minor irrigation continues to occupy an important place as its share in the total irrigation potential. Consequently in the Fourth Five Year Plan new schemes were introduced. Fifth Five Year Plan also introduced a comprehensive programme and 38 command area development authorities were set up covering 50 irrigation projects. Rural Infrastructure Development Fund was launched to provide loans to the State Government for financing rural infrastructure projects including soil conservation and watershed management etc. In 1996-97, programme called "Accelerated Irrigation Benefit Programme" was launched by the Government of India. Under this programme, The Centre provides additional assistance by way of loans to



the states on matching basis for early completion of selected large irrigation and multi-purpose projects. The Ninth Plan noted that irrigated area, which constitutes only about 40 per cent of the total cultivated area, contributes almost 60 per cent of the food-grain production in the country. This shows the contribution of irrigation to agricultural output. Massive investment was made on irrigation during the planning period. From Rs 455 crore in the 1st Plan, the expenditure on irrigation rose to Rs 36,649 crore in the 8th Plan. The outlay for irrigation and (flood control in 9th Plan was Rs 63,682 crore. Of this, Rs. 48,259 crore its account for 76.0 percent was for major and medium irrigation projects and the balance Rs. 15,423 crore its equals to 24.0 percent for minor irrigation.

Review of Literature:

Ministry of Water Resources (2005)

Vedas & ancient Indian scriptures made references to wells, canals, tanks & dams. There is evidence of practice of irrigation since the establishment of settled agriculture during the Indus Valley Civilization (2500 BC). In the south, perennial irrigation may have begun with construction of the Grand Anicut by the Cholas as early as second century to provide irrigation from the Convery River. **Govt. of India (2008)** the irrigation potential through major, medium, & minor irrigation projects has increased from 22.6 Million Hectares in 1951, to about 102.77 Million Hectare at the end of 2006-07. **Sne, M. (2006)** emphasized on micro irrigation as a system which has matured into reliable water & fertigation management system for crop production. Micro irrigation is in arid & semi arid regions as an effective water conservation & demand management measure to cope up with the

increasing scarcity of water in agriculture. **Ramachandran, (2010)** highlighted the benefits of irrigation to agriculture. According to him, without agriculture, man cannot live & without irrigation man cannot have agriculture. He realized, the food is essential for human beings as well as for animals for their sustenance. Before irrigation, man satisfied his hunger by eating fruits from the forest & drinking water from natural streams. Slowly man's demands grew & men felt the need of different types of food. So cultivation & growing crops has been started. To produce crops regularly by resisting drought he suggested the application of different irrigation methods. **Vaidyanathan. (2008)**

described the water resource management in India after Independence & a major shift towards integrated water shed development in rain fed areas reducing waste & over exploitation of water & more efficient use of irrigation water. For example, he selected Chennai city as a case study to deal the urban water scene, its systematic use & management.

In this connection the above mentioned studies are highlighted the some of the importance of irrigation in the development of agriculture, particularly watersheds, micro irrigation and project based canal irrigation etc have been covered but this study used agriculture census data at national level for 2001 year. Why because the above mentioned studies are not covered the agriculture census data.

Objectives of the Study:

1. To study the importance of agriculture and irrigation in the Indian context.
2. To identify the irrigation status for different landholding.



3. To discuss the source of irrigation for the different landholdings.

Methodology:

The present study is purely based on the secondary data. The data has been collected from the Department of Agriculture and Cooperation, the other official and published data in journals and books are also used. This study examined the irrigational sources in India. The observations emanated from the study are as follows:

Discussions and Results:

The graphical presentations of net irrigated area and net sown area in 2000-01 and percentages are given from Table - 1 during the 1995 - 96 to 2001. The proportion of irrigated area to net area sown for all categories of holdings was 38.9 percent in 2000-01 as compared to 37.5 percent in 1995-96, i.e., an increase of about 1.4 percent. This indicates improved irrigation facilities during the period between the two censuses.

Sl. No.	Major size classes	Net Irrigated Area		Net Sown Area		Percentage of Irrigated Area to Net Area Sown	
		1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01
		1	Marginal	12280	12383	24599	24259
2	Small	10576	10888	27389	27845	38.61	39.10
3	Semi-medium	12401	11928	34360	32594	36.09	36.60
4	Medium	12208	11542	35654	32006	34.24	36.06
5	Large	5490	4870	19059	15936	28.81	30.56
	All Size Classes	52955	51611	141062	132640	37.54	38.91

Source: Agriculture Census 2001

The percentage of irrigated area to net sown area was the maximum for the marginal holdings which has increased from 49.9 percent during 1995-96 to 51.0 percent during 2000-01. The percentage of irrigated area to net sown area declined with the increase in the size of holdings and it was the lowest for the large holdings (30.6 percent) during the same Census. The percentage distribution of wholly irrigated, partly irrigated and wholly un-irrigated holdings and area by five major size classes during 2000-01 is given in Table - 2. In the case of fully irrigated holdings as much as 70.0 percent were in the marginal category followed by small (16.6 percent), semi-medium (8.9 percent), and medium (3.9 percent). The large holdings accounted for 0.6 percent. In terms of net area sown among the wholly irrigated holdings, as much as 27.5 per cent belonged to marginal category followed by small and semi-medium (about 22.0 per cent each), medium (20.1 per cent) and large (8.3 percent). Thus, under the category of wholly irrigated, both number of holdings and net sown area have decreased with the increase in the size of holdings. In the case of partly irrigated holdings also, the marginal holdings accounted for the highest share, viz., 42.5 percent which decreased with the increase in the size of holdings.



Table – 2: Distribution of Landholdings by Wholly and Partly Irrigated in India 2000-01. (Number in '000), (Area in '000 ha.)

Sl. No.	Major size classes	Wholly irrigated		Partly irrigated			Wholly un-irrigated	
		No. of holdings	Net sown area	No. of holdings	Net sown area	Net Irrigated Area	No. of holdings	Net sown area
1	Marginal	27766	11174	5496	2388	1209	28064	10697
		(70.01)	(27.53)	(42.48)	(9.76)	(10.97)	(55.93)	(15.83)
2	Small	6592	8874	3064	4151	2014	11249	14820
		(16.62)	(21.86)	(23.74)	(16.97)	(18.28)	(22.42)	(21.93)
3	Semi-medium	3533	9023	2511	6309	2905	7017	17263
		(8.91)	(22.23)	(19.45)	(25.78)	(26.37)	(13.99)	(25.54)
4	Medium	1538	8152	1535	7863	3390	3187	15990
		(3.88)	(20.08)	(11.89)	(32.14)	(30.76)	(6.35)	(23.66)
5	Large	229	3369	300	3756	1501	659	8810
		(0.58)	(8.30)	(2.33)	(15.35)	(13.62)	(1.31)	(13.04)
	All Size Classes	39658	40592	12907	24467	11018	50176	67581
		(100.00)	(100.00)	(100.00)	(100.00)	(100.00)	(100.00)	(100.00)

Note: (1) Totals may not tally due to rounding off. (2) Figures in brackets are percentages.

Source: Agriculture Census 2001

Like earlier censuses, this census has also details about the source of irrigation, namely, canals, tanks, wells, tube-wells and other sources for which data were collected. The distribution of source-wise irrigated holdings and net irrigated area for all social groups during Agriculture Censuses 1995-96 and 2000-01 may be seen in Table – 3. The maximum proportion of holdings received irrigation in Agriculture Census 1995-96 was from tube wells (37.3 percent) followed by canals (26.7 percent), wells (17.9 percent), other sources (9.6 percent) and tanks (8.5 percent). The maximum area was also irrigated by tube wells (37.3 percent) followed by canals (30.4 percent), wells (20.7 percent), other

sources (6.5 percent) and tanks (5.2 percent).

The distribution of area irrigated by different sources of irrigation according to five major size classes during Agriculture Census 2000-01 may be seen in the Table – 4. Tube wells were the most important source of irrigation in terms of percentage of area irrigated from this source to the total irrigated area (40.1 percent). The similar percentages in the marginal, small, semi-medium, medium and large categories of holdings were 43.8, 39.8, 39.7, 39.0 and 35.2 respectively which showed a declined trend as the size of holdings increased.



Sl. No.	Sources of Irrigation	1995-96		2000-01	
		Number of holdings*	Net Irrigated Area	Number of holdings*	Net Irrigated Area
1	Canals	1569 (26.69)	16079 (30.36)	13656 (24.97)	14577 (28.25)
2	Tanks	5000 (8.46)	2727 (5.15)	4227 (7.73)	2258 (4.37)
3	Wells	10587 (17.92)	10959 (20.70)	9672 (17.69)	9215 (17.86)
4	Tube-wells	22049 (37.32)	19725 (37.25)	20398 (37.31)	20711 (40.13)
5	Other Sources	5669 (9.60)	3465 (6.54)	6727 (12.30)	4849 (9.40)
	All Sources	59074 (100.00)	52955 (100.00)	54680 (100.00)	51611 (100.00)

Source: Agriculture Census 2001

Note: (1) * This includes holdings irrigated by more than one source. However, the number of irrigated holdings was only 55.9 million and 52.6 million during 1995-96 and 2000-01 respectively. (2) The figures in brackets are percentages.

Sl. No.	Major size classes	Area irrigated by					
		Canals	Tanks	Wells	Tubewells	Other sources	Total
1	Marginal	3405 (27.50)	855 (6.91)	1295 (10.46)	5419 (43.76)	1409 (11.38)	12383 (100.00)
2	Small	2929 (26.90)	587 (5.39)	1968 (18.08)	4335 (39.82)	1069 (9.82)	10888 (100.00)
3	Semi-medium	3219 (26.99)	463 (3.88)	2496 (20.92)	4740 (39.74)	1010 (8.47)	11928 (100.00)
4	Medium	3447 (29.87)	276 (2.39)	2506 (21.71)	4502 (39.00)	811 (7.03)	11542 (100.00)
5	Large	1578 (32.39)	77 (1.59)	951 (19.52)	1715 (35.21)	550 (11.29)	4870 (100.00)
	All Size Classes	14577 (28.25)	2258 (4.37)	9215 (17.86)	20711 (40.13)	4849 (9.40)	51611 (100.00)

Source: Agriculture Census 2001: Note: Figures in brackets are percentage of area irrigated by different sources to total area irrigated for each category of holdings.



Canals were the next source of irrigation after tube wells, which is evident from the fact that the area irrigated by this source was 28.3 per cent of the total irrigated area against 40.1 per cent by tube wells. The percentage of irrigated area to the total irrigated area by canals increased with the increase of the size of holdings from small holdings to large holdings, by virtue of the percentages being 27.5, 26.9, 27.0, 29.9 and 32.4 in marginal, small, semi-medium, medium and large holdings. In the case of wells, the percentage distribution over different size groups of holdings varied from 10.5 percent in the case of marginal holdings to 21.7 percent in the case of medium holdings. The details regarding the number of wells and tube-wells used for agricultural purposes were collected in

agriculture census 2000-01. The details of the estimated number of wells and tube-wells during 1995-96 and 2000-01 may be seen in separate Table 5 respectively.

It may be observed from Table 5 that sufficiently large number of wells i.e. 25.6 percent were out of use and the rest 74.4 per cent were in use fitted with either pumpsets or otherwise. The total numbers of wells within the operational holdings were estimated to be about 11.8 million, out of which 3.0 million were not in use during 2000-01. The total numbers of wells during 1995-96 within the operational holdings were estimated to be 11.3 million out of which 3.24 million or 28.0 percent were not in use. About 0.6 million wells have increased from 1995-96 to 2000-01.

Table – 5 : Estimated Number of Wells in India Major Size Classes 1995-96 and 2000-01.

Sl. No.	Major size classes	Number of wells(Number in '000)							
		In use				Not in use		Total	
		With pumpset		Without pumpset		1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01
		1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01				
1	Marginal	2190 (39.68)	3366 (49.07)	709 (12.84)	1020 (14.86)	2621 (47.48)	2475 (36.07)	5520 (100.00)	6861 (100.00)
2	Small	1589 (76.56)	1661 (78.71)	255 (12.28)	198 (9.36)	232 (11.16)	252 (11.93)	2076 (100.00)	2110 (100.00)
3	Semi-medium	1512 (79.18)	1322 (81.52)	231 (12.11)	137 (8.43)	166 (8.72)	163 (10.05)	1910 (100.00)	1622 (100.00)
4	Medium	1131 (81.27)	834 (82.98)	157 (11.26)	65 (6.45)	104 (7.48)	106 (10.57)	1391 (100.00)	1005 (100.00)
5	Large	287 (77.17)	180 (79.99)	49 (13.26)	11 (5.01)	36 (9.58)	34 (15.00)	373 (100.00)	225 (100.00)
	All Size Classes	6710	7363	1401	1430	3159	3029	11269	11823
	Total	(59.54)	(62.28)	(12.43)	(12.10)	(28.03)	(25.62)	(100.00)	(100.00)

Source: Agriculture Census 2001: Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentages.

The numbers of wells not in use have decreased by about 0.13 million during this period. Among the different size classes, the highest proportion of wells not in use were observed among

marginal holdings i.e. 36.1 percent which decreased with the increase in the size of holdings except large which means that larger holdings keep better maintenance of their wells. About 63 percent of the



total wells were fitted with pump sets for all categories of holdings. The lowest proportion was found amongst the marginal holdings (49.1 percent) which increased with the increase in the size of holdings except in large.

The distribution of tubewells, both electric and diesel according to major size classes may be seen in Table 6. The electric powered tubewells were commonly used which was about 57.0 percent during 2000-01 against 49.4

percent during 1995-96. The rest of the tubewells i.e. 43.0 per cent were run by diesel in 2000-01 against 50.6 per cent in 1995-96. The highest proportion of electric tubewells used was found among the large holdings (72.7 per cent) which declined with the decrease in the size of holdings, an opposite trend was observed in case of diesel powered tubewells in Agriculture Census 2000-01 i.e. the use of tubewells run by diesel decreased with the increase in the size of holdings.

Table -6
Distribution of Electric and Diesel powered Tube-wells in Major Size Classes in India, 1995-96 and 2000-01.
(Number in '000)

Sl. No.	Major size classes	Number of tube-wells in use					
		Electric		Diesel		Total	
		1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01	1995-96	2000-01
1	Marginal	718 (44.21)	1272 (48.97)	906 (55.79)	1325 (51.03)	1623 (100.00)	2597 (100.00)
2	Small	578 (42.86)	843 (52.90)	771 (57.14)	751 (47.10)	1350 (100.00)	1594 (100.00)
3	Semi-medium	747 (51.88)	883 (62.28)	693 (48.13)	535 (37.72)	1440 (100.00)	1418 (100.00)
4	Medium	721 (56.94)	758 (69.10)	545 (43.06)	339 (30.90)	1266 (100.00)	1097 (100.00)
5	Large	224 (60.92)	219 (72.65)	144 (39.08)	83 (27.34)	368 (100.00)	302 (100.00)
	All Size Classes	2989	3975	3059	3032	6048	7007
	Total	(49.42)	(56.73)	(50.58)	(43.27)	(100.00)	(100.00)

Source: Agriculture Census 2001

Note: Figures in brackets indicate percentages.

Conclusion and Suggestion

The foregoing analysis reveals the different issues on the agriculture and irrigational facilities available to the farmers during the first decade of New Economic Reforms in India. The study carried out with three objectives, to study the importance of agriculture and irrigation, it is discussed in the introduction part, the second objective is

to identify the status of different landholdings and third one is to discuss the source of irrigation facilities for different landholdings. These two objectives have been analysed in the discussion part. In the discussion part, the study under taken 6 tables with the secondary source of data by the agricultural census 2001. The net area sown for all categories of holdings was 38.9 percent in 2000-01 as compared to



37.5 percent in 1995-96, during the study period in the first decade of economic reforms, the increased irrigation area is about 1.4 per cent only. Fully irrigated landholdings as much as 70.0 per cent and the rest of the land is partially irrigated, in the both aspects the marginal landholdings are at significant level. The net irrigated area by partly irrigated holdings increased with the increase in the size of holdings up to medium size group of holdings. The un-irrigated holdings decreased with the increase in the size of holdings, the marginal being 55.9 per cent and the large only 1.3 per cent. Maximum percent of landholdings received irrigation from tube well followed by canals, wells and other in 1995 - 96 and in 2001 census canal, tanks and well irrigation has come down, tube wells and other sources are increased is a significant way. The pump set as the means of irrigation has increased between the two census years. Electrical power has remarkable change as positive and the diesel pump set have decreased during the study period. Thus the study covered all the objectives and it can be concluded that, the irrigational source have to be strengthen through the cooperative water management societies. There is a need to provide sufficient facilities to purchase irrigational instruments on the subsidised prices and also free supply of power to small and marginal farmers to overcome their debt burden in the rural areas.

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Impact of Commodity Exchanges in India: Case of MCX in India

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Abstract: Most of our understanding and analysis of financial markets gets restricted to stocks, bonds, debentures etc. at the neglect of other growing financial institutions and markets. One such market which is less understood and investigated is the Commodities Market. Post 2008 Global Financial Meltdown Crisis, has witnessed a phenomenal growth of Commodity Futures Markets in India and are emerging as tools of price discovery, hedging price risk and as an investment avenue. This paper is based on a field data collected across India to investigate the people involved in value chain of commodities like bullion, mentha oil, cotton, potato, cardamom, pulses, petroleum, base metals and facilitators like traders, intermediaries, IT service providers, researchers and educators. This research captures the hitherto unexplored knowledge domain of Commodity Markets and its impact on Socio-Economic aspects like price discovery, price risk management, employment generation, income generation, investment of the income generated and women's empowerment. The main ground for this investigation is to take stock of the benefits generated and at the same time look at some pain points and opportunities to realise untapped potential.

Key words: agricultural commodities, non-ferrous, healthy sign

Introduction:

A market where commodities are traded is referred to as a commodity market. These commodities include bullion (gold, silver), non-ferrous (base) metals such as copper, zinc, nickel, lead, aluminium, tin, energy (crude oil, natural gas, etc.), agricultural commodities such as soya oil, palm oil, coffee, pepper, cashew, etc. Existence of a vibrant, active, and liquid commodity market is normally considered as a healthy sign of development of a country's economy. Growth of a transparent commodity market is a sign of development of an economy. It is therefore important to have active commodity markets functioning in a country. In traditional markets, shortage of a commodity in a given season would lead to increase in price for the commodity. Neither farmers

nor merchants were happy with this situation since they could not predict what the prices would be on a given day or in a given season. It was in this context that farmers and food grain merchants in Chicago started negotiating for future supplies of grains in exchange of cash at a mutually agreeable price. This effectively started the system of commodity market forward contracts, which subsequently led to futures market too. Chicago Board of Trade (CBOT) was established in Chicago in 1848 to bring farmers and merchants together. It started active trading in future-type of contracts in 1865.

The government appointed four different committees (Shroff Committee in 1950, Dantwala Committee in 1966, Khusro Committee in 1979, and Kabra



Committee in 1993) to go into the regulatory aspects of forward and futures trading in India. In 1996, the World Bank in association with United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) conducted a study of Indian commodities markets.

In the post-liberalization era of the Indian economy, it was the Kabra Committee and the World Bank-UNCTAD study that finally assessed the scope for forward and futures trading in commodities markets in India and recommended steps to revitalize futures trading.

There is a huge domestic market for commodities in India since India consumes a major portion of its agricultural produce locally. Indian commodities market has an excellent growth potential and has created good opportunities for market players. India is the world's leading producer of more than 15 agricultural commodities and is also the world's largest consumer of edible oils and gold. It has major markets in regions of urban conglomeration (cities and towns) and nearly 7,500 plus agricultural produce Marketing Cooperative (APMC) mandis. To add to this, there is a network of 27,000 plus *haats* (rural bazaars) that are seasonal market places of various commodities. These marketplaces play host to a variety of commodities everyday. The commodity trade segment employs more than five million traders. Many of these commodities would be traded on the futures markets as food-processing industry grows at a phenomenal pace.

With the liberalization of the Indian economy in 1991, the commodity prices (especially international commodities

such as base metals and energy) have been subject to price volatility in international markets, since India is largely a net importer of such commodities. Commodity derivatives exchanges have been established with a view to minimize risks associated with such price volatility. Three nationwide electronic exchanges and 21 recognized regional commodities exchanges in India had an estimated total combined turnover of Rs.27,39,000 crores for the year 2006-2007. This has been a quantum leap from Rs.1,29,000 crores in 2003-2004. Still, there is a large scope for increase in volume of futures trading in India.

Established in 2003 at the backdrop of the financial sector reforms MCX today stands out as a good standard for growth, diversity and inclusion in the Indian financial sector. MCX has connected people from the remotest of the villages and busiest metros in India with commodity markets across the globe and while doing so it has championed the spirit of local enterprise and entrepreneurship. It has proved that world class financial institution can be created. In India, whether the vision of development has Indian requirements holding center stage. By India_whether market strategies envisaged by Indian enterprises for market development and growth are envisaged and prevent by Indian enterprises and entrepreneurships. For India__where benefits percolate to Indian farmers, enterprises and people.

In fact trading volumes on commodity exchanges come entirely from the local farmers and indigenous enterprises as bank, mutual funds and FII not yet permitted to trade in this platform. MCX



has developed comprehensive eco system of services these include discovery of future purposes, spot prices production, production planning, choice of market, distribution and delivery, storage, market knowledge, risk management and ware house receipt based financing.

Methodology and Data

To capture the extent of the impact of commodity markets on any socio-economic aspects would be a herculean task as the scope of the impact and the population is unknown. After a lot of initial brain storming with the experts in the field of commodities, we ventured to undertake an in-depth study at all India level. As locations were diverse the study team visited most of the places in India like Rajkot, Gondal, Jalgaon, Agra, Moradabad, Chandausi, Chennai, Kolkata, Bangalore, Kerala, Mumbai and Ahmadabad to administer the questionnaires. This also ensured that flow of the information is uniform, authentic and could be cross verified by existing information to affirm the arguments presented by the respondents. Photography with prior permission was used extensively to present the study visually.

The beauty of the field investigation is that it throws up many findings which are normally lost when we merely analyse only the secondary data. This paper is based on a field data collected across India to investigate the people involved in value chain of commodities like bullion, mentha oil, cotton, potato, cardamom, pulses, petroleum, base metals and facilitators like traders, intermediaries, IT service providers, researchers and educators. A questionnaire was developed to capture various aspects of the commodity eco-system. This research

captures the hitherto unexplored knowledge domain of Commodity Markets and its impact on Socio-Economic aspects like price discovery, price risk management, employment generation, income generation, investment of the income generated and women's empowerment. It has also influenced growth of infrastructure, IT and IT enabled services, new generation entrepreneurs/traders, innovations in products.

Primary Agriculture Products

In the agriculture sector, it has developed comprehensive eco system of services these include discovery of future prices, spot prices, production planning, choice of market, distribution and delivery, storage, market knowledge, risk management and ware house receipt based financing.

The other significant observations in the field investigation are, first, the growth of awareness among farmers about the 'fair prices' after the promotion of 'real time' price dissemination in the major *mandies*/APMCs. Decision making by farmers is now more broad based; today a farmer is more aware about what to sow and when to sell the products (given that there is storage capacity) due to futures market information presented to her/him at their door step through media and communication.

Haji Naeem (Small Mentha Farmer):

"Till a few years back, there was no access to mobiles and the internet. Prices were literally dictated down to us by local middleman. Now, we have access to current prices that are being quoted online".

Bullion Market : There has been a definite impact of commodity market as a



platform for high price risk volatility management in bullion, base metals and energy products. With the futures market platform of high risk management, a number of producers have survived the high price volatility arising out of Post 2008 Global Financial Meltdown Crisis. If we want to calculate the direct benefits arising out of hedging on electronic exchanges, the calculations would be astronomical. Hedging has also protected the loss of income to the producers and paved way to expand their business without much hassles.

In the words of H.P.Rajdev (Gold Importer & Trader): "Another advantage for the jewellery remains that he sells the jewellery in the market, He realizes that 100% value of the jewellery. On the other hand when he covers his position in the MCX. He hedges his entire position at just 5% of the margin. So, 95% of the money will remain with him as long as he is not physically buying gold from the market."

Base Metals: The benefits of MCX extend beyond agricultural commodities. A plethora of stakeholder ranging from SMEs, enterprises to corporate trading houses across the entire the length and breadth of the real economy have also benefitted. Global prices of commodities have witness unprecedented volatility over the last few years this has put an immense burden on lacks of SMEs and other small entrepreneurs who depended on this commodities as raw materials. It is MCX which introduced efficient and transparent hazing tools for this commodities and this has unable this business to combat and absorb the impact of this fluctuations. Few observations by the manufacturers is presented here,

Suraj Chawla (SME Aluminum Utensils Manufacturer): "For 100% market share for house hold utensils. Small scale industry creates almost 50-60%, worldwide. Which is quiet a huge number. The MCX has now come up with another platform where one can trade aluminum which I think being a manufacturer is quiet beneficial over the period of time where we can foresee what the price is, try and fix a rate, inturn which will benefit us. So, that we know our margins are fixed".

Hemant Pathak (Senior Export Manager, Jindal Alluminium): "MCX provides one platform to give a hedging or to make hedging and then safe guard the raw materials cost at least from the fluctuation and then offer the clients abroad a uniform price for longer period of validity".

Major Impacts of the Commodity Exchanges: How MCX achieved this remarkable feat has been the result of many well timed innovations. It introduced in Indian commodity market. It foreside in operating low hedging costs ensuring wide scale adaptation by participants thus benefited the entire economy. In fact the cost of hedging on MCX is comparable or even lower than commodity exchanges in Chicago, Jiang Jhai, Dalian, and Winnipeg.

Employment Generation: Its record in contribution to jobs and numerous others economic opportunities is equally staller. This is made possible by the nation widened infrastructure of trading terminals set up by MCX. Looking at the employment generation estimates reveal that, there are 350000 trading terminals in the country, assuming 2 persons works across two shifts, this ends up to 700000



people. And an average of 1.5 persons as support staff (IT, back office, compliance, accounting) around each terminal and this number ends up to million jobs created and if one looks the score of indirect job created this number will be in the region of 2 to 3 million.

Other related jobs identified in the primary survey include risk managers, insurance, utility suppliers, info vending services, hospitality services, trade associations, software solutions and vendors, casual workers & warehouses, stationary providers, media and news services, government departments, corporate treasurer desks, research analyst, IT providers, warehouse receipt financing, quality control and check, ware houses, sales managers, regulators, godown keepers, financial advisors, external auditors, communications, infrastructure developers, transportation workers, training providers, IT support, exchange traded fund, security personnel, events and special programme, compliance officers, attributors, back office executive. Women's presence which was hitherto abysmal has expanded in fields of trading, research, teaching, front and back office management and in IT enabled services.

Growth of Infrastructure: There has been a sustainable growth of infrastructure - cold storages, vaults, transport and logistics associated with the expansion of commodity markets. Infrastructure expansion has also contributed to the growth of sustained employment and income generation. For example in the field visit of Agra it is observed that the cold storages for potatoes had gone up from mere 20 in 2008 to 200 by 2012-13. There has also been expansion of storage and

warehousing facilities across India by MCX in cotton, mentha etc.

Information Technology (IT and IT enabled services): When we visited different places, one thing which was striking was the impact of IT & telecommunications along with the growth of electronic exchanges on income and employment generation. They have thrown open tremendous employment and income opportunities for traders, sub-brokers, franchises, commodity analysts, software developers, hardware (as part of trading terminals), increase in network service providers, media & communication and text messaging & 'real-time price' service providers. The volumes of employment and income generation is something which needs to be investigated in a more scientific way through proper sampling design in future to capture a broad based socio economic impact of the commodity markets.

New Generation Entrepreneurs/ Traders: Commodity markets are facilitating the growth of a new generation of entrepreneurs. In the field investigation it is found that a number of brokers, traders and producers are first generation economic beneficiaries of the commodity markets, who have expanded business with growing opportunities.

Innovations in information dissemination: A key innovation by MCX in connecting farmers with the modern commodity market was the GraminSuvidha Kendra (GSK) set up in collaboration with India post. Today it spans six state and thousands of farmers through 575 branch post offices. SheetalSuryavanshi (Post Master) explained the process, "we receive a copy



of the price list through post office. Thereafter, the prices are written on the board for all the farmers and traders to see". Laxman Baburao Patil (Cotton farmer) said "the GSK indicates if the markets are bullish or not. I can then decide if I need to sell or hold onto my produce". Sanja Patil (GSK coordinator) explained that, "we hold meeting with farmers to explain the price information system. Farmers are provided with seeds to enhance product quality".

Increase in Tax collection: Increased contribution towards the government exchequer through various direct and indirect taxes, collected along with the expansion of commodity trading. However precise tax contribution to the exchequer is not conclusively known, therefore it requires validation through further scientific investigation.

Conclusion: Despite this demonstrated success some doubts still in role and functioning of commodity exchanges. In 2013, NSEL scam of Rs 5,600-crore came into lime lite and that had an impact on the MCX trading. Data from the Forward Markets Commission - the regulatory body for commodity futures trading - shows that MCX had a market share of 89 per cent in the first fortnight of April 2013, and this shrank to 75 per cent by the end of December 2013. There is no direct connection between MCX and

NSEL, except that both share a promoter — Financial Technologies. However, as MCX too operates in commodities trading, this event lead to tighter regulatory scrutiny of the latter. The Government is said to be readying new regulations to govern spot exchanges to plug these loopholes. It removed the promoters from the MCX management and has fixed the SEBI as regulator for the same. The new management is appointed by the Government of India to continue the working of MCX. By 2016 the stock price and business of MCX has been regaining its old stature. Worldwide, commodity markets account for five times the volumes of equity markets, and since this is not yet the situation in India, there is great potential in the sector. This study was conducted to get basic insights into commodity market scenario across value chains of different commodities. Further studies on the socio-economic impact of commodity markets would facilitate the informed introduction of many innovations of financial instruments like options trading etc.

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Inter-State Variations in the Incidence of Poverty in the Post-reforms India

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Abstract: India has been one of the fastest growing economies in the world achieving GDP growth rates at 7 to 8 percent. However, Poverty still stares at the masses, mostly, in rural areas, Poverty is multi-dimensional in nature and so different policy interventions are needed to eradicate it. The dream of India to become one of the Super powers in the medium term lies in its ability to drive out poverty.

Key words: anti-poverty, employment generation, inter-state variations

Introduction:

Poverty in India has a historical legacy at the base due to the colonial rule of about two centuries. Even since India got independence, the National Government has been striving to reduce it through planned development and employment generation programmes besides specific anti-poverty measures. Poverty rate in India had been decreasing in the 50s, 60s, 70s and in 1987-88, before the Economic Reforms it was 38.9 percent. Over the years, methods of poverty computation have been changing and the poverty line went on modifications. The figures published by the planning commission reveals that poverty rate in 2004-05 was 37.2 percent and it decreased further to 29.8 percent in 2009-10. Rural poverty is relatively more when compared to urban poverty in both 2004-05 and 2009-10.

In its annual reports of 2012 Reserve bank of India has provided poverty statistics for rural, urban and combined, percentages of the people below the poverty line (BPL) for each state or union territory. Against this background an attempt is made in this research paper to examine the inter-state variations in the incidence of poverty in the post-reforms India. In this connection it is pertinent to note that the Lakdawala

Committee recommended in 1993 that poverty lines are to be calculated for each state / UT in view of the wide variations in the economic and living conditions.

Objectives: The basic objective of this paper is to examine the trends in the incidence of poverty with emphasis on the post-reforms period. Variations in the incidence of poverty among the states and UTs with the latest data are also analysed.

Materials and Methods: Data is purely secondary collected from the publications of the Government of India, Reserve Bank of India and other institutions. Simple tools of research analysis like averages and percentages are used to interpret data.

Review of Earlier Studies: Researchers academicians specialized committee, Reserve Bank of India and other institutions and Inter-National organizations like World Bank and IMF have analysed "Poverty" from different dimensions over the years. Angus Deaton and Jean Drezz (2002) in their study have presented a new set of poverty and inequality estimates for India state-wise for 1987-88, 1993-94 and 1999-2000. Poverty estimates in their study are consistent with per-capita expenditure, state domestic product and real



agricultural wages. The study reveals that the trends in the poverty decline in the 1990's have been in line with the earlier trends. However, regional disparities increased in the 1990s with the southern and western state doing much better than the Northern and Eastern states. The study has also noted economic inequalities between urban and rural areas by taking health and education indicators.

Rodrik (1999) states that openness in trade and investment is not an effective mechanism to achieve sustained economic growth as it can lead to economic inequalities and external shocks. Internal pressures of this nature initiate domestic conflicts and economic instability. Further, Rodrik empirically suggests that import substitution strategies followed by many developing countries worked well earlier. He also questions the validity of evidence in favour of free trade and less government intervention.

Jha Raghavendra (2000) analysed the poverty and inequality in 14 major states of India. The study concludes that the regional inequalities have not shown any falling tendency. The co-efficient of the rural head count ratio has been increasing over time and there is a greater dispersion of rural poverty across states.

Nirupam Bajpai and Jeffrey D.Sachs in their study divided the Indian states into three category; Reform oriented, intermediate reformers and lagging reformers. They conclude that the reform oriented state like Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Gujarat and Tamilnadu are the fastest growing states in the post-reform period. Further, the study reveals that these states have performed better in terms of socio-economic indicators like foreign

investment, software exports, primary health and education.

The studies on poverty by P.D Ojha (1967-68), Dandekar and Rath (1968-69), B.S Minhas (1967-67), P.K Bardhan (1968-69) Montek Ahluwalia (1977), Gaurav Dutt and Martin Ravallion (1989), Minhas et.al (1991), Planning Commission (1997) and S.Mahendra Dev and C.Ravi (2004-05) are significant in the poverty studies.

This research paper makes an attempt to analyze the incidence of poverty in India first and then focuses on the interstate variations in the incidence of poverty across the state/UTs in India by using the latest data published by the Reserve Bank of India.

Analysis:-

Incidence of poverty declined sharply in the 1980s. In the post-reform era also it has declined at a slow pace. Concepts, definitions and calculating mechanisms have changed. As such estimates of poverty vary since methodologies of calculation are different. National Institute of Rural Development has given its estimates as follows.

Table-I
Percentage of Poor in India Since 1973

Year	Percentage of Poor
1973-74	54.9
1977-78	51.3
1983	44.5
1987-88	38.9
1993-94	36.0
1999-2000	26.1
2004	23.6

Source: National Institute of Rural Development (2004); Rural Development Statistics (2002-03)



Data shows that more than half of the Indians were poor in the 1970s. Poverty gradually decreased and became less than one fourth in 2004. Reduction of poverty in the post-reforms period is significant.

However, planning commission has estimated poverty ratios for 2004-05

and 2009-10 based on the reports of the Expert group to review the methodology for estimation of poverty. These estimates reveal poverty ratios for the states and union territories. Data is presented in Table-II here under.

Table-II: Incidence of Poverty in 2004-05 and 2009-10 State / UT wise

State	% of Poverty		State	% of Poverty	
	2004-05	2009-10		2004-05	2009-10
A.P	29.9	21.1	Maharastra	38.1	24.5
Arunachal Pradesh	31.1	25.9	Manipur	38.1	47.1
Assam	34.4	37.9	Meghalaya	16.1	17.1
Bihar	54.4	53.5	Mizoram	15.3	21.1
Chattisgarh	49.4	48.7	Nagaland	9.0	20.9
Delhi	13.1	14.2	Orissa	57.2	37.0
Goa	25.0	8.7	Pondicherry	14.2	1.2
Gujarat	31.0	23.0	Punjab	20.9	15.9
Haryana	24.1	20.1	Rajasthan	34.4	24.8
Himachal	22.9	9.5	Sikkhim	31.1	13.1
J & K	13.2	9.4	Tamilnadu	40.6	17.1
Jharkhand	45.3	39.1	Tripura	40.5	17.4
Karnataka	33.4	23.6	U.P	40.9	37.7
Kerala	49.7	12.0	Uttarakhand	32.3	18.0
M.P	48.6	36.7	West Bengal	34.3	26.7
			All India	37.2	29.8

Source: Planning Commission 2009 and 2012 reports

Figures in the table reveal that poverty at the National level has decreased from 37.2 percent to 29.8 percent between 2004-05 and 2009-10. It is evident that some states and Union territories have performed extremely well in reducing poverty. Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, Pandicherry, Tamil Nadu, Tripura and Uttarkhand are the fore runners in reducing poverty while a few like Bihar, Chattisgarh, Assam, , Manipur and Uttar Pradesh Laa behind. Other states and UTS are also in the comfortable zone as to the reduction of poverty.

Reserve Bank of India in its Annual Reports of 2012 has provided poverty statistics, state wise and UT wise. The data shows that poverty ratio for the Nation is 21.92 percent while Goa with just 5.09 percent of poverty is at the top. The States / UTS are grouped into three categories viz A; B and C. UTS/States with less than 12 percent of poverty ratio are in A; 12 to 22 percent in B and above 30 percent are in category "C". In other words A, B category units are below the National Average of poverty while "C" category units are above average.



Table-III (A): The States / UTs with less than 12 percent of Poverty Ration

State / UTs	Poverty Ration
Goa	5.09
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	1.0
Andhra Pradesh	9.20
Haryana	11.16
Himachal Pradesh	8.06
J & K	10.35
Kerala	7.05
Meghalaya	11.87
Punjab	8.26
Sikkim	8.19
Tamil Nadu	11.28
Uttarakhand	11.26
Daman and Diu	9.86
Delhi	9.91
Lakshadweep	2.77

Source: RBI Report (2012)

Majority of the states in category "A" above performed well in the reduction of poverty as shown in Table-II earlier. The incidence of poverty in the category A States / Uts is not of serious nature and it would be wiped out in the short term with appropriate strategies.

Table-III (B):States / UTs within 12 to 22 percent of Poverty Ratios

State / UTs	Poverty Ratio
Gujarat	16.63
Karnataka	20.91
Maharastra	17.35
Mizoram	20.40
Nagaland	18.88
Rajasthan	14.72
Tripura	14.05
West Bengal	19.98
Chandigarh	21.81

Source : RBI report (2012)

All the States / UTS in B category are below the poverty ratio at the

National level which is 21.92. Among them a few are close to category. "A" and majority of them have the incidence at less than 20 percent.

Category "C" States / UTS are given here under where poverty ratios are higher than the National Average. These states have to design and implement proper strategies to reduce the incidence of poverty.

Table - III (C): States / UTs with above 22 percent of Poverty Ratio

States / UTs	Poverty Ratio
Arunachal Pradesh	34.67
Assam	31.98
Bihar	33.74
Chattisgarh	39.93
Jharkhand	36.96
Madhya Pradesh	31.65
Manipur	36.89
Odisha	32.59
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	39.31
Uttar Pradesh	29.43

Source: RBI report (2012)

Six of the ten units in this category have more than 1/3 of their population stepped in poverty. Chattisgarh is at the top in having more poor people followed by Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Jharkhand and Manipur. Uttar Pradesh is at the bottom with the lowest percentage of poor. However, Bihar, Chattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh are among the major states of India afflicted by poverty.

Findings:-

- 1) Poverty in India had declined considerably from 54.9 percent in 1973-74 to 20+ percent by 2012.



2) Different methods of calculations and estimates are unanimous in showing the decline in poverty.

3) Incidence of poverty varies across the states and UTs in India. Goa, Pandicherry, Kerala, Punjab are at one extreme end with little incidence while Chattisgarh, Jharkhand and Bihar are at the other end with higher levels in excess of 30 percent.

4) Of the 34 States / UTs reviewed in this study 25 are below the National average of poverty in 2012. Incidence of poverty in these States / UTS is less than 22 percent.

5) Lag behind states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Chattisgarh, Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh have to tighten their belts to eradicate poverty through policy designs.

Conclusion:-

Poverty becomes more glaring in India since a section of the society is deprived of the basic minimum needs of life while the elite enjoy a luxurious life. It involves socio-economic and political deprivations as the poor lack education, skills, health services and a comfortable living. They are denied minimum standard of living, not to speak of decent standard of living.

India has been one of the fastest growing economies in the world achieving GDP growth rates at 7 to 8 percent. However, Poverty still stares at the masses, mostly, in rural areas, Poverty is multi-dimensional in nature and so different policy interventions are needed to eradicate it. The dream of India to become one of the Super powers in the medium term lies in its ability to drive out poverty.

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Declining Institutional Credit to Agriculture in the Reforms Period

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Abstract: Despite the significant expansion of financial institutions in India the quantum of credit provided to the farm sector by them is inadequate. At present Indian agricultural needs higher investment to adopt new technologies. Agricultural production depends on the availability of timely credit. The credit needs of the marginal and small farmers who are in majority are to be addressed by the institutional sources, especially, commercial banks and co-operatives. The co-operative credit structure is to be revamped to make it effective in serving the credit requirements of the farmers. Indian farmer always faces uncertainties from weather, pests, market oscillations and the support prices decided by the government. It is to be accepted by all those concerned with economic development that agriculture is the prime mover of the economy.

Key words: support prices, family expenditure, pay off

Introduction:

Farmers in India are in the need of credit for short period of less than 15 months for cultivating crops and for meeting family expenditure. They need medium term credit ranging between 15 months to 5 years to make improvements of the land and to purchase cattle and other agricultural equipment. Sometimes they need credit to buy additional land, to pay off old debts, and to purchase agricultural machinery like tractor and pump sets. Credit requirements of the Indian farmers are productive and unproductive. Productive purposes include agricultural inputs and improvements to the farms while unproductive purposes are in the form of celebration of marriages, education of the children, health related expenditure, court cases and religious functions. Indian farmers depend on institutional and non-institutional sources for credit. Co-operative banks, commercial banks and Regional Rural Banks are the institutional agencies which charge low rates of interest. Non-institutional

sources comprise money lenders, traders, commission agents, relatives and friends. Interest rates charged by the money lenders, commission agents and traders are high with stringent terms of repayment.

The financial sector reforms as part of overall economic reforms have weakened the flow of institutional credit to agriculture. Prior to liberalization, Nationalization of Banks in 1969 made credit available to the farm sector on priority basis along with Co-operatives. Narasimham Committee report on financial reforms (1992) recommended dilution of priority sector lending including agriculture by the commercial banks. Though priority lending to agriculture has not been totally removed commercial banks evinced little interest in providing agricultural credit sticking to the commercial norms. Agricultural in India has been facing credit crunch amidst crop failures and uncertain and un-remunerative prices. Non-Institutional sources of credit demanding higher rates of interest have forced the farmers into distress leading to crop



holidays and growing suicides. Regional rural banks have also adopted commercial principle and the co-operative credit has been shrinking. Its share in total institutional agricultural credit decreased from 59 percent in 1980-81 to 23.8 percent in 2008-09. Rural branches of the commercial banks were 58.2 percent of the total branches in 1990 and they decreased to 36.9 percent by 2012. The share of agriculture in total Bank credit decreased from 15 percent in 1991-92 to 12.2 percent in 2011-12.

All these trends show that the lending by the institutions to the farmers has been affected considerably. This research paper analyses the institutional credit flow to the farm sector in the post-reforms era.

Objectives:-

- 1) To examine the trends in the credit flow of the commercial banks to the farm-sector in the post reforms period.
- 2) To find out the trends in the credit provision to the agricultural sector by the cooperatives.
- 3) To find out the relative shares of institutional and non-institutional credit between 1951 and 2002.

Materials and Methods: Data is secondary collected from Handbook of statistics on Indian Economy RBI (2012) and the Report of Expert group on Agricultural Indebtedness (2007). Simple averages and percentages shall be used while analyzing the data.

Review of Literature:

Singh et al (2012) in their study state that the share of agriculture in GDP has declined from over half at the time of independence to less than one fifth at present, agriculture still remain the prominent sector in terms of employment and income generation as

more than half of the work-force in India are engaged is it as the principal occupation. Kumari (2005) contends that modern technology under Green Revolution has necessitated more capital for building farm infrastructure and meeting operational cost. Kaur (2012) opines that borrowings from the farm households are indispensable due to floods, droughts and other natural calamities. Rupindar Kaur and Karamjeet Kaur (2013) have analysed the problem of indebtedness among the marginal and small farmers in Kaithal district of Haryana. It is noted that majority of the farmers have borrowed loan amounts to purchase farm inputs and to meet family expenditure. Expenditure income gap constrains the farmers to divert the loan amounts for unproductive use. NSSO (2003) data reveals that the adherence to the commercial performance by the commercial banks has become a constraints on bank credit to agriculture. Narasimham Committee of Financial Reforms (1992) recommended for the dilution of priority sector lending, including agriculture. Instead of expansion some of the commercial banks closed the rural branches. Consequently farmers depend on money lenders and traders for loans accepting to pay exorbitant rates of interest. The All India Debt and investment survey (1981) reveals that the share of non-institutional sources in total credit decreased from 93 percent to 37 percent in 1981 and money lenders accounted for 16 percent.

Data Analysis: Total bank branches, rural branches and their share in the total bank branches in India are presented for selected years in the Table-I.



Table-I: Bank Branches and Rural Branches

Year	Total Branches	Rural Branches	Percentage of Rural Branches
1991	60,220	33,206	58.5
1995	62,367	33,004	52.9
2000	64,939	32,857	50.6
2005	68,355	32,082	46.9
2010	85,324	32,525	38.1
2011	90,620	33,800	37.3
2012	97,111	35,850	36.9

Source: *Hank Book of statistics on Indian Economy, RBI (2011-12)*

Figures in the table reveal interesting facts on the expansion of bank branches. It is noted that the increase in the bank branches between 1991 and 2012 is 61.3 percent. But the increase in the rural branches in 2012 over 1991 is just 8 percent. If taken in percentage terms rural branches decreased from 58.5 percent to 36.9 percent during the post-reforms period. It implies Urban and Semi-Urban branches of the banks have increased from 41.5 percent to 63.1 percent under the commercial concern

and prudential norms. Rural branches provide credit to farm activities and with the decrease in their number credit flow to agriculture is affected and the farmers are pushed to the non-institutional sources.

Trends in the agricultural credit provided by the commercial banks as percentages of total bank credit are presented in Table-II.

Table-II: Shares of Agriculture as a Proportion of Total Bank Credit

Year	Shares of Agriculture
1991-92	15.0
1995-96	12.2
2000-01	12.1
2005-06	12.4
2009-2010	13.7
2010-2011	12.6
2011-2012	12.2

Source: *Hank Book of statistics on Indian Economy, RBI (2011-12)*

It can be found from the data that the share of lending to agriculture in the total was 15 percent in 1991-92, the year of reforms. Although, credit to agricultural sector has been less than 15 percent except in 2009-10. The reluctance of the commercial banks in providing credit to agriculture is evident empirically as observed. The norms and priorities of the commercial banks in

lending have under gone changes in the era of reforms.

Cooperatives provide credit to the farmers and they assumed importance as a source of institutional credit. Trends in the cooperative credit to agriculture are given in Table-III.

Co-operatives provides 59 percent of the agricultural credit in 1980s and it decreased to 47.3 percent in 1990-91.



During the reforms period it went on declining to 23.8 percent by 2008-09. The decrease is by more than 35 percentage points. It implies that the farming community has been constrained to approach non-institutional sources after the reforms.

Table-III: Share of Cooperatives in Agricultural Credit

Year	Share of Cooperatives (Percent)
1980-81	59.0
1990-91	47.3
2004-05	42.7
2008-09	23.8

Source: Hank Book of statistics on Indian Economy, RBI (2011-12)

With a view to find out the relative shares of institutional and non-institutional sources in the debt of cultivator households data is processed in Table-IV.

Table-IV: Relative shares of Institutional and Non-Institutional Sources in the debt of farm households (In percentage terms)

Source	1951	1991	2002
Institutional	7.3	66.3	61.1
Non-Institutional	92.7	30.6	38.9
Unspecified Money lenders	-	3.1	-
As part of non-institutional	69.7	17.5	26.8

Source: Expert group report on Agricultural Indebtedness (2007)

As per the data the share of Institutional credit substantially increased to 66.3 percent in 1991 from a meager 7.3 percent in 1951. However after 1991 it

decreased to 61.1 percent. Non-institutional credit to the farm households increased by 8.3 percentage points and again credit from money lenders increased by 9.3 percentage points, Economic reforms have encouraged credit flow to metropolis centres and big cities due to which credit needs of the rural people, especially, farmers are drifted to the money lenders and other agencies of non-institutional credit.

Findings:-

1. Rural branches of the commercial banks have decreased in the post reform period.
2. Share of agriculture in the total bank credit has declined with the reforms.
3. The share of co-operatives in agricultural credit has come down by more than 35 percentage points between 1980-81 and 2008-09.
4. The share of non-institutional sources in the debt of farm households has increased after 1991 with money lenders again resuming their role as important source of agricultural credit.

Conclusion:-

Despite the significant expansion of financial institutions in India the quantum of credit provided to the farm sector by them is inadequate. At present Indian agricultural needs higher investment to adopt new technologies. Agricultural production depends on the availability of timely credit. The credit needs of the marginal and small farmers who are in majority are to be addressed by the institutional sources, especially, commercial banks and co-operatives. The co-operative credit structure is to be revamped to make it effective in serving the credit requirements of the farmers. Indian farmer always faces uncertainties from weather, pests, market oscillations



and the support prices decided by the government. It is to be accepted by all those concerned with economic development that agriculture is the prime mover of the economy.

The inhibitive approach of the bankers to extend credit to the agricultural sector needs correction as free flow of credit to this sector can increase agricultural production and augment GDP. Further, small and marginal farmers of which majority are marginalized social groups own majority of the operational holdings. Co-operatives and RRBS are to be strengthened to extend adequate and timely credit to the farmers. Then only agriculture in India can come out of the present state of distress and contribute effectively to achieve food security to the growing population.

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Public Health and Education

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Abstract: Demographically India is the second biggest country in the world. Poverty, hunger and malnutrition-like problems are rampant. Education is not accessible to everyone in the case with regard to public Health. In fact the extent to which we are able to improve the Health of the public depends, in large part, upon the quality and preparedness of public Health workforce, which is in turn dependent upon the quality and relevance of its training and Education. Of late there is conscious shift in public Health Education in India with a few institutions initiating public health programmes for both medical and non-medical graduates. Despite these initiatives towards building the capacity of public health professionals in the country there is still a limited availability in teaching courses.

Key words: public Health, human happiness, developing world

Introduction

Herbert Hoover viewed that "Public health service should be as fully organized and as universally incorporated into our Governmental system as is public Education. The returns are a thousand fold in Economic benefits, and infinitely more in reduction of suffering and promotion of human happiness." Health is considered as an asset i'e wealth. Healthy citizens make healthy nation. This needs a public health policy. Public health promotes and protects the health of people and communities where they live earn and work. A wide awareness of public health can be possible with professional Education in the field.

Public Health Meaning

In common expression by public health we mean "the science and art of preventing disease, prolonging life and promoting health through organized efforts and informed choices of society, organizations, public and private, communities and individuals." It is concerned with threats to health based

on population health analysis. The population in question can be as small as a handful of people, or as large as all the inhabitants of several continents (for instance, in the case of a pandemic). The dimensions of health can encompass "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity," as defined by the United Nations' World Health Organization. Public Health incorporates the interdisciplinary approaches of epidemiology, biostatistics and health services. The sub fields of health services are Environmental health, community health, behavioral health, health economics, public policy, insurance medicine, mental health and occupational safety and health. The focus of public health intervention is to improve health and quality of life through prevention and treatment of disease and other physical and mental health conditions. This is done through surveillance of cases and health indicators and through promotion of healthy behaviors. Notable examples of



common public health measures include promotion of hand washing, breastfeeding, delivery of vaccinations, and distribution of condoms to control the spread of sexually transmitted diseases. It must be remembered that modern public health practice requires multidisciplinary teams of public health workers and professionals including physicians specializing in public health/community medicine/infectious disease. Psychologists, Epidemiologists, Biostatisticians, Medical assistants or Assistant Medical Officers, Public Health Nurses, Midwives, Medical Microbiologists, Environmental Health officers / Public Health Inspectors, Pharmacists, Dentists, Dietitians and Nutritionists, Veterinarians, Public health Engineers, Public health Lawyers, Sociologists, Community development workers and others.

Unfortunately, there is a great disparity in access to health care and public health initiatives between developed nations and developing nations. In the developing world, public health infrastructures are still forming.

Objectives of the Study

1. To know the general Health conditions of Indian people and Health Education.
2. To know the general Health conditions of the people living in developed countries and their Health Education.

Methodology

The data has been collected from Secondary Source available in net and extracted from previous studies.

Results and Discussion: It is pertinent to note that most governments recognize

the importance of public health programs in reducing the incidence of disease, disability, and the effects of aging and other physical and mental health conditions, although public health generally receives significantly less government funding compared with medicine. Public health programs providing vaccinations have made strides in promoting health, including the eradication of smallpox, a disease that plagued humanity for thousands of years.

The World Health Organization (WHO) identifies core functions of public health programs including.

- providing leadership on matters critical to health and engaging in partnerships where joint action is needed.
- shaping a research agenda and stimulating the generation, translation and dissemination of valuable knowledge.
- setting norms and standards and promoting and monitoring their implementation.
- articulating ethical and evidence-based policy options and
- monitoring the health situation and assessing health trends.

Here it must be remembered that public health surveillance has led to the identification and prioritization of many public health issues facing the world today, including HIV/AIDS, diabetes, waterborne diseases, zoonotic diseases, and antibiotic resistance leading to the reemergence of infectious diseases such as Tuberculosis. Antibiotic resistance, also known as drug resistance, was the theme of World Health Day 2011. Simultaneously, while communicable diseases have historically ranged



uppermost as a global health priority, non-communicable diseases and the underlying behavior-related risk factors have been at the bottom. This is changing however, as illustrated by the United Nations hosting its first General Assembly Special Summit on the issue of non-communicable diseases in September 2011.

As such, many health problems are due to maladaptive personal behaviors. From an evolutionary psychology perspective, over consumption of novel substances that are harmful is due to the activation of an evolved reward system for substances such as drugs, tobacco, alcohol, refined salt, fat, and carbohydrates. New technologies such as modern transportation also cause reduced physical activity. Research has found that behavior is more effectively changed by taking evolutionary motivations into consideration instead of only presenting information about health effects.

To improve public health, one important strategy is to promote modern medicine and scientific neutrality to drive the public health policy and campaign, which is recommended by Armanda Solorzana, through a case study of the Rockefeller Foundation's hookworm campaign in Mexico in the 1920s. Soloranza argues that public health policy can't concern only politics or economics. Political concerns can lead government officials to hide the real numbers of people affected by disease in their regions, such as upcoming elections. Therefore, scientific neutrality in making public health policy is critical; it can ensure treatment needs are met regardless of political and economic conditions.

There is a great disparity in access to health care and public health initiatives between developed nations and developing nations. In the developing world, public health infrastructures are still forming. There may not be enough trained health workers or monetary resources to provide even a basic level of medical care and disease prevention. As a result, a large majority of disease and mortality in the developing world results from and contributes to extreme poverty. For example, many African governments spend less than US\$10 per person per year on health care, while, in the United States, the federal government spent approximately US\$4,500 per capita in 2000. However, expenditures on health care should not be confused with spending on public health. Public health measures may not generally be considered "health care" in the strictest sense. For example, mandating the use of seat belts in cars can save countless lives and contribute to the health of a population, but typically money spent enforcing this rule would not count as money spent on health care. Large parts of the developing world remained plagued by largely preventable or treatable infectious diseases and poor maternal and child health, exacerbated by malnutrition and poverty.

Each day brings new front-page headlines about public health: emerging infectious diseases such as SARS, rapidly making its way from China to Canada, the United States and other geographically distant countries; reducing inequities in health care access through publicly funded health insurance programs; the HIV/AIDS pandemic and its spread from certain high-risk groups to the general population in many countries, such as in South Africa; the



increase of childhood obesity and the concomitant increase in type II diabetes among children; the social, economic and health effects of adolescent pregnancy; and the public health challenges related to natural disasters such as the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, 2005's Hurricane Katrina in the United States and the 2010 Haiti earthquake. Since the 1980s, the growing field of population health has broadened the focus of public health from individual behaviors and risk factors to population-level issues such as inequality, poverty, and education. Modern public health is often concerned with addressing determinants of health across a population.

Remarkably, to address current and future challenges in addressing health issues in the world, the United Nations have developed the Sustainable Development Goals 2015 built on the Millennium Development Goals of 2000 to be achieved by 2030. These goals encompass the entire spectrum of development across nations. However Goals 1-6 directly address health disparities, primarily in developing countries. These six goals address key issues in global public health: Poverty, Hunger and food security, Health, Education, Gender equality and women's empowerment, water and sanitation.

Education and training of public health professionals is available throughout the world in Schools of Public Health, Medical Schools, Veterinary Schools, Schools of Nursing, and Schools of Public Affairs. The training typically requires a university degree with a focus on core disciplines of biostatistics, epidemiology, health services administration, health policy, health education, behavioral science and environmental health. In the global

context, the field of public health education has grown enormously in recent decades, supported by institutions such as the World Health Organization and the World Bank, among others. Operational structures are formulated by strategic principles, with educational and career pathways guided by competency frameworks, all requiring modulation according to local, national and global realities. It is critically important for the health of populations that nations assess their public health human resource needs and develop their ability to deliver this capacity, and not depend on other countries to supply it.

Over the years, the types of students and training provided have also changed. In the beginning, students who were enrolled in public health schools typically had already obtained a medical degree, public health school training was largely a second degree for medical professionals. However, in 1978, 69% of American students enrolled in public health schools had only a bachelor's degree.

Schools of public health offer a variety of degrees which generally fall into two categories: professional or academic. The two major postgraduate degrees are the Master of Public Health (M.P.H.) or the Master of Science in Public Health (MSPH). Doctoral studies in this field include Doctor of Public Health (DrPH) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in a sub specialty of greater Public Health disciplines. DrPH is regarded as a professional leadership degree and Ph.D. as more of an academic degree.

Professional degrees are oriented towards practice in public health settings. The Master of Public Health, Doctor of Public Health, Doctor of Health Science



(DHSc) and the Master of Health Care Administration are examples of degrees which are geared towards people who want careers as practitioners of public health in health departments, managed care and community-based organizations, hospitals and consulting firms among others. Master of Public Health degrees broadly fall into two categories, those that put more emphasis on an understanding of epidemiology and statistics as the scientific basis of public health practice and those that include a more eclectic range of methodologies. A Master of Science of Public Health is similar to an MPH but is considered an academic degree (as opposed to a professional degree) and places more emphasis on scientific methods and research. The same distinction can be made between the DrPH and the DHSc. Academic degrees are more oriented towards those with interests in the scientific basis of public health and preventive medicine who wish to pursue careers in research, university teaching in graduate programs, policy analysis and development, and other high-level public health positions. In the United States, the Association of Schools of Public Health represents Council on Education for Public Health (CEPH) accredited schools of public health. Delta Omega is the honor society for graduate studies in public health. The society was founded in 1924 at the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene and Public Health. Currently, there are approximately 68 chapters throughout the United States and Puerto Rico.

Further, the first attempts at sanitary reform and the establishment of public health institutions were made in the 1840s. Thomas Southwood Smith, physician at the London Fever Hospital,

began to write papers on the importance of public health, and was one of the first physicians brought in to give evidence before the Poor Law Commission in the 1830s, along with Neil Arnott and James Phillips Kay. Smith advised the government on the importance of quarantine and sanitary improvement for limiting the spread of infectious diseases such as cholera and yellow fever.

Findings

1. Demographically India is the second biggest country in the world. Poverty, hunger and malnutrition-like problems are rampant. Education is not accessible to every one in the case with regard to public Health. In fact the extent to which we are able to improve the Health of the public depends, in large part, upon the quality and preparedness of public Health workforce, which is in turn dependent upon the quality and relevance of its training and Education. Of late there is conscious shift in public Health Education in India with a few institutions initiating public health programmes for both medical and non-medical graduates. Despite these initiatives towards building the capacity of public health professionals in the country there is still a limited availability in teaching courses.

2. Education and training of public Health professionals is available through out the developed countries in schools of Public Health, Medical schools, Veterinary schools, schools of Nursing and schools of Public affairs.

Suggestions

1. Despite various efforts, we have to traverse a irregular terrain in the field of public Health Education. As it is said, prevention is better than cure, so it is



better to provide wider awareness about Public Health programmes in the country.

2. To promote Public Health important strategy is to be adopted to promote modern medicine and scientific neutrality to drive the Public Health policy in India, on par with developed countries.

3. The wide gap should be reduced between supply and demand for trained Health care managers/ Administrators to work for Hospitals, Pharmaceutical Companies, Health insurance and third party Administrators and other Health care providers in India. These organizations needs very urgent attention.

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Hospitality and Tourism Services in Telangana with Special reference to Hyderabad City

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Abstract: Tourism is one the biggest and fastest growing sectors in the global economy and it has significant environmental, cultural and social effects, both positive and negative. Tourism itself playing a key role in the benefiting many linked sectors directly and indirectly. Tourism is growing market and it is showing tremendous growth in the current scenario. Tourism makes an enormous contribution to local economies through job creation and sustainable development. Telangana have started taking necessary steps to develop this vast potential area. Hyderabad, a home of temples and the historical, sculptural and architectural heritage of the state spans a well known history of 21 centuries and its monuments, mosques, crafts, arts, dance and drama are most exciting to visitors. This paper provides an overall view of the hospitality and tourist facilities required and facilities available, interrelationship in the context of Hyderabad city tourism in Telangana State.

Keywords: Hospitality, Tourism, Transport, Forts, Lakes.

Introduction

India's glorious traditions and rich cultural heritage are closely related with the development of tourism. Its magnificent monuments attract a large number of tourists from all over the world. The natural surroundings, the architectural masterpieces, the music, dance, paintings, customs and languages all these go to make India as tourist paradise. Telangana topographically and historically has a variety of attractions including hills, wildlife, forests, forts and temples. This region has a rich cultural heritage and is known for its rich history, architecture and culture. This region has all required qualities for emerging as a potent tourist destination in India. Telangana is the 29th and youngest state of India, formally recognized on June 2, 2014 is a treasure trove of tourist

destinations. One of the largest states in South India, Telangana is known for its hospitality and multicultural and pluralistic society. Hyderabad, the capital city of this state is the fifth largest city in India and home to some of India's best educational institutions, public sector and defence companies and a thriving global services sector and film industry. Telangana has a pleasing climate, with abundant natural and water resources. The state is the gateway to Krishna and Godavari Rivers in South India and is considered the seed capital of India. The other districts of Telangana namely Adilabad, Nizamabad, Warangal, Khammam, Karimnagar, Nalgonda, Medak, Rangareddy, Hyderabad and Mahabubnagar represent the rural diversity and exquisite richness of Telangana. One of the wealthy economies in India, Telangana is here to take its



rightful place in the country, as a highly developed state and society with a proud history and grand heritage.

Tourism is travel for pleasure, also the theory and practice of touring, the business of attracting, accommodating, and entertaining tourists, and the business of operating tours. Development of the tourism sector in this region is recognition of the opportunities which it affords to generate economic growth and employment and to alleviate poverty. At the same time it recognizes the necessity for tourism's growth path to be both sustainable and responsible. For these goals to be realized, a holistic, strategic approach for tourism's development into the new millennium is vital. Telangana is the land of pilgrimages. The state bounds in monuments and temples that are ancient and each has its own story of religious, artistic and cultural accomplishment and specialty. There are many important temples occupying the land scope of Telangana. The state is also called the land of temples.

Objectives of the Study

- To Study the Tourism places in Hyderabad
- To Study the Hospitality facilities for tourists
- To study the Transport facilities for tourists

Methodology of the Study

The Study is based on secondary data collected from different sources like Hindu Newspapers, Magazines, brochures, Advertisement and internet etc.

Hospitality in Telangana

Telangana is one of India's leading destinations in hospitality

segment and has an impressive number of rooms across luxury, economy and budget segments in and around Hyderabad. Telangana State Tourism Development Corporation (TSTDC) offers luxurious, comfortable and world-class accommodation with its Haritha chain of hotels and resorts all over the state. These resorts are well maintained and reliable with many amenities for the comfort of tourists. The modern ambience and the excellent facilities offered by Telangana Tourism makes the journey of tourists pleasant and memorable. The hinterlands of Telangana offer a much more varied cuisine experience with the local flavors and spices. Mughlai cuisine easily blends with Nawabi cuisine and there is delicious Telangana pappu for everyone.

Tourism Information Points: There are many official departments, offices and kiosks which offer comprehensive information regarding the destinations, travel options, accommodation, booking and a host of other information, considered really useful for tourists visiting the state. You can get all the information required for planning your itinerary in Telangana and experience a worthwhile journey touring the unique destinations of the state.

Haritha Kakatiya

Haritha Kakatiya Hotel in Warangal City has been built to handle maximum tourist flow to the city of Warangal and other adjoining regions. Located at a key intersection of Hyderabad to Chhattisgarh, Warangal is considered the cultural capital of Telangana with many destinations in the city. The hotel is maintained well where hygiene gets highest priority.

Haritha Taramati Baradari Resort

Taramati Baradari is an attractive destination in Hyderabad. It is also a



perfect way to spend an evening or a weekend. Haritha Resort run by Telangana Tourism here has all the amenities, which can give you a fresh lease of energy for a nice sojourn. The rooms of the resort are spacious and user friendly.

Haritha Lake Resort Shamirpet: Shamirpet Resort is a popular weekend getaway close to Shamirpet Lake, a pristine lake situated at a distance of nearly 28 km from Hyderabad on Karimnagar Highway. The lake is a favorite retreat for youngsters and families alike and the sunset and sunrise here are the best time to attract visitors. The resort here has both A/C and Non-A/C Cottages, which are well-maintained and aesthetically built to appeal to the unique tastes of visitors. The restaurant offers excellent dining facilities with hot meals and a variety of cuisines.

Hotel the Plaza Begumpet: Begumpet, located in the heart of Hyderabad is accessible from many parts of the city and the Plaza hotel here is ideal for business and professionals who intend to stay in the core business district region of the bustling city. There are standard and deluxe A/C rooms and the interiors are world-class, designed aesthetically to attract tourists. The rooms are well maintained and the environs look pleasing. There is also a restaurant attached here offering quality food for the visitors at specified timings. Hotel The Plaza is built in signature style in the midst of the city and is a prominent hotel of Telangana tourism department.

Youth Hostel: This Youth Hostel is Located in the beautiful city of palaces known for scenic beauty and favorable climate Hyderabad. Youth Hostel, Secunderabad is a joint venture of the Central Government of Telangana. It is a non-religious, non-political, non-

commercial unit transcending barriers of race, colour, sex, caste, creed or social background.

Youth Hostel is a "Home Away From Home": It provides young people on their educational excursions inexpensive hostelling facilities in the form of dormitories - separate for ladies and gents, a dining hall with self-service, a common room or lounge". It is a place for forming friendship, recreation and informal education. Youth Hostels are not to be mistaken for luxury homes and are they to be mistaken for residential hostels, which provide boarding lodging for long periods. Youth Hostels provide simple accommodation at moderate cost for short period, 2 days at a time, extendable at the discretion of the Warden in deserving cases.

What Makes Tourism Services Unique?

The Tourism buses are well maintained while all the standard road safety measures are duly followed. The transport vehicles of Telangana Tourism offer a stress-free travel experience to all the visitors. Our drivers are well trained to handle heavy vehicle flow and risky ghat roads. They are well experienced to handle the trickiest of roads as they undergo periodic training where they are specially instructed about road safety, ensuring maximum comfort for the tourists, who are the much-respected guests for the state. In addition, Telangana Tourism understands that driving through long distances and for long hours is tiresome for the driver. Keeping this in mind, we appoint two drivers for every 350 kilometers. Due to the highest priority given by the Tourism department for its safe driving practices, our drivers tend to be even more careful to keep up with the reputation.



Luxury at its best

The Telangana Tourism Department is the among the first tourism departments in India to introduce super luxurious Benz and Volvo buses for the convenience of the travelers. The Tourism Department also provides travelers an option of customizing their tours to fit into their budget. Apart from the Benz and Volvo busses, there are also indica cars for the tourists to reach their destinations quickly and safely. For package and luxury tourists, we also offer customised caravans that render a sophisticated touch for a perfect holiday.

Making the Journey Pleasant

With Telangana Tourism, you can be rest assured of a memorable stay in the comfort environs of our hospitality. We believe in making the journey pleasant because we want our patrons to come back again. Our appealing destinations can entice you for a repeated visit and we are ready to serve you with pleasure and professionalism.

Tourism in Hyderabad

The city of smiles, of lights, of a thousand faces, endearingly called the Pearl City, Hyderabad offers a variety of tourist attractions ranging from Heritage monuments, Lakes and Parks, Gardens and Resorts, Museums to delectable cuisine and a delightful shopping experience. To the traveller, Hyderabad offers a fascinating panorama of the past, with a richly mixed cultural and historical tradition spanning 400 colorful years.

The Charminar is as much the signature of Hyderabad as the TajMahal is of Agra or the Eiffel Tower is of Paris. Mohammed QuliQutb Shah, the founder of Hyderabad, built Charminar in 1591 at the centre of the original city layout. It is said to be built as a charm to ward off a

deadly epidemic raging at that time. Four graceful minarets soar to a height of 48.7 m above the ground. Charminar has 45 prayer spaces and a mosque in it. Visitors can view the architectural splendour inside the Charminar. The monument is illuminated in the evenings and a pedestrianisation project around the monument is under implementation.

Mecca Masjid: A two hundred yards southwest of the Charminar is the Mecca Masjid, so named because the bricks were brought from Mecca to build the central arch. The QutbShahis never finished the building of the mosque, which was completed by Aurangzeb in 1694.

LaadBazaar: This is famous, colorful shopping centre of the old city, tucked away in one of the streets leading off from Charminar. Bridal wear, Pearls and the traditional Hyderabad glass and stone studded bangles are sold here.

Golconda Fort: Golconda is one of the famous forts of India. The name originates from the Telugu words "GollaKonda" meaning "Shepherd's Hill". The origins of the fort can be traced back to the Yadava dynasty of Deogiri and the Kakatiyas of Warangal. Golconda was originally a mud fort, which passed to the Bahmani dynasty and later to the QutbShahis, who held it from 1518 to 1687 A.D. The first three QutbShahi kings rebuilt Golconda, over a span of 62 years. The fort is famous for its acoustics, palaces, ingenious water supply system and the famous FatehRahben gun, one of the cannons used in the last siege of Golconda by Aurangzeb, to whom the fort ultimately fell.

QutbShahi Tombs: The tombs of the legendary QutbShahi kings lie about a kilometre away from BanjaraDarwaza of the Golconda Fort. Planned and built by the QutbShahis themselves, these tombs



are said to be the oldest historical monuments in Hyderabad. They form a large group and stand on a raised platform. The tombs are built in Persian, Pathan and Hindu architectural styles using grey granite, with stucco ornamentation, the only one of its kind in the world where an entire dynasty has been buried at one place.

TaramatiBaradari

TaramatiBaradari is located at Ibrahimbagh, on the Osman Sagar (Gandipet) Road, close to Golconda. The complex is spread over a sprawling 7-acre area amidst lush green environs with the backdrop of the famed Golconda Fort. The heritage monument built by the Seventh Sultan of Golconda is accessed from the complex. With two fully equipped theatres, TaramatiBaradari Culture Village is the perfect venue for music concerts, performing arts, social events etc. The Baradari illuminated in dynamic lighting forms the backdrop of all activities.

Birla Mandir (Venkateswara Temple)

This white marble temple of Lord Venkateshwara floats on the city skyline, on Kala Pahad. The idol in the temple is a replica of the one at Tirumala Tirupati.

Birla Planetarium:

Birla Planetarium is India's most modern planetarium and first of its kind in the country. It is equipped with advanced technology from Japan and is built on NaubatPahad adjacent to Kala Pahad. And the Science Museum stands tribute to the advancement achieved by Science and Technology.

Salar Jung Museum

This museum houses one of the biggest one-man collections of antiques of the world by Mir Yousuf Ali Khan, Salar Jung III. The objects d'art include Persian carpets, Moghal miniatures, Chinese porcelain, Japanese lacquerware,

famous statues including the Veiled Rebecca and Marguerite and Mephistopheles, a superb collection of jade, daggers belonging to Queen Noor Jahan and the Emperors Jahangir and Shah Jahan, Aurangzeb's sword and many other fabulous items.

Nehru Zoological Park

Spanning 300 lush green acres, the Nehru Zoological Park is a must for nature lovers. It has over 250 species of animals and birds, most of which are kept in conditions as close to their natural habitats as possible. This is the first zoo to create moated enclosures for animals. The Lion Safari Park, Natural History Museum and Children's Train are the added attractions.

Shilparamam (The Arts & Crafts Village): Another attraction at Madhapur besides Hi-tec city in Hyderabad is the 30-acre village, which showcases arts and crafts of the country. India is an ocean of various arts and crafts but the talent of most of the artisans and artists goes unrecognized. To encourage them and give the necessary boost to their art, the crafts village hosts annual bazaars, where artists and artisans from all over the country exhibit their talent.

Hi-Tech City

One of the modern monuments of trade and technology, it embodies the newfound attitude of Hyderabad and today finds a place of pride. Situated on the outskirts of the city, it is the nucleus of Cyberabad, the IT destination in this part of the world. Cyber Towers is the main building here.

The Nizam'S Silver Jubilee Museum

The stately Purani Haveli, the palace acquired around the year 1750 by the second Nizam, is now converted into a museum with a fascinating collection. The museum exhibits the gifts and mementos presented to the last Nizam on



the occasion of the silver jubilee celebrations in 1937. A 1930 Rolls Royce, Packard and a Mark V Jaguar are among the vintage cars displayed. There is an interesting collection of models made in silver of all the prominent buildings of the city and citations in Urdu about H.E.H. Mir Osman Ali Khan, gold burnished wooden throne used for the silver jubilee celebrations, gold tiffin box inlaid with diamonds, and a gold model of Jubilee Pavilion.

DurgamCheruvu

The 'Secret Lake' is situated close to Shilparamam Crafts Village and Hi-tech City, behind Jubilee Hills. AP Tourism organizes boating in the lake. 'Something Fishy', a bar at Secret Lake (Durgam Cheruvu)

ChilkurBalaji Temple: The Balaji Temple is located at Chilkur in the Hyderabad district. It is 33 Kms away from Mehdipatnam. Approximately 75,000 to 1,00,000 devotees visit in a week. Generally temple gets heavy rush on Saturdays and Sundays. Set in sylvan surroundings, the temple attracts thousands of pilgrims every year and is an ideal place for sequestered retreat and meditation.

KBR National Park: One of the largest parks within the city KBR National Park is a Southern tropical deciduous forest and the last vestigial representative of the endemic flora of Hyderabad region, with over 100 species of birds, 20 species of reptiles and 15 species of butterflies.

Mrugavani National Park: Located at Chilkur, 25 km. from Hyderabad, the park contains the endemic flora of Hyderabad and is an urban refuge for small mammals like wildboar, jungle cat etc. and birds.

Mahavir HarinaVanasthali National Park: Located 15 Km. from Hyderabad, the park has more than 350 black bucks,

400 cheetals and a number of wild boars, small mammals, reptiles and over 100 species of birds.

Hyderabad Botanical Gardens: The first Botanical Gardens in Andhra Pradesh, spread over 120 acres. Already open to public is the first phase, with the completion of some sections. The sections include medicinal plants, timber trees, fruit trees, ornamental plants, aquatic plants and bamboos. The Park has been designed to have large water bodies, Rolling Meadows, natural forests, rich grasslands and exquisite rock formations.

Osmansagar Lake: Osmansagar, better known as Gandipet, on the outskirts of Hyderabad is an excellent picnic spot. Osmansagar is one of the two lakes on the city's periphery that supplies drinking water to the great metropolis. The lake is a reservoir created by a dam across the Isa, a tributary of the River Musi. Abutting the lake and the bund are lush gardens that provide the ideal ambience for an outing. Overlooking the lake is the heritage building, SagarMahal, built as a resort by the Nizam of Hyderabad and converted now into a lake resort managed by AP Tourism.

Shamirpet: Located 24 km to the north of Secunderabad, Shamirpet has a beautiful lake and a deer park. Its peaceful environs make it a great picnic spot. AP Tourism offers comfortable cottage facilities for accommodation, while the forest lodges can be booked with the AP Forest Department office at Saifabad.

Conclusion

Telengana has a variety of attractions hills, wildlife, forests, forts and temples. The Telangana region has all the required qualities for emerging as a potent tourist destination in our country. The government in recent years focuses on eco-tourism, sports tourism,



holiday tourism etc. If property developed a large number of foreign and domestic tourists can be attracted to visit the places in and around the Telangana region. It also acknowledges that tourism generates large scale employment particularly in small services activities. The strengths related to Telangana region if recognized then a dynamic tourism sector can be built. But exasperatingly special policies concentrating regarding this region were completely absent. The department of tourism has a multiple of players and weak structures particularly at the district level. Other than Hyderabad no other region and district in Telangana has enough infrastructure facilities to attract tourist for longer time and mostly many outsiders are unaware of invaluable natural and manmade heritage sites in this region.

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Tourist and Pilgrimage Places Located in Telangana: A Study of Kamalapur Town of Warangal District.

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Abstract: Telangana, the 29 state of India, was formed on 2nd June 2014, with Hyderabad as its capital. The state has a rich cultural heritage. It is endowed with historical places, temples, monuments, waterfalls, forts, forests and rich flora and fauna which contributed to its importance as a Tourist Centre. The Government of Telangana is keen to boost the tourism and hospitality sector as part of which specific initiatives are being taken to boost the potential in this sector. The government is also planning to come out with an exclusive State Tourism Policy soon, in line with the Telangana Industrial Policy, at present the Government following the erstwhile Andhra Pradesh, Tourism Policy of 2010. This initiative will lead the growth of tourism and hospitality industry which boosts the private investments and generates employment opportunities in grass root level. In this study the researcher would like to disclose the important and less concentrated tourist and pilgrimage places located in rural area of Kamalapur town, of Warangal urban district in Telangana State.

Keywords: Tourism policy, Fort Warangal, Hospitality.

Introduction: Travel and tourism is the largest service industry in India. It provides heritage, cultural, medical, business and sports tourism. The main objective of this sector is to develop and promote tourism, maintain competitiveness of India as tourist destination and improve and expand existing tourism products to ensure employment generation and economic growth.

About Kamalapur: Kamalapur town is a mandal headquarter of Warangal urban district is 22kms. far from Hanamkonda. And it is nearly 155 km from its State capital Hyderabad. Recently during the reorganization of districts this mandal was merged in Warangal Urban district from Karimnagar. The town is bounded by Elkathurthi Mandal towards west, Huzurabad Mandal towards west,

Hasanparthy Mandal towards South, Jammikunta Mandal towards North and Warangal City, Karimnagar City, Jangaon City, Ramagundam City are the nearby Cities to Kamalapur. There are number of prominent tourist places located in this region. The important and historic places are as follows.

1. Raamalayam (it was built in the period of Kakatiya dynasty)
2. Shivalayam (built in the period of Kakatiya dynasty)
3. Peddacheruvu (Lake was also built during the period of Kakatiyas):- Useful for Boating
4. Sammakgutta: - Useful for trekking and heritage walk.
5. Doravari Gadi (Fort)

Objectives of the study:

The major objectives of the study are



1. to identify how Kamalapur mandal attracted the domestic as well as international tourists in recent days.
2. Find out the pilgrimage and tourist places existed in Kamalapur Mandal town.
3. To explain the importance and glory of that places to the society.
4. To find out the opportunities to develop such places as tourist and pilgrimage places.
5. To find the employment opportunities grown in recent times

Methodology : Methodology of this study involves empirical study and the researcher collected the first hand information by visiting the actual place and gathered the secondary information from various sources such as internet and books. The fundamental method of content analysis will be explained, and also the sampling and analyzing methods will be included. This paper deals with the Kamalapur mandal in Warangal Urban district. Because it has the rich heritage culture and water bodies but ignored by the government and the media.

For the purpose of data collection the researcher visited the various places of the study and collected the firsthand information from the senior citizens and from local news paper, the researcher also collected the secondary data from booklets which were available at those places, website of archeological survey of India and Telangana tourism website. Data of senior citizens was used for comparing the data available on the internet.

Data analysis: There are number of tourist places and places of pilgrimage where devotees regularly visit but due

ignorance by the policy makers these places are lacking the divinity as observed by the researcher, with the efforts of the local villagers these places are sustaining at this stage. Some of the places are as follows.

Ramalayam in Kamalapur:

According to the opinion of the local people Lord Ramalayam temple was built during the Kakatiya dynasty. Ramalayam, Shivalayam and Hanuman temple are located in this temple compound. From the age old days Sri Rama Navami utsavaas are being conducted regularly with great devotion for the period of ten days. People from all corners of district as well as from state visit to have blessings of lord Rama. If this place is developed according to the demand of the devotees it may become a popular pilgrimage center.

2. Shivalayam/Vishwapati Alayam:

This Temple is located in the middle of the Kamalapur town. The idols installed in this temple are of ancient time according to the villagers. Mahashivarathri festival is being organized by the villagers with great devotion and enthusiasm; various types of folk and cultural programmes are conducted every year.

3. Peddacheruvu (Lake) :

This Peddacheruvu is one of the biggest fresh water lakes in the district built by the kakatiyas, at present this lake is serving as the source of irrigation, development of fish farm and also for drinking purpose. It has the great potential to develop as tourist spot and boating and other activities. This lake is also used for immersion of Batukamma idols during the festival.



4. Sammakka Jatara gutta (hill):

The Sammakka Jatara gutta is hill place located in the northern corner of the Kamalapur town. The popular Sammakka and Medaram Jatara is conducted with installation of the forest goddesses called Sammakka and Sarakka. This a biggest biannual association of tribal folk and large number of devotees gather here to take the blessings of goddesses. With minor development works this hill has a great potential to develop as a trekking and mountaineering spot, natural scenes ads another attraction to this hill.

5. Doravari Gadi (Fort): In the period of Doras' and Deshmukhs' era this fort or gadi was the main centre for everyday administration. According to the local People the Doras administered with kindness and empathy. People used follow the orders of the administrators with great respect. At present this kind of system is not followed but this construction remains a great memory of that period. Due to lack of proper maintainance this construction is at the stage of collapse..

Conclusion

The government of Telangana is very keen to develop the tourism industry, and is ready to bring its own tourism policy. In its major initiatives the government encouraging the tourism in the district levels. Warangal occupies the second most preferred after the Hyderabad city. If the Government develop the tourism of Kamalapur of this district there huge opportunities lies in terms of employment generation which might benefit the local people, at the same time one another place which was glorified during the Kakatiya dynasty may add in the list of pilgrimage and tourist spot.

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Status and development of tribal women in Telangana – A study

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Introduction

The strategy for tribal development and specially women, needs improvement, betterment, development and upliftment to affect their empowerment. Tribal women have adjusted themselves to live a traditional life style in the local environment and follow occupations based on natural resources. Undoubtedly, the programmes, oriented towards the empowerment of tribals, particularly women, have improved their socio-economic conditions and status. However, there are wide variations across regions and tribes in terms of work participation, sex ratio, economic productivity and social life. The impact of development planning needs to be evaluated in terms of desired and unanticipated consequences. The development process should be perceived as an involvement and reorganization mechanism of not only the socio-economic system but the entire ecosystem.

Status is customarily defined by social scientists as a recognised social position or socially defined position of an individual or a community within a society. In recent times many attempts have been made to understand the status of women in the tribal society. Robert Lowie (1920) has suggested four different criteria to determine the status of women in a society i.e. (i) actual treatment, (ii) legal status, (iii) opportunity for social participation and (iv) character and extent of work. Mujumdar and Madan

(1956) state that “expressed, some of which take a stand that primitive society” women are generally a depressed group”. For this reason Robert Lowie has stated that any general statement regarding the relation of women to the society must be taken with caution.

The women in the tribal community constitute about half of the tribal population. Their role in the tribal society is even more important than in other social groups in India, because the tribal women, more than women in any other social group, work harder and the family economy and management depends on them.

Low Status of The Tribal

Women: The tribal woman does not have property rights except in a matrilineal society which is a small proportion of the tribal population. She is paid fewer wages than her male counterpart for the same work. Besides this, the women work for more time than men, they receive wages in 23 kinds which are encashed by males. The women do not have the decision making power. The division of work is heavily loaded against the tribal woman because in addition to an equal share in the economic production process she has to take the sole responsibility of household chores. In certain tribes only the males can participate in ancestor worship. Usually she cannot hold the office of a priest (Rajyalakshmi, 1996).

Economic Role : Tribal women in India contribute positively towards



economic pursuits by participating equally with men folk. They participate in all agricultural operations like sowing seeds, weeding and harvesting, felling and burning trees. In plough based cultivation, transplantation, weeding, winnowing and dehusking is done entirely by women. They work in all sectors of indigenous cottage industries, tribal arts and production of artifacts. Generally, the ploughing is done by men but in some tribal societies, women do the ploughing too. Though the women work for more time than men, they receive less wage and that too in kind which are encashed by males. However, there are some tribes where men and women are equal partners in socio-cultural and economic life and hence women are traditionally assigned an important role in the society (Singh, 1994).

Review of Literature

Anand Pawar (2016)¹ an attempt has been made to analyze the impact of microfinance on Tribal Development in Telangana State in terms of household income; assets acquired and employment generation before and after joining SHG and availing micro credit. Women empowerment is a process in which women challenge the existing norms and culture, to effectively promote their well being. The participation of women in Self Help Groups (SHGs) made a significant impact on their empowerment both in social and economical aspects. The present study conducted by Ramesh

Ajmeera (2014)² addresses women empowerment through self-help groups in Warangal district of Telangana State, India. Gummadi Naresh (2014)³ described the problems and other units under investigation like socio-economic background and elicits new information about the elderly tribal women through the present study based on secondary source of data. Dhanasree K., Vijayabhinandana B. and Pradeepkumar P.B. (2014)⁴ conducted in tribal dominated mandals of High Altitude and Tribal Zone of Andhra Pradesh. With the help of exploratory research design, data was collected from 180 farmers and analysed with the help of suitable statistical methods. About 50 per cent respondents expressed limited social participation, lack of access and control of productive resources and services and finally less than 20 per cent of respondents indicated location of isolated villages, limited extension staff, and no access to basic amenities. Pulla Rao

¹ Anand Pawar (2016), "Impact of Microfinance on Tribal Development in Telangana", Pacific Business Review International, Vol. 8, Iss: 11, pp.63-70.

² Ramesh Ajmeera (2014), "Self Help Groups in Empowering Women: A Study In Warangal District, Telangana State", International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management (IJCBM), ISSN: 2319-2828 Vol. 3, No. 5.

³ Gummadi Naresh (2014), "Work Participation of Tribal Women in India: A Development Perspective", IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS), vol.19, Iss:12, ver. II, pp.35-38.

⁴ Dhanasree K., Vijayabhinandana B. and Pradeepkumar P.B. (2014), "International Journal of Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology", Vol. 3, Issue 2, pp.9360-9368.



D. (2013)⁵ addressed the socioeconomic status of the scheduled tribes in Visakhapatnam district of Andhra Pradesh State (India). In the sample, the majority of the households are the tribe of Konda Dora. Further, the majority of the sample households in the study area are Hindus and more than 70 percent of the sample population is illiterate. Cultivation is the primary occupation participated by the maximum heads of the sample households.

Objectives: The objectives of the study are as follows:

- (i) To highlight the Gender role among Tribal society of Telangana,
- (ii) To find out the role and status of Tribal women in development,
- (iii) To focus on the nature and dimensions of changes in the lives of tribal women.

Methodology : The study was carried out in three tribal dominated districts of Tribal Zones of Telangana during 2015-16 namely Adilabad (Utnoor and Naarnoor), Warangal (Tadvai and Venkatapur) and Khammam (Kunavaram and Chinturu) were selected for investigation. Two villages from each of the district were selected and from each village 15 respondents were selected thus making a total of 90 respondents. Data was collected through structured and pre-tested interview schedule. The collected data was coded, tabulated and analyzed statistically and the results were interpreted accordingly.

⁵ Rao, D. Pulla (2013), "Socioeconomic Status of Scheduled Tribes", *MERC Global's International Journal of Management*, Vol. 01, Issue: 01, pp. 36-50.

Results and Discussion

Socio-economic status of the Respondents

This part deals with the demographic profile of tribal women in the study area in terms of age, educational level, experience, marital status, etc.

Table-1. Respondents age distribution

Age (in years)	Frequ-ency	Per cent	Cumulative Percent
< 20	8	8.3	8.3
21-40	28	31.7	40.0
41-60	30	33.3	73.3
> 60	24	26.7	100.0
Total	90	100.0	

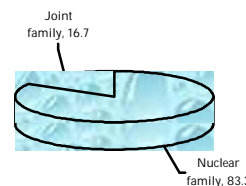
It can be seen from the above table, majority of the respondents are within the age group of 41-60 years (33.30%) followed by those under the category of 21-40 years (31.7%). The remaining 26.70% and 8.30% of the respondents are under the age group of above 60 years and below 20 years, respectively. When we see the educational level of the respondents, it is clearly seen from the table that thirty per cent (i.e., 26) of the respondents are illiterates. This is followed by those who have the below tenth class (20.00%). The table also shows that 15.00% and 11.70% of the respondents are Intermediate level and Degree level, respectively. 13.3% respondents completed their post-graduation. It is only 10.0% they have a technical qualification.

Table-2 : Distribution of Tribal women on the basis of Education

Education Level	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Illiterate	26	30.0	30.0
<Tenth class	18	20.0	50.0
Inter	14	15.0	65.0
Degree	11	11.7	76.7
Post-graduation	12	13.3	90.0
Technical	9	10.0	100.0
Total	90	100.0	

Table-3: Type of Family

Family type	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Nuclear Family	75	83.3	83.3
Joint Family	15	16.7	16.7
Total	90	100.0	

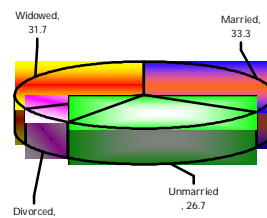


With regard to the type of family of respondents, the table shows that majority of the respondents (83.3%) come under nuclear family and 16.7% (i.e., 15

No.) come under joint family. Hence, it can be understood that tribal women of these three districts are in nuclear family type.

Table-4 : Marital status of the women entrepreneurs

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Married	30	33.3	33.3
Unmarried	24	26.7	60.0
Divorced	7	8.3	68.3
Widowed	29	31.7	100.0
Total	90	100.0	



The marital status of the respondents' shows that the majority are married (33.3%) followed by widowed (31.7%). The remaining 26.70% and 8.3% of the

respondents are unmarried and divorced respectively. Thus, in the present study most of the women entrepreneurs fall under middle age group and most of



them illiterates. A large number of respondents have 1-5 years experience. The married tribal women are dominating with other sample in study area.

Status: The role of tribal women plays an important role in their socio-economic development. The status of tribal women is common. The status of the respondents expressed by the tribal women for enhancement is presented in Table 1.

Table 2.1: Status of Tribal women (n=90)

Sl. No.	Status	Frequency	Per cent
Economy & Market facility			
1.	Credit Facility	22	18.8
2.	Money Lenders Exploitation	80	88.9
3.	Lack of accessibility to nearby markets	60	66.6
4.	Poor connectivity	72	80.0
5.	Low Size landholding	65	72.2
Infrastructure Facilities			
6.	Remote living	80	88.9
7.	Lack of resources	55	61.1
8.	Lack of access of productive resources and services	62	68.8
9.	Basic Amenities	26	28.8
10.	Electrification	32	35.5
11.	Limited Number of staff	45	50.0
12.	Isolated villages	27	30.0

Source: Primary data

The table 4.2.1 indicates the status of tribal women of Adilabad, Warangal and Khammam in Telangana state. With regard to economy and market facilities: Out of 90 respondents, only 18.8% of them expressed that they get credit facility. It means there is no credit facility for the tribal women in the study area. Nearly 90 per cent of the respondents opined that there is money lenders exploitation in their villages. More than sixty five per cent of the respondents said that there is a lack of accessibility to nearby markets to sell their products. Transport facility is also

not available to their villages, it can be understood from the data. Eight per cent of them said that there is a poor connectivity. In addition to the above that the respondents do not have much agricultural land that is useful for agricultural purposes. Most of the villages are far away to the main towns in the study area. Nearly 90 per cent opined that their villages are located in remote places. Out of ninety respondents, sixty one per cent of the respondents expressed that the resources are very meager.

5.0 Conclusion : The status of tribal women and their contributions are much important for sustainable growth



and management of livelihood security. So the following conclusions were made. The credit facility should be increased as this is below twenty percent. The findings reveal that the money lenders exploitation is more. It is also found that there is a lack of accessibility to sell their products to nearby town or city markets. The transport facility either road way or any other are connected poorly for their products transportation. Nearly ninety per cent of the tribal women are living remote villages of the study area (i.e. three districts Adilabad, Warangal and Khammam). It is found that due to lack of resources like money, seeds, transport facility they are unable to develop themselves. Further, there is lack of access of product resources and services.

- The major draw back is rural electrification in these three districts.

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Expansion of Private Sector and Contraction of Public Sector - A Review on Pre and Post Economic Reforms

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Abstract: The economic reforms in India has greatly affected its economy as well as the human growth and its relation with the society. The economic reform policy aims towards greater freedom for doing business outside government control, minimizing the role of public sector while giving more space to private sector like foreign investment policies to attract foreign investment in the country. Reforms lead to rapid growth in the Indian economy and proper utilization of the resources available in the country. In the recent past, India has seen a rapid transformation in its economy yielding a different perspective altogether for the country from rest of the world. Especially reforms increased the role of Private Sector and reduce the role of Public Sector. The purpose of this paper is to specify some historical and current issue regarding this subject.

Key words: Private Sector, Public Sector, economic reforms, transformation, foreign investment.

Introduction: After independence Indian economy was in shattering state and mass population of poor, illiterate and unemployed sections of the society. Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru the first Prime Minister of free India shouldered the great responsibility of building a strong and modern India. From the day one he was committee to provide social justice as well as to create a strong base for lifting the Indian economy. He was in favour of a greater role of government in all activities of development and very soon he paved the way for creation of a large base and scope for public sector by introducing the First Industrial Policy Resolution. In 1948 and then jetting up the Planning Commission in 1950 with clear instructions of a bigger role for public sector in the forthcoming five year plans, it was to formulate. There was a widespread belief that without increasing the role of the state, it was not possible either to accelerate the process of growth

or to create on industrial base for sustained economic development of the country.

The draft of Second Five Year Plan stated, "the adoption of the socialist pattern of the society as the national objective, as well as the need for planned and rapid development, require that all industries of basic and strategic importance, or in nature of public utility services, should be in public sector. The state has therefore, to assume direct responsibility for the future development of industries over a wider area.

This trend was followed with some changes and coming up of new industrial policies till 1991, when a new era of economic reforms began in India with the introduction of New Economic Policy in 1991, by the then finance minister a complete change in the Government of India's policy for public sector. It was a sudden and radical paradigm shift as far as role of public sector in development of



India and its economy was concerned. There was a complete shift from the popular 'Nehru Model' of development and a new era popularly called 'Liberalization era' began. Against this backdrop it is, therefore, very apt to study the evolution and growth of public sector in India in two different phases viz. 1. Pre Liberalization Era (1947-1991) and 2. Post Liberalization Era. (1991 onwards)

Objectives: 1. To study the LPG reforms in the present days

2. To find the impact of Economic reforms on Indian Economy as well as Indian society

3. To make an analysis on public sector pre and post economic reforms

4. To make an analysis on private sector pre and post economic reforms

5. To make appropriate suggestions in the view of present developing economy

Hypotheses: a) Private investment activity in relatively and more likely to produce consumption goods with in short run for more profits

b) Public investment being indifferent to profits would be made in those basic and strategic areas which had long gestation periods, and used to people, country welfare with low are no profit.

Methods: The data base for this paper comprises of data collected from secondary data sources. The secondary data obtained from published books, articles and reports on economic reforms.

Results and Discussion: (1991 onwards) Pre Liberalization Era This era began at the time of independence in 1947 and lasted till the introduction of New Economic Policy in 1991 by Dr. Manmohan Singh, the then Union finance minister of India. This era is marked by the emergence and growth of popular 'Nehru Model' of development. Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru is popularly

known as chief architect of Indian planning because of his great contributions in this field. His doctrine of 'Democratic Socialism' formed the base of new model Of development he envisaged for India. He took over the reins of governance of a big nation in 1947 as first Prime Minister of free India. India was till then being ruled by foreign invaders for centuries and her people fought a long battle of freedom. People were sick of exopits by the British Colonial rule and wanted socio economic development on their own terms. The general perception at that time was to oppose all the policies of suppression and any foreign interference in domestic matters. "Inevitably, there was a reaction against the laissez-faire policies that the colonial government had followed for most of its life, and great caution at first about continued contact with foreign governments and business interests.

The Indian National Congress, under the inspiration of Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru, set up the National Planning Committee (NPC) towards the end of 1938, which opined that 'State should own or control all key industries and services, mineral resources and railways, waterways, shipping and other public utilities and in fact all those large-scale industries which were likely to become monopolistic in character. Pandit Nehru was very cautious about choosing the model of 'Democratic Socialism' in a Mixed Economy because he was well averse to the prevalent socio-economic conditions of the nation. He had the popular Soviet Russia's 'Socialist Model' and the other equally popular Capitalist Model being followed by a number of developed western countries including USA. He was known to the fact that India at the time of independence had a big population of downtrodden, poor,



underprivileged sections, a large number of illiterate and unskilled labour class, a weak industrial base and a needy agrarian society. He "greatly admired the achievements of Soviet planning and so borrowed the concept of socialism from Russians but, he also regarded the democratic values of the capitalist society as indispensable for the full growth of a just society. Thus, in his endeavour to take advantage of the virtues of the two extreme societies which were themselves also undergoing a transformation, Nehru's vision of the new India was described as "democratic socialism. The doctrine of 'Democratic Socialism' envisaged by Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru infact a mix of some qualities of both socialist and capitalist models. This view was a kind of holistic view of the society. It implied that only monetary benefits cannot do everything in the development process. All the underprivileged people must be given the real benefits of freedom and the government must care for the ethical values to be provided in form of equal opportunities to all, end of monopolies, balanced regional development, enrichment of the individual and a total care of whole society.

So along with material and capital resources addition for development, social justice was equally needed as per the philosophy of 'Democratic Socialisation'. Some of its peculiar features can be summed up as under: a) Strong faith in democratic values for individual good, b) removal of poverty at mass level, c) state's role in providing minimum basic facilities for all. d) state's prominent role in reduction of economic imbalances, e) state's constructive role in providing equal opportunities for all and especially for the underprivileged, f) big faith in mixed economy, g) state's prominent role

in checking the monopolistic tendencies in society, h) economic gains not for the sake of profits but for social justice, 98 i) planned economic development with strategies focused on 'total development of total society' by adopting democratic means. Such vision became the guiding spirit for the development planning in India and thereby clearing the way for creation of a mass structure of public sector in the nation. The Directive Principles of State Policy in Indian constitution were also indicating that state's policy will ensure that operation of the economic system close not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment.

The Planning Commission set up in 1950 just after independence, set out the following for long term objectives of planning which necessitated the need of public sector further more: i) to increase production to the maximum possible extent so as to achieve higher level of national and per capita income; ii) to achieve full employment; iii) to reduce inequalities of income and wealth; and iv) to set up a socialist society based on equality and justice and absence of exploitation.⁷ Such ideology of the government policies was the major thrust to go for enlarging the scope of functional areas of public sector in India.

The importance of the role of state in development is explained by Pranab Bardhan as, "The state not merely shapes class realignments or provides the material basis for new classes; in many newly industrializing countries, the state is today an important part of the economic base itself."⁹ Such ideas of thinkers of modern times were perhaps the part of Nehru's vision of development well in advance. It was evident from the industrial policies in form of Industrial Policy Resolutions (1948, 1956) and Five



Year Plans(beginning from 1951) that Nehru Model of Development was going to be the base for introduction of public sector in free India. Nehru was not against private sector but in order to build a self reliant nation, he gave more importance to public sector in large industrial sector and left the small sector and daily needs community items for private sector.

Role of Public Sector in India: After the attainment of independence and the advent of Planning, there has been a progressive expansion in the scope of the Public Sector. The passage of Industrial Policy Resolution of 1956 and the adoption of the Socialist Pattern of Society as our national goal, further led to deliberate enlargement of the role of public sector. To understand the role of the Public Sector, we must have an idea about its size in the context of the Indian economy. For a comprehensive view of the entire Public Sector, we should cover besides autonomous corporations, the departmental enterprises. While doing so, not only the enterprises owned and run by the Central Government be covered but the enterprises run by the State Governments and local bodies should also be included. Secondly, it would not be appropriate to use any single measure to estimate the size of the public sector; rather it would be desirable to use quite a few indicators, e.g., employment, investment, value of output, national income generated, savings, capital formation and capital stock.

Share in National Income: An important contribution to the National Income is Public Sector. During the period 1960 to 1999, the public sector has doubled its share in the national income in real terms and account for 25 percent of the total income of the economy. This is, undoubtedly, a significant change in

the structure of economy in terms of the increased importance of the public sector in domestic activity.

Share in Capital Formation: Another most important contribution of public sector in India has been in respect of capital formation. Investment in the private sector producing goods for rich people mainly should be evaluated lower than similar type of investment in the public sector which is engaged in the provision of essential infrastructural services to the economy as a whole. This is true even though the commercial profitability of the private sector is being rated high.

Table 1: Share of Public Sector and private sector in Total Investment:

Plan	Percentage of public /private sectors
II Plan	54.6/45.6
III Plan	63.7/36.3
IV Plan	60.3/39.7
V Plan	57.6/42.4
VI Plan	52.9/47.1
VII Plan	47.8/52.2
VIII Plan	36.5/63.5
IX Plan	33.4/64.6

The above table shows the investment in this sector is that after having reached the peak during the third plan, the share of public sector, in total investment in each of the plans has however, been on the decline. Private sector includes all different types of individual or corporate enterprises, both domestic and foreign, engaged in different fields of productive activity. Private sector enterprises are owned and managed by the private sector. These private sector enterprises are mostly characterized by certain common characteristics like private initiative, profit motive and ownership and management in private hands. In 18th and 19th century, most of the



countries of the world adopted the policy of laissez faire where the Governments followed a policy of non-interference in economic activity by the State. This had led to huge expansion of private sector in almost all the countries of the world. In recent times, the private sector has changed its character and is now quite different from the private enterprises of the past. Now-a-days, the private sector in the form of corporate industrial units are normally owned by the shareholders and managed by professional managers, where they are not only guided by profit motive but also by expansion, consolidation, arousing social consciousness, social responsibilities, social welfare etc.

Now-a-days, the scope of private enterprises is very much restricted due to the expansion of public sector in different countries of the world. Even the capitalist countries like USA, Japan, Western European countries etc. have developed public sector in some strategic areas like defence production, aircraft production, atomic energy, multi-purpose projects etc. In a developing country like India, with the continuous expansion of the public sector, the productive areas open for the private sector has gradually squeezed.

Broadly, the public sector in India is assigned with the responsibility of developing and managing heavy and basic industries, economic and social economic infrastructure but the private sector has been assigned with the task of developing consumer goods industries. While the railways, civil aviation, power generation and distribution, banks, insurance and other financial institutions are reserved in the public sector, but the private sector has been allotted with the entire agriculture and allied activities, plantation, mining, internal trade both

wholesale and retail, foreign trade, road freight traffic etc. At present, the organized areas of the private sector is mostly controlled by the corporate industrial sector and the unorganized agricultural and cottage industrial sector are controlled by the household sector and private individuals. In the initial stage of economic development, investment in the public sector was quite necessary to accelerate the pace of economic development as well as for the development of basic and heavy industries and the infrastructural areas so as to provide necessary support to private sector.

The importance of private sector in Indian economy over the last 15 years has been tremendous.. Previously, the Indian markets were ruled by the government enterprises but the scene in Indian market changed as soon as the markets were opened for investments. This saw the rise of the Indian private sector companies, which prioritized customer's need and speedy service. This further fueled competition amongst same industry players and even in government organizations. The post 1990 era witnessed total investment in favor of Indian private sector. The investment quantum grew from 56% in the first half of 1990 to 71 % in the second half of 1990. This trend of investment continued for over a considerable period of time. These investments were especially made in sector like financial services, transport and social services. The late 1990s and the period thereafter witnessed investments in sector like manufacturing, infrastructure, agriculture products and most importantly in Information technology and telecommunication. The present trend shows a marked increase in



investment in areas covering pharmaceutical, biotechnology, semiconductor, contract research and product research and development.

Conclusion and Suggestions: In fact most of the public sector companies continue to be over administered and under managed. The Eleventh Finance Commission observed that if Public enterprises are given the "same benefits of autonomy and freedom as the private sector has lately witnessed" they will be a major source of resources generation and budgetary support. The new vision and mission and healthy human resource management (HRM) practices can go a long way to transform the whole scenario of public sector in India. The standing conference of Public Enterprises very rightly observed that public enterprises⁴¹ have been the transformers of our economy in many ways: (i) They have created new skills and competences in most of the high tech areas. (ii) They have helped to secure a balanced regional development. (iii) Their role in providing job opportunities for socially disadvantaged sections of the society is commendable. So unarguably the future of public sector in India can be very bright. It is given more freedom in working, lessening of politicization and bureaucratization and with adding all the prevalent inputs of HRM practices in public sector will surely make India a super power and a total self-reliant developed nation in the times to come. Even though the public sector is going in a correct path, some problems and short comings are there.

Suggestions to Improve the Performance of Public Sector Enterprises (PSEs):

- (i) Controlling the cost at every level of public sector enterprises.
- (ii) Increase the production,
- (iii) Reforms in capital base.

(iv) Increase the standard of public sector enterprises to manage the competition from both domestic and foreign competitors. (v) Identifying redundant manpower and dealing with it through means a retraining, redeployment and encouraging self-employment etc. The importance of private sector in Indian economy has been very commendable in generating employment and thus eliminating poverty.

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Green Building: An Eco-Friendly, Sustainable and Emerging Trend in Indian Construction Industry

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Abstract: The Indian economy has witnessed considerable progress in the past few decades after the 'Globalization' concept emerged. The Construction industry of India is an important indicator of the country's development as it creates investment and employment opportunities across different related sectors and industries like cement, steel, technology, skill-enhancement, etc. It is also a major contributor towards India's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), both directly and indirectly. Despite many positive signs, the prolonged real estate market slowdown has resulted in a lot of unsold housing projects across India. Apart from this, the construction sector is facing a severe shortage of skilled workforce, construction sand, raw materials and political disturbances which are becoming a barrier for the growth of the industry. Around 20 per cent of growth is expected in India in green building industry in the next three years (Smart Market Report, 2016). Green buildings offer a large and significant operational cost savings compared with the conventional buildings. Hence consumers are trying to adopt the Green building concepts and trying to make their constructions greener. This paper attempts to analyse the history, concepts, importance, benefits of green buildings to the users, country's economy and the environment on the whole.

Keywords: India, green, construction, residential, sustainable, environment

Introduction: The modern world has been tremendously changing in the recent years and being exposed to phenomenal changes in different fields comprising of economy, technology and communications. A concept called 'Globalisation' is being used in connection with these changes and their consequences. Globalisation is defined by International Monetary Fund (IMF) as the "growing economic inter-dependence of countries worldwide through the increasing volume and variety of cross-border transactions in goods and services and of international capital flows, and also through the more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology"

(Khan, 2004). In India, Globalisation emerged in 1990's.

One of the sectors in which lot of changes and developments occurred due to Globalisation is the Construction sector and industries related to it. The Construction sector is one of the largest contributors to economic activity, after the agriculture sector, in India. Construction employs an estimated 35 million people and is a significant driver of FDI inflows. The Construction industry in India expects a growth rate of 7-8% per annum over the next 10 years (Market Survey, dmg Events, 2014). The Construction industry of India is an important indicator of the country's development as it creates investment and



employment opportunities across different related sectors and industries like cement, steel, technology, skill-enhancement, etc. It is also a major contributor towards India's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), both directly and indirectly. Despite many positive signs, the prolonged real estate market slowdown has resulted in a lot of unsold housing projects across India. Apart from this, the construction sector is facing a severe shortage of skilled workforce, construction sand, raw materials and political disturbances which are becoming a barrier for the growth of the industry. However, few initiatives taken up by the government like Smart Cities project, Housing for All by 2022 and Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT) will be a major game changer for the construction industry, its infrastructure and related sectors.

Green building, which is also called as green construction or sustainable building refers to both (a) structure and the using of processes that are environmentally responsible and resource-efficient throughout a building's life-cycle: from site selection to designing, construction, operation, maintenance, renovation, and demolition. Around 20 percent of growth is expected in India in green building industry in the next three years (Smart Market Survey, 2016). Green buildings offer a large and significant operational cost savings compared with the conventional buildings. Hence consumers are trying to adopt the Green building concepts and trying to make their constructions greener.

Objectives of the Paper

1. To study the benefits of a green building in terms of social, economical and environmental aspects.
2. To understand about the history and evolution of green buildings in India.
3. To analyse the need and scope of green buildings in India.

Methodology : The paper is written by conducting a review of information gathered from secondary sources like internet, research articles and publications, newspaper articles, market survey reports, organizational reports of organizations like Indian Green Building Council (IGBC) and U.S Green Building Council, World Cement etc.

Discussion: The literature collected is analysed and discussed in this section under the following heads: (a) Benefits of green building, (b) History and evolution of Green Buildings in India and (c) Scope of green buildings in India.

Benefits of green building: The major benefit of green building and its practices is it reduces the overall impact to the environment. U.S. Green Building Council expresses Green construction methods when combined with good design and materials provides the following benefits:

Economic benefits:

- ✓ Reduce operating costs
- ✓ Enhance the asset value and profits
- ✓ Improve occupant productivity and satisfaction
- ✓ Optimize the life cycle economic performance
- ✓ Qualifying for various tax rebates, zoning allowances and other incentives in many cities



- ✓ Become a selling point to potential buyers
- ✓ Create market for green product and services
- ✓ Lowering a building's overall life cycle cost

Environmental benefits:

- ✓ Improve air and water quality
- ✓ Reduce solid waste and water wastage
- ✓ Conserve natural resources
- ✓ Enhance and protect ecosystems and biodiversity

Health and community benefits:

- ✓ Improve air, thermal, and acoustic environments
- ✓ Enhance occupant comfort, health and quality of life
- ✓ Limits the growth of mold and other airborne contaminants that can affect the occupant productivity and/or health
- ✓ Minimize strain on local infrastructure and economy
- ✓ Reduces the impacts on worldwide climate crisis

(b) History of green building in India

The Green Building movement was founded in Great Britain with a rating system called BREEAM, which was first launched in 1990. This system was later adopted in the United States when the U.S. Green Building Council was formed. Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) was loosely adopted from the BREEAM system and came into existence sometime in March 2000.

The Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) formed the Indian Green Building Council in 2001, to actively

involve in promoting the green building concept in India. LEED India movement was adopted by the Confederation of Indian Industry (CII) in the year 2003.

LEED India has been grown vastly from the time of inception and has created a huge network of smaller stakeholders, consisting of the construction industry, corporate, governmental & nodal agencies, consultants, architects, designers, developers, builders and product manufacturers, and most of them are choosing the promotion of green building as a profession too.

Some recent statistics given by the IGBC in 2016, tells that there are about 1,763 Organisational Members, 3,921 Registered Projects, 4.48 Billion sq. ft. Green building footprint, 1,41,621 Acres of Large developments and 2,200 IGBC Accredited Professionals who are registered under the Council.

Apart from this, there are many constructions which are not registered under IGBC are also coming up across the country. They are trying to be green, by adopting one or few sustainable practices like installing energy efficient appliances, installing solar panels, waste and water re-use and recycling, rain water harvesting, using eco-friendly building materials and so on.

(c) Scope of green buildings in India

There is no doubt that the human population and their unending needs are growing faster than the planet earth can sustain. This is leading to the changes and degradation in the environment and it is important to reverse the environmental changes, if not possible,



they should be slowed down. There are many different things which the humans can do to correct their behaviour and minimize environmental degradation. Green buildings are one of the ways in the quest to achieve sustainable growth. Buildings are responsible for a large portion of harmful emissions, however green buildings are easy to design, harmless to use and build. India is a large country with a large population and big problems. Electricity, water, land and some other natural resources are limited in India and it can become practically impossible for even the most efficient government to supply these to the enormous population in India. Besides these, the waste management is becoming difficult. Therefore, a social sense and responsibility has to be created in Indians to protect themselves from the resource crisis and strive towards the self-sufficiency, sustainability and smarter living. This realization can surely contribute to the growth and promotion of green building.

Apart from that, green buildings offer the developers, builders and architect an opportunity to avoid lack of differentiation in their projects. In relation to that, the green construction product market can be increased and this will surely help the economy of our country. Environmental regulations are also an important driver for the growth in green buildings in India. The results of a multi-national study says that the improving the public awareness regarding green buildings in India, as it is very low and the need for public incentives for the green market to continue to flourish is important for the green building concept to flourish in India (Smart Market Report, 2016).

GRIHA is India's own rating system jointly developed by The Energy and Resources Institute (TERI) and the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy, Government of India. GRIHA is a rating system which assesses the environmental performance of buildings on a scale of 0-104 points with a minimum of 50 points required for a building to be rated under GRIHA. Based on number of points scored, a building can be rated between 1 and 5 stars, 1 star being the lowest and 5 star being the highest level of environmental performance.

The LEED green building rating system is a nationally and internationally accepted benchmark for the design, construction and operation of high performance green buildings. It promotes a whole-building approach to sustainability by recognizing performance in the key areas of Sustainable sites, Water efficiency, Energy efficiency and renewable energy, Conservation of materials and resources, indoor environmental quality and Regional Priority. The registered buildings are given platinum, gold and silver rating. Few examples of buildings which received the LEED platinum rating are Biodiversity Conservation India Ltd (BCIL) in Bangalore and CII – Sohrabji Godrej Green Business Centre, Hyderabad. The gold rating was received by Anna Centenary Library Building in Chennai and Birla International School, Jaipur, and silver rating was received by Rajiv Gandhi International Airport in Hyderabad and ISKCON Cultural Centre in Mysore.

The features seen in the CII – Sohrabji Godrej Green Business Centre, Hyderabad are central courtyard for passage of natural light and air, roof



garden, jali wall for bringing in natural light and ventilation, use of double glazed glass, solar energy systems, wind towers, wind deflectors, root zone treatment for water and re-using them, low flow water fixtures and use of sustainable materials for construction. This centre also received BEE 5 star ratings.

A number of companies which are manufacturing green building materials are also increasing. IGBC recognises more than 350 companies which are producing these products. Some of the companies which are manufacturing green building products in India include Green Build Products (I) Pvt.Ltd. based in Pune and Bajaj Eco-tech Products Ltd. which produces construction materials, Bajaj Electronics and Philips Electronics Pvt. Ltd. which produces fixtures which consumes less electrical energy, Jaguar and Company Pvt. Ltd. and Kohler India which produces water saving fixtures and the list continues. BEE developed its own rating system for the buildings based on a 1 to 5 star scale. More the number of stars given to a building means the more energy efficient it is. The Reserve Bank of India's buildings in Delhi and Bhubaneshwar, and CII – Sohrabji Godrej Green Business Centre, Hyderabad are few buildings which received 5 star BEE ratings.

Conclusion

There are many myths about green building like the Building green is more expensive and has high running costs, unattractive, over hyped, not as efficient as traditional building, highly modern and technological, only environmentalists build green, difficult to construct in all the locations and green

products do not help or improve the environment. But the fact is Green Building and its concepts can have tremendous benefits, both tangible and intangible. The tangible benefits at a micro-level can include energy savings upto 20 – 30 percent and water savings upto 30 – 50 percent in a long run, as research says. The intangible benefits can include enhanced air quality, excellent day lighting, improving health and well-being of the occupants, conservation of scarce national resources, enhancement of marketability for the project / resale. The tangible benefits at a macro-level can include the improvement in the country's economy and the intangible benefits is environmental protection and sustainability in a long run. The Indian consumers are increasingly becoming conscious about the environment in the recent times due to the environmental degradation, depletion of natural resources and also due to the government laws enforced, and hence they are showing an interest towards buying eco-friendly products, but not many are aware of the products. The materials required to build green surely cost a little more than those for traditional buildings, but the products last longer, and as building green improves the air quality in a home or business, there will be improvements to the overall health and well-being of those who live or work there. Green and healthy living improves productivity, which in turn saves money. Most people think only of the money saved in energy costs, however, building green saves in labour costs, too. As a final note, if the trend of a green building continues forever, though it costs a bit more than a conventional building, it saves resources, improves health, works in all climates, benefits everyone and the environment and will necessarily become



the primary means to sustainability in the future.

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Economic Exclusion of Muslims in Telangana: Broadening Inequalities

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Abstract: Given the astonishing levels of income and wealth inequalities that continue to widen exponentially and unemployment levels staying at high levels almost everywhere in the world, the governments in various countries, have been forced to resort to plans for ensuring inclusion in economic development of all the sections of their respective societies. Promotion of small businesses through entrepreneurship development is now universally considered as the only promising strategy to solve fundamental economic problems and to ward off social-political instability. India ranked 67th in 2016's "People's Under Threat Index" and fell 13 places from 2015's ranking. According to this report the following communities at risk in the country viz., Assamese, Bodos, Nagas, Adivasis, Dalits and Muslims etc. Although various constitutional measures have been taken place but the threat of security and identity is still spotted in the Muslim community. These insecurities and inequalities have being led to the social and economic exclusion.

Introduction

"It's a recession when your neighbor loses his job; it's a depression when you lose your own."- Harry Truman

The state of Telangana is newly formed as the 29th state of India and has significant percentage of people in the state are Muslims. According to 2011 census and 2014 projected figures Muslims are around 15 percent in Telangana State. But, the Muslims of Telangana suffer from the problems of socio economic backwardness and low levels of human development. This can be attributed to low levels of political empowerment and inadequate representation. The political representation of Muslim community is one of the most debated questions in Post-Independence India. More so, with the publication of Sachar committee report (known as "The Report of the Prime Ministers High Level Committee on Social, Economic and Educational Status of Muslims in India-2006), a perception is broadly emerged on the

inadequacy of Muslim leadership in India resulting in low levels of social and economic advancement. Special policy interventions shall be required for the advancement of Muslim economic development in the newly formed state.

2. Objectives of the Paper: This paper finds out the figure out the Muslim community in Telangana state in the various fields of economic activities and there share with other socio-religious groups. The plight of Muslims will be discussed. The possible way outs through MSME and other policy initiatives will focus on the delivery mechanism of the units of the marginalized groups like Muslims. This presentation will also throw light on understanding the financial exclusion of Muslims in Telangna state and access to the labor market, finance sector, unemployment etc, and in non-participation in the said activities.

3. Methodology: This study based on the primary and secondary data like



Annual reports of the different commissions reports and other reports like Sachar committee, media responses, Artisans perceptions, Banker's attitude towards Muslim borrowers. Special focus will be given on the data of All India Sixth Economic Census, 2016 and Report of Commission of Inquiry on Socio-Economic and Educational Conditions of Muslims, Government of Telangana, 2016.

Discussion :

Muslims had participated in social and political movements of Telangana. This was evident when Turbaz Khan participated in first war of Independence, popularly known as Sepoy Mutiny. Further, the participation of Muslim leaders and workers like Maqdoom Mohiuddin in Telangana armed struggle. Secular and moderate Muslim leaders had also participated in various social and

political movements including the join Indian Movement.

5. Population: Muslim population is significantly high in some of the districts of Telangana such as Hyderabad, Nizamabad, Rangareddy, Medak, Adilabad and so on with double digit percentage. In other districts like Mahboobnagar, Karimnagar, Khammam, Warangal and Nalgonda, Muslims population is moderate. This indicates that Muslims in Telangana state reside across of all districts, but the density of population varies from one district to the other Muslims constitute around 12.69 percent of the total population of state of Telangana.

Table – 1: Muslim Population in Telangana

District	Total Population	Muslim Population	Per cent
Hyderabad	3943323	1713405	43.45%
Nizamabad	2551335	391596	15.35%
Rangareddy	5296741	617518	11.66%
Medak	3033288	342449	11.29%
Adilabad	2741239	275970	10.07%
Mahboobnagar	4053028	334172	8.24%
Karimnagar	3776269	244723	6.48%
Khammam	2797370	158887	5.68%
Warangal	3512576	197333	5.62%
Nalgonda	3488809	188646	5.41%
Total	35193978	4464699	12.69%

Source: Census of India 2011.



Among all the districts of Telangana, Hyderabad has highest concentration of Muslim population. Among other districts, Nizamabad has a maximum of 15.35 percent while Nalgonda has a minimum of 5.41 percent of Muslim population. Muslim community in the state of Telangana has dominant percentage of Sunni sect, though there are shias, the important groups among Muslims include, Shaik, Syed, Moghal and Pathans.

Economic Conditions of Muslims:

Work Participation Rates (WPR) in Telangana:

Work Participation Rates (W.P.R) provides an idea of the extent of participation in economic activity by a specific group of population. Work participation depends on many factors such as the availability of employment satisfactory skills, accessibility of assets or machines to operate for work etc. Given these endorsements if the work is availed is not of the kind which a person prefers, she/he may not work. These work preferences again depend on a variety of factors, social, cultural and economic. Moreover, non-availability of employment may result in situations that people (especially women) withdraws from the labour force. This is frequently referred to in academic research as "discouraged worker effect". Consequently differences in WPRs reflect the difference in

endowments as well on the nature and quantum of employment opportunities.

Work participation rates for Muslims are significantly lower than the all other socio religious communities in rural areas and Urban areas.

The State of Telangana has WPRs 46.75 percent, with 48.71 percent in Hindus 34.65 percent in Muslims while Christian's ratio is 44.22 percent. There is a huge gap between Hindus and Muslims in terms of work participation rates.

- Low aggregate work participation rate for Muslims are essentially due to much lower participation in economic activity by women in the community.
- Most striking feature is the relatively high share of Muslim workers engaged in self-employment activity. This is particularly high in urban areas and among women workers.
- Participation of Muslim workers in salaried jobs (both in the public and the private sectors) is quite low as in the case of schedule caste and schedule tribe workers.
- A significantly larger proportion of Muslim workers are engaged in small proprietary enterprises and their participation in formal sector employment is significantly less than the national average.
- Among the non-manufacturing segments retail and wholesale trade has a large proportion of the Muslim workers.



Table – 2: Work Participation Ratio of Telangana among Different Communities

	Religion	Total Work Participation Ratio	Main Workers Ratio	Marginal Workers Ratio	Male WPR	Female WPR
Total	Total	46.75	83.91	16.09	54.99	38.41
	Hindu	48.71	84.34	15.66	55.93	41.41
	Muslim	34.65	80.33	19.67	49.56	19.25
	Christian	44.22	84.35	15.65	55.17	33.62
	Sikh	40.37	82.54	17.46	55.09	23.88
	Buddhist	47.52	76.91	23.09	52.97	41.84
	Jain	35.86	83.83	16.17	55.94	15.26
Rural	Total	53.00	84.25	15.75	56.39	49.60
	Hindu	53.52	84.31	15.69	56.56	50.47
	Muslim	44.67	83.36	16.64	54.36	34.92
	Christian	51.26	85.59	14.41	56.39	46.36
	Sikh	48.79	81.55	18.45	56.78	39.66
	Buddhist	50.92	76.31	23.69	52.52	49.27
	Jain	33.07	82.77	17.23	38.00	28.57
Urban	Total	36.84	83.14	16.86	52.80	20.40
	Hindu	38.75	84.43	15.57	54.64	22.38
	Muslim	31.24	78.85	21.15	47.96	13.83
	Christian	41.06	83.66	16.34	54.63	27.85
	Sikh	38.91	82.75	17.25	54.79	21.18
	Buddhist	40.83	78.38	21.62	53.84	26.93
	Jain	36.10	83.92	16.08	57.40	14.02

Source: Computed from Census Data 2011.

Table – 3: Non Workers Profile of Telangana of Different Communities

	Religion	Non Workers Ratio	Male Non Workers Ratio	Female Non Workers Ratio
Total	Total	53.25	45.01	61.59
	Hindu	51.29	44.07	58.59
	Muslim	65.35	50.44	80.75
	Christian	55.78	44.83	66.38
	Sikh	59.63	44.91	76.12
	Buddhist	52.48	47.03	58.16



	Jain	64.14	44.06	84.74
Rural	Total	47.00	43.61	50.40
	Hindu	46.48	43.44	49.53
	Muslim	55.33	45.64	65.08
	Christian	48.74	43.61	53.64
	Sikh	51.21	43.22	60.34
	Buddhist	49.08	47.48	50.73
	Jain	66.93	62.00	71.43
Urban	Total	63.16	47.20	79.60
	Hindu	61.25	45.36	77.62
	Muslim	68.76	52.04	86.17
	Christian	58.94	45.37	72.15
	Sikh	61.09	45.21	78.82
	Buddhist	59.17	46.16	73.07
	Jain	63.90	42.60	85.98

Source: Computed from Census Data 2011.

Table- 4: Percent distribution of HHs by monthly income and religion

	SCs	STs	H-OBCs	H- Others	Hind us	Muslim- BC-E	Muslim- Others	Muslim- All	Other minorities	All
Less than 10000/-	56.8	45.9	54.8	42.5	53.7	48.73	46.44	48.2	44.1	49.7
10000 to 20000	33.5	40.4	36.4	41.4	36.4	36.48	38.18	36.9	38.2	36.9
20000 to 30000	5.3	8.2	5.5	8.8	5.9	8.65	9.31	8.8	9.8	7.8
30000 to 40000	2.1	2.1	2	4.4	2.2	3.42	3.03	3.3	3.6	3
40000 and above	2.3	3.4	1.3	2.9	1.8	2.72	3.03	2.8	4.3	2.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mean	11536	12587	11228	13868	11587	12712	13329	12848	13821	12507
Median	9000	10000	9167	10833	9250	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000

Source: Sudhir Commission of Inquiry Report, 2016 p 95

The Sudhir Commission Report, 2016 indicated its report that about 48% Muslim household possesses a monthly income of less than Rs.10,000/- and more than one third i.e., 36.9% had monthly income levels between Rs.10,000/- and Rs.20,000/- whereas the other Socio-Religious categories have recorded higher

income in all the categories. It is clearly indicates that the inequality between the Hindus and Muslims are very high.

The Sixth Economic Census, March 2016 provides the count of establishments including those in the unorganized sector, which have a huge contribution in Indian economy in terms



of employment generation. According to this report the Muslims situation in Telangana is indicated as follows.

Table-5: All India Sixth Economic Census Data on Various Economic Components in TS

Sl.No	Description	Hindus	Muslims	Deprivation
1	Distribution of Ownership of Property in Handicraft/Handloom sector(Total 39,658)	31,416	6500	37%
2	Distribution of Employment in Proprietary Establishment (Total 70,236)	52,214	14,242	42%
3	Total No.of Establishments under Women Entrepreneurship (Total 3,56,486)	2,65,733	40,931	39%
4	Total No.of Persons Employed under Women Entrepreneurs (Total 5,86,546)	3,97,069	70,723	31%

Source: Report on All India Sixth Economic Census, 2016

Conclusion: This data evident that the Muslims in Telangana are marginalized and discriminated in all economic fields while comparing with Hindus. Further Muslims are engaged in self-employment activities, particularly in urban areas especially in small trades, petty street vending and its related business activity. The fragility of Muslim participation in the economic activity is abysmally low and further intensifies their marginalization and displacement in the market economy. As such the state is no longer employer and market forces are leading in the economic activity. The policies of globalization and economic liberalization are also caused Muslims into further deterioration in economic activity and they remain as laborers' and daily wage workers. These pathetic conditions leads the Muslim community in the state is economically excluded.

Therefore the following measures shall be initiated to address the economic issues

and betterment of Muslims in Telangana as a policy perspective of economic inclusion. The Muslims of Telangana shall be granted 12% Reservations in Employment, Education and Legislatures. Skill Development Centers and Entrepreneurial Training Centers shall be established in all the district headquarters with the corpus fund of Rs.10 Crores. Micro Finance Credit facilities shall be provided for Muslims youth up to Rs.50, 000 /- without collateral security.

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Economic Planning in India and Inclusive Growth - Role of Administration Thereof

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Abstract: The paper starts from a brief meaning of Inclusive Growth and its need felt in Economic Planning particularly in 11th and 12th plan and pinpoint shortcomings therein as stated in reports of different committees, commissions and organizations. Success of an economic plan is directly proportional to efficiency of administration/Governance. Noted scholar and administrator Herbert Emmerich once stated that 80% of the plans of world are incapable of being fulfilled because of administration. I would try to explain how Growth can be made more inclusive in India through administrative reforms in the light of recommendations made by the erstwhile Planning Commission, Administrative Reforms Commissions (ARC's), other commissions and committees

Keywords:- Inclusive Growth, Economic Planning, Administrative Reforms, Planning Commission, Administrative Reforms Commissions

Introduction. Economic planning has achieved high growth rate particularly from 1991 when economic reforms were initiated in India enabling Indian economy to be among the fastest growing economies of the world. Has the growth been inclusive? If not. Has it increased spending on social service schemes? If yes. Then why it is so? If inefficient administration is one of the reasons? What reforms are needed to be made in the administration? These questions are tried to be answered in this paper keeping in view recommendations, reports and analysis made by various commissions, committees and organizations.

Objectives of the Research.

1. To understand how growth in India has not been inclusive?
2. To understand the role of administration in inclusive growth.
3. To suggest reforms in administration to be up to the task.

4. Self-retrospection vis a vis our duties and responsibilities as citizens towards the problem in hand.

Research Methodology. This is an analytical research paper based on analysis and observations of different reports on various facets of title of the paper, keeping in view objectives of the research.

Meaning of Inclusive Growth

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) defines inclusive growth as economic growth that creates opportunity for all segments of the population and distributes the dividends of increased prosperity, both in monetary and non-monetary terms, fairly across society¹. According to the World Bank, growth is said to be inclusive when it is sustainable in the long run, broad based across sectors and inclusive of large part of country's laborforce. There are definitions provided by others as well, however all of them as rightly pointed out by UNDP's chief economist Thangavel



Palanivel, have some common features namely growth is inclusive when it takes place in sectors in which the poor work (e.g. agriculture), it occurs in areas where the poor live (underdeveloped areas with few resources), uses factors of production that the poor possess (e.g. unskilled labor) and reduces the prices of consumption items that the poor consume (e.g. food, fuel and clothing)². Therefore inclusive growth is that growth which avoids marginalization of large segments of population and bridges gaps between haves and have-nots, between rural and urban areas, between the employed and under-employed or unemployed, between different states, regions, communities and between genders.

Economic Planning and Inclusive Growth in India

India's growth story during the last six and a half decades has been good and particularly remarkable during the last 25 years of economic planning. Liberalization initiated in India in 1991 aligned Indian economy with the world, put it on high growth path and raised its status from an under developed country to one of the largest economies of the world. Despite high growth, concerns have been raised over the growth not being equally distributed. Policy makers responded to these concerns by arguing for inclusiveness. Consequently the planning commission of India entitled the 11th five year plan (2007-12) document as "towards faster and more inclusive growth" and 12th five year plan (2012-17) document as "faster, sustainable and more inclusive growth". The flagship programmes started in the 11th plan were not only continued in the 12th plan but new programmes were also started and greater focus was also laid on the issues

of implementation and governance to improve their effectiveness. President Pranab Mukherjee while addressing both houses of parliament at the start of the first budget session of Modi Government described "inclusive growth covering the poorest of the poor as the government's top priority". This shows that country's progress on various fronts has not been translated into overall improvement in life of poor and marginalized sections of the society. India's 60th rank, among 79 developing nations in Inclusive Development Index (IDI) 2017 prepared by World Economic Forum is below China, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan, substantiates this fact.³ Economic growth has certainly increased government spending on social services 20% of the total outlay of Centre and states in the 9th plan (1997-2002), in the 10th plan (2002-07) share of social services remained roughly the same and raised to 30% of the total plan outlay in the 11th plan (2007-12)⁴. But it didn't result in commensurate increase in the socio-economic status of the target group i.e. economically and socially weaker sections of the society (e.g. poor, SC's and ST's, OBC's, women, minorities and people living in rural areas). Take the case of poverty in India, according to the Rangarajan Committee, based on Tendulkar Committee poverty estimation, from 2004-05 to 2011-12 poverty declined by 2.18 percentage points compared to 0.74 percentage points from 1993-94 to 2004-05 and 138 million poor were lifted above the poverty line during 2004-05 to 2011-12⁵. But a lot remains to be done as recent report of the World Bank on poverty and shared prosperity maintained that India has the largest number of poor in the world i.e. 224 million living under the international \$1.90 a day poverty line criteria⁶, the



same report held inequality primarily responsible for the same. A report by Johannesburg-based Company New World Wealth corroborates the Bank's view as it gives India second most unequal country status in the world, where richest 1% own 53%, richest 5% own 68.6% and the richest 10% have 76.3% of the country's wealth⁷. The report also says that with a total individual wealth of \$5600 billion, India is among the 10 richest countries of the world, yet the average Indian is relatively poor. This again shows the success of economic planning in India in generating wealth, but abysmal failure when it comes to distribution of the same among different stakeholders.

There is one more strong reason for slow decrease in poverty rate in India and concentration of poor predominantly in rural areas i.e. slow growth of agriculture-the sector in which poor work. In the 10th plan period (2002-07) agriculture sector grew at just 2% and in the 11th plan period (2007-12) by 3.2%⁸. According to census 2011, 833 million people lived in rural India constituting 68.84% of the total population⁹. Therefore there is no reason to be astonished when planning commission says that 80% of poor resided in rural areas in 2011-12. Particularly deplorable would be the condition of women as they constitute more than 50% of Indian farmers and 60% of the agricultural workforce¹⁰. Other indicators of Human Development like literacy and education, maternal and infant mortality rates have shown steady improvement but we still lag behind several other nations of Asia. The literacy rate has gone up from 18.3% in 1951 to 74.04% in 2011 (census 2011), but still the largest number of illiterates in the world live in India. Life expectancy at birth has

increased from 32 years for both males and females in 1951 to 69.9 years for females and 66.9 years for males in 2015 (WHO figures), well below the life expectancy of China 77.6 years for females and 74.6 years for males. India has adverse sex ratio with only 940 women to 1000 men (2011 census) More alarming is the child sex ratio which in India has declined from 962 in 1981 to 919 in 2011 (2011 census). Poor access to essential healthcare services has resulted in much higher maternal and infant mortality rates in India than countries in East Asia¹¹. Therefore India is at 130th rank on UNDP's Human Development Index Report 2015.¹²

Role of Administration/ Governance in Inclusive Growth

One of the main factors responsible for non-inclusive growth in India is the inefficient implementation of social sector schemes by administration. On 17 Dec. 2016, the White House issued a statement that India remains one of the fastest growing countries in the world, with real GDP expanding at 7.3% in the four quarters of 2016 but inefficiencies remain in the public sector, with Indian poor still lacking healthcare coverage, educational attainment and access to financial services, further inequality in India remains high. Therefore inadequacy of administration in many developing countries is recognized as a major obstacle to development, perhaps more serious an obstacle than the lack of capital. Herbert Emmerich, a noted scholar and administrator estimates that 80% of plans of the World are incapable of being fulfilled because of administration. A welfare state like India having a planned economy and a republican constitution can't function except through efficient, widespread and



integrated structure of administration. Former Deputy Chairman of the erstwhile planning commission Montek Singh Ahluwalia gave a statement in October, 2009 that 16 paise out of a rupee actually reached the targeted poor, thus corroborating the statement made by late Rajiv Gandhi-the former Prime Minister of India in 1985 that out of every rupee sent to the common man through welfare schemes only 17 paise reached him¹³. So it is not a rocket science to understand where the problem lies? This also highlights the fact that there was no progress between pre-reform and post-reform period so far as improvement in the delivery system is concerned at least up to 2009. Therefore reform in the administration is the need of the hour to distribute the fruits of high economic growth among the poor and marginalized sections and regions of the country.

Reforms needed in Administration to include the excluded

Since independence many commissions and committees have been set-up to suggest reforms in administration. Two Administrative Reforms Commissions, reports of Paul H Appleby on Administrative System, Santhanam Committee on Prevention of Corruption, Kothari Committee on recruitment of Civil Services, Sarkaria Commission on Centre-State Relations, reports of various Pay Commissions, Hota Committee on Civil Service Reforms and reports of Planning Commission are prominent among them. I shall be discussing here, in the light of recommendations made by the above commissions and committees, only those points which would help in achieving inclusive growth.

1. Prevention of Corruption: Corruption Perception Index 2015 of

Transparency International put India at 76th position out of 168 countries.¹⁴. I think lack of awareness or education is a big reason for corruption, an educated person well aware of his rights, would not be easy to be motivated or coerced to pay bribe or exploited. Weaker sections of the society, for whom social inclusion schemes are meant despite legislations like Right to Information Act, Right to Education Act, Forest Rights Act, Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) and Food Security Act etc. are not able to benefit from them chiefly due to lack of awareness/education. Proper use of ICT tools for effective implementation, monitoring and quick flow of information, can be expected from an educated person only. Institutions like Lokpal and Lokayuktas should be made independent and stronger by giving them powers of investigation and punishing those found guilty in a time bound manner. Central Vigilance Commission and Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI) should be freed from political control and misuse. Central grants and aid to states should be linked to Corruption Index of the states as it is state and district administrations which implement centrally sponsored social service schemes and where most of the corruption takes place.

2. Electoral Reforms:-

Political parties should maintain and publish accounts of funds and donations collected from private sector to exercise transparency. Non-disclosure gives rise to favoritism in allocation of contracts, land and spectrum etc., which in turn would lead to returning of favors in the shape of less tax collection particularly from the super-rich and thus a nexus is created. In the process unequal distribution of wealth takes place. The poor and the



marginalized are the worst suffers as they don't get their due. Elections in India are by and large free and fair, but there is scope for improvement. Election Commission should be more strict and smart in enforcing model code of conduct, so that common man exercises right to vote in true spirit. Women reservation bill for 33% reservation in Lok Sabha (lower house) and state assemblies pending in the parliament has been there from last 20 years. This bill should be passed soon to give women their share in policy making and legislation. Women representation in parliament for 2016 stands at 11.1% in Rajya Sabha(Upper House) and 12% in Lok Sabha(Lower House), 145th rank in 193 countries as per list issued by Inter-Parliamentary Union¹⁵.

3. Decentralization,Delegation and Devolution:-

All the three terms imply transfer of authority to facilitate, among other things,people's participation in administrative process to make administration more responsive as the field units' act with the knowledge of local conditions and requirements. But responsibility is a corollary of authority. Henry Fayol very rightly remarks that wherever authority is exercised, responsibility arises¹⁶. State governments should devolve powers to local self-governments institutions under 73rd and 74th constitutional Amendment Act to enable them monitor and evaluate implementation of social service schemes.

5. Rights on resources:-

Almost all mineral, water and forest resources in India are located in rural areas and most of them in Tribal areas. As stated earlier 80% of the poor also live in these areas. Besides these areas are home to Schedule Tribes and Schedule Castes. So Government should as much

as possible set up factories close to these locations, and engage locals as employees there. That would uplift them and remove their sense of deprivation.

6. Public- Private Partnership:-

Public-Private Partnership if done in a transparent manner would help in providing quality education, health and other social services. It will ensure a nice mix of competition and professionalism and spirit of social welfare in service delivery.

7. Administrative Ethics:-

Morality or ethics in administration would ensure better government. The civil servants are expected to set-up high moral standards not only for themselves but also for community at large. British civil service in India demonstrated high administrative ethics in its functions of loyal and disinterested service to the crown. High moral values inculcate the virtues of integrity, loyalty, honesty sincerity, neutrality, anonymity and sense of public good into the civil service. Such virtues would also certainly make administration people-centric.

8. Fast Agriculture Growth:-

Agriculture growth although concerned with planning than administration, is very important for inclusive growth. The global development experience, especially from the BRICS countries, reveals that 1 percentage point growth in agriculture is at least 2 to 3 times effective in reducing poverty than the same magnitude of growth emanating from non-agriculture sector¹⁷. As stated earlier in the paper that 80% of the poor in India live in rural areas and almost all of them derive their livelihood directly or indirectly from agriculture. Fast growth of the sector is of utmost importance to inclusive growth. On the administrative front it is important for the Centre to work in co-



operation with the states to bring coherence in policies and strategies as agriculture is a state subject.

Conclusion

Economic growth in India has been remarkable and rightly acknowledged by one and all throughout the world. India is proud to be one of the largest economies of the world and is showing promise for the future as well. But unfortunately we as a nation have not been able to make that growth inclusive. India still has a lot to do when it comes to poverty, education, health etc of the poor, SC's, ST's, minorities and rural and urban. Administration or lack of it is prime reason for this. Let's all rise to the occasion and press the executive for reforms in the administration, to fulfill its promise of 'sab ka saath sab ka vikaas' which in English means 'taking everybody along and development for all'.

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Impact of 25 years economic reforms on sectoral changes in India

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Abstract: The 1991 policy attempted to liberalize the economy by removing practical hurdles in industrial growth. The task of public sector was limited. Only 2 sectors were finally left reserved for public sector. This reduced burden on the government. A process of either transforming or selling off the sick units started. The process of disinvestment in PSUs also started. The policy provided easier entry of multinational companies, privatization, removal of asset limit on MRTP companies, liberal licensing. All this resulted in bigger competition, that led to lower prices in many goods such as electronics prices. This brought domestic as well as overseas investment in almost every sector opened to private sector. In this paper an attempt is to study the impact of economic reforms on different sectors like agricultural, industrial, service and social sectors. With this it is concluded that the slow growth and in these sectors which have not seen any reform further highlights the significant role of the 1991 reforms in helping India's economy become what it is today.

Introduction:

The Indian economy is the tenth biggest in the globe by nominal GDP and the third largest by purchasing power parity (PPP). India is a member of BRICS and also one of the G-20 most important economies. On a per capita income basis, India ranked 140th by nominal GDP and 129th by GDP (PPP) in 2011, according to the IMF. The economic policies of our country were quite conservative till the early eighties. Current revenues of the Central Government exceeded current expenditures leading to surplus available to finance in part the deficit in capital account. In the early eighties, because of lax fiscal policies, current revenue surpluses turned into deficits, and the government had to borrow at home and abroad, to finance both its investment and also its current consumption. By 1990-91, the gross fiscal deficit had grown to about 10% of GDP. If one includes the losses of non-financial public sector enterprises, the consolidated

public sector deficit stood at around 10.9 percent of GDP in 1990-91, of which nearly 4.3 percent of GDP was for interest payments on domestic and external debt. An analysis by Willem Buiter and Urjit Patel (1992) showed that unless corrective steps were taken, India was bound to face fiscal insolvency.

Review of literature:

Namrata Anand (2014), in his paper has done an analysis of Indian economy, studied the changes in overall trend in Indian GDP growth rate, agricultural growth rate, industrial growth rate, & service sector growth rate. The paper concludes that Indian economy performed well after 1991 but currently due to global financial crisis in 2008 Indian economy is going through another turbulent phase. **Jay Mandle (2016)**, in his paper made an attempt to discuss about the multinational firms which contributed to economic growth in the developing world. He has given an insight



in this paper about how multinational firms contributed to growth & improved welfare. Finally he concludes that it is easy to show that FDI has an important role in economic development, but there is virtually no track record of success. **TN. Srinivasan (2003)**, in this paper a discussion is made on the radical shift from the dysfunctional development strategy of the previous four decades.

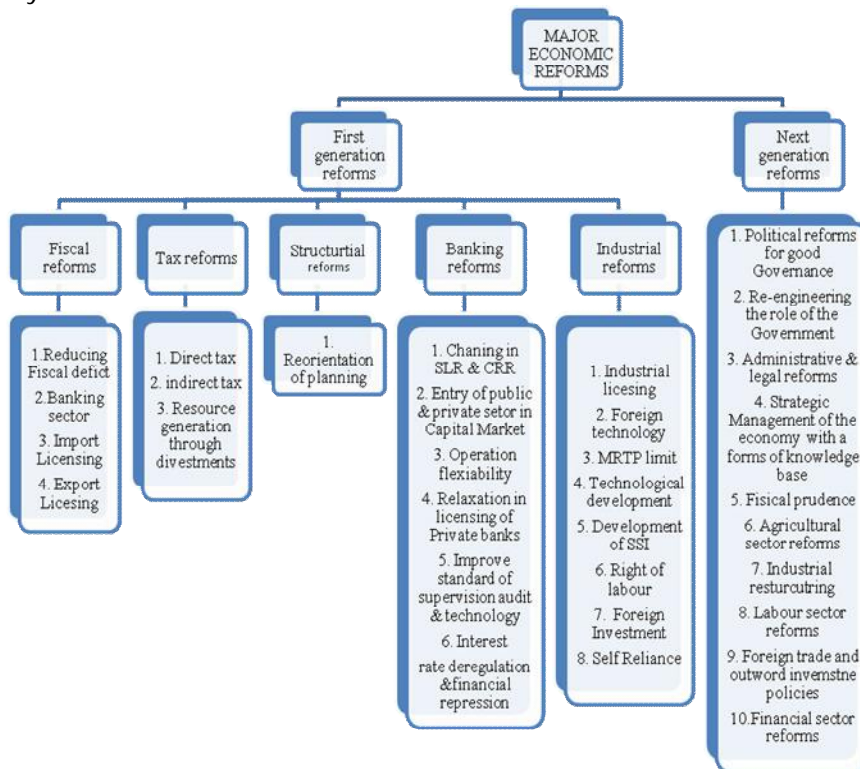
objectives of study:

- To study the various economic reforms implemented in India during the last 25 years..

- To understand the impact of economic reforms on agricultural, industrial, service and social sectors.

Methodology: The data for the study is collected from the secondary sources i.e. from different websites, journals and books and the collected data is arranged in a systematic manner to draw conclusions on selected title.

Categorisation of Economic Reforms



Discussion on sector wise reforms and their impact:

Agricultural sector:

There is a common misconception that most of the economic reforms have neglected agriculture, but the trade

policies have helped agriculture indirectly. The reduction of protection to industry, and the accompanying depreciation in the exchange rate, has



tilted relative prices in favor of agriculture and helped agricultural exports. The index of agricultural prices relative to manufactured products has increased by almost 30 percent in the past ten years (Ministry of Finance, 2002, Chapter 5). The share of India's agricultural exports in world exports of the same commodities increased from 1.1 percent in 1990 to 1.9 percent in 1999, whereas it had declined in the ten years before the reforms. But, while agriculture has benefited from trade policy changes, it has suffered in other respects, most notably from the decline in public investment in areas critical for agricultural growth, such as irrigation and drainage, soil conservation and water management systems and rural roads.

The report of the Task Force on Employment has made comprehensive proposals for review of several other outdated agricultural laws (Planning Commission, 2001b) like:

Land Tenancy laws - designed to protect land tenants, ended up discouraging marginal farmers from leasing out nonviable holdings to larger farmers for fear of being unable to reclaim the land from the tenant.

The Agricultural Produce Marketing Acts - in various states compel traders to buy agricultural produce only in regulated markets, making it difficult for commercial traders to enter into contractual relationships with farmers.

Development of a modern food processing sector, which is essential to the next stage of agricultural development, is also hampered by outdated and often contradictory laws and regulations. Hence, there is a need to change the laws

if the logic of liberalization is to be extended to agriculture.

Industrial sector:

Industrial Policy Reforms: In order to consolidate the gains already achieved during the 1980s, a series of reforms were introduced, in the Industrial Policy. The government announced a New Industrial Policy on 24 July 1991 which sought substantially to deregulate industry so as to promote growth of a more efficient and competitive industrial economy.

The central elements of industrial policy reforms were as follows:

- Industrial licensing was abolished for all projects excluding 18 industries by which 80 percent of the industry was taken out of the licensing framework.
- The Monopolies & Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act was repealed to remove the need for former approval by large companies for capacity expansion or diversification.
- Areas reserved for the public sector (17) were narrowed down (8) and greater participation by private sector was allowable in core and basic industries. These eight are mainly those involving strategic and security concerns. (Example, railways, atomic energy etc.)
- The policy encouraged disinvestment of government holdings of equity share capital of public sector enterprises.

Trade Policy Reforms: Under trade policy reforms, the main focus was on greater openness and outward-oriented. New **initiatives** were taken in trade policy to create an environment which would provide a stimulus to export while at the same time reducing the degree of regulation and licensing control on foreign deal.



The main feature of the new trade policy as it has evolved over the years since 1991 are as follows:

- **Freer imports and exports:**

Prior to 1991, in India imports were regulated by means of a positive list of liberally importable items. From 1992, imports were regulated by a partial negative list.

- **Rationalization of tariff structure and removal of quantitative restrictions:**

The Chelliah Committee's Report had suggested great reduction in import duties. It had suggested a peak rate of 50 percent. The method of lowering the customs tariffs was carried further in successive budgets.

- **Trading Houses:** The 1991 policy allowed export houses and trading houses to import a wide range of items. The Government also permitted the setting up of trading houses with 51 percent foreign equity for the reason of promoting exports.

Industrial licensing, irrespective of the level of investment, was abolished in July 1991 for all except 18 industries. In 1998-99, 12 of these have been removed from licensing requirements. The number of industries reserved for development entirely by the public sector has been reduced from 17 in 1991-92 to 3 by 2000-01. These two are major reforms. The draconian Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act of 1969 was amended in 1991-92, removing the entry limits of assets in respect of application of MRTP and of dominant undertakings. The Competition Bill incorporating a modern competitive law was introduced in Parliament in 2001. The abolition of reservation of products for production by small-scale industries (SSI) was done by two committees appointed by the

government and both have up with opposite conclusions.

The Abid Hussain Committee of 1997 suggested the elimination of reservation on all of the 800-odd products then reserved exclusively for SSI units. Whereas the new study group appointed by the Planning Commission in May 1999 is apparently in favour of retention of reservation for many products. From 1997 until May 2002, only 88 products have been de-reserved. De-reservation of 75 more has been announced by the Finance Minister in his budget speech in 2002-03. The sooner the Hussain Committee's recommendation to abolish all reservation is implemented, the better. Abolition of industrial licensing and relaxation of restrictions on FDI have substantially eliminated barriers of entry into industry.

The 1991 policy was followed by special efforts to increase exports. Concepts like Export Oriented Units (EOU), Export Processing Zones (EPZ), Agri-Export Zones (AEZ), Special Economic Zones (SEZ) and lately National Investment and Manufacturing Zones (NIMZ) emerged. All these have benefitted the export sector of the country. Gradually, a new act was passed for MSMEs in 2006 and a separate ministry was established to look into the problems of MSMEs. Government tried to provide better access to services and finance to MSMEs.

Service sector: Impact on Infrastructure Development

Power: This is one of the crucial infrastructural sectors but the reforms are yet to have any major impact. At the launch of reforms, electricity generation, transmission and distribution were all parts of fully-integrated public sector monopolies, although there are some generating plants run by the Central



Government (including all nuclear power plants) accounting for a quarter of the nation's generating capacity, a much bigger share is owned by State Electricity Boards (SEBs). The sale of electricity by SEBs to agricultural and non-commercial users has been heavily subsidized. Theft of electricity (euphemistically called part of transmission and distribution losses) has been significant as well. In October 1991, the relevant legislation was amended to permit private enterprises to enter power generation. Even after two decades of opening up of power generation to the private sector, only 10% of the generating capacity is in private hands. Several states have unbundled generation, transmission and distribution into distinct entities.

Telecommunications: The policy reforms in this sector have been enormously successful. Value added services were opened to private sector in 1992, followed by the enunciation of the National Telecom Policy in 1994-95 which opened up basic telecom services to competition. Foreign equity contribution up to 49% was permitted in case of a joint venture connecting an Indian and a foreign firm. The Telecom Regulatory Authority of India (TRAI) was established in 1997. In order to separate the service-providing function of publicly owned telecom enterprises and policy-making function, both of which were mainly with the Department of Telecommunications, a separate Department of Telecom Services was set up in 1999-2000. The jurisdiction for resolution of disputes was taken away from TRAI and entrusted to a separate agency called Telecom Dispute Settlement and Appellate Tribunal in the same year. The two public sector service providers were corporatized in 2000-01. International long-distance business,

which was a public sector monopoly, was opened to unrestricted entry in 2002-03. A bill called the "Convergence Bill" was introduced in Parliament in 2001 which, inter alia, envisages the setting up of a regulatory and licensing authority to be known as the Communications Commission of India. Parliament's Standing Committee on Communication and Information Technology reported on the bill in November 2002. The Universal Service Support Policy came into effect in April 1, 2002, under which a universal service levy (USL) at 5% of adjusted gross revenue of all telecom carriers (except pure value added service providers) has been fixed.

Roads, Ports, Railways and Airports:

Roads sector is another brilliant spot in infrastructure reforms. A key reform was the formation of a major new source of financial support for national, state and rural road construction, under the Central Road Fund Act of 2000. The resources for the fund are raised through an additional excise duty on petrol and high-speed digital (HSD). Clearly, given the close relationship between the damage to roads created by a vehicle and its fuel utilization, this is a well-designed user tax. The National Highway Development Project financed by the CRF is one of the largest single highway projects in the world. It includes the nearly 6,000 km of Golden Quadrilateral (GQ) linking the four metropolitan cities of Chennai, Delhi, Kolkata and Mumbai and 7,300 km of North-South and East-West Corridor. The GQ would be substantially completed by the end of this year and fully by 2004. The corridor would be undertaken during 2003-07. Although new institutional arrangements (including private ownership of ports) have better performance considerably, it



still lags behind ports in nearby countries such as Colombo and Singapore.

Indian Railways (IR) is one of the biggest railway systems in the world, serving larger social interests. IR has been undertaking uneconomical operations to offer affordable transport facilities to the common man and to carry certain necessary commodities of mass consumption at low freight rates. During 2001-02 losses incurred on this account constituted about to 9% of total earnings which are earned through freight services and from higher classes of passenger travel. In addition, cross-subsidization exists within freight services" (GOI 2003, p. 198). The relatively high cost of freight and poor quality of service, is being competed by road transport operators. Although Railways have undertaken several reforms to improve their functioning and to augment their resources, such as involving state governments to participate in the financing of railway projects and creation of the so-called Special Purpose Vehicles (i.e., a firm embodying a financial contract with no management or employees), until the issue of cross-subsidization is tackled, these reforms and a new non-budgetary initiative for the development of railways are going to prove inadequate.

Airports: The government has restructured **metro airports** to make them world class with private sector participation. (GOI 2003, p.202).

Financial Sector

Fiscal Reforms: A key element in the stabilization effort was to renovate fiscal regulation. The fiscal deficit during 1990-91 was as big as 8.4 percent of GDP. The budget for 1991-92 took a bold step in the path of correcting fiscal imbalance. It envisaged a decline in fiscal deficit by nearly two percentage points of GDP

from 8.4 percent in 1990-91 to 6.5 percent in 1991-92. The budget aimed at containing government payments and augmenting revenues, reversing the downtrend in the share of direct taxes to total tax revenues and curbing conspicuous consumption. Some of the important policy initiatives introduced in the budget for the year 1991-92 for correcting the fiscal imbalance were: reduction in fertilizer subsidy, abolition of subsidy on sugar, disinvestment of a part of the government's equity holdings in select public sector undertakings and acceptance of major recommendations of the Tax Reforms Committee headed by Raja Chelliah. These recommendations aimed to raise revenue through better compliance in case of income tax and excise and customs duties, and make the tax structure stable and transparent.

Monetary and Financial Sector

Reforms: Monetary reforms aimed at doing away with interest rate distortions and rationalizing the structure of lending rates. The main thrust of reforms in the financial sector was on the development of efficient and steady financial institutions and markets. Reforms in respect of the banking as well as non-banking financial institutions focused on creating a deregulated environment and enabling free play of market forces while at the same time strengthening the prudential norms and the supervisory system.

Banking: Commercial banks were nationalized in 1969, insurance companies had been nationalized earlier. On the eve of reforms in 1991, the financial sector (other than stock markets) was dominated by the public sector. The financial system was reserved, with controls on deposit and lending rates, discriminating credit controls and the acquirement of a large



part of the resources of the banks by the government through cash reserve ratios, statutory liquidity ratios and so on. The RBI (2003, Chapter VI) gives thrust on a variety of reforms and their overall assessment. Until the early 1990s, the role of the financial system in India was mainly restricted to the function of channeling resources from the surplus to deficit sectors.

The new policy tried in many ways to make the banking system more efficient. Some of the measures undertaken were:

Reserve Requirements: Reduction in statutory liquidity ratio (SLR) and the cash reserve ratio (CRR) in line with the recommendations of the Narasimham Committee Report, 1991. In mid-1991, SLR and CRR were very high. It was proposed to cut down the SLR from 38.5 percent to 25 percent within a time span of three years. Similarly, it was proposed that the CRR brought down to 10 percent (from the earlier 25 percent) over a period of four years

Interest Rate Liberalization: Earlier, RBI controlled the rates payable on deposits of different maturities and also the rates which could be charged for bank loans which varied according to the sector of use and also the size of the loan. Interest rates on time deposits were decontrolled in a sequence of steps started with longer term deposits, and liberalization was increasingly extended to deposits of shorter maturity. Removal of administrative constraints, led to liberalization of bank branch licensing policy in order to rationalize the existing branch network, banks were given freedom to displace branches and open specialized branches. Strategy for opening new private sector banks, new accounting norms regarding categorization of assets and provisions of

bad debt were introduced in tune with the Narasimham Committee Report.

Insurance: Reforms have been able to create rivalry in the insurance sector and give customers a wide choice not only in the matter of insurance companies but also in terms of insurance products. Reforms in this sector have had a mixed impact.

Rationalization of Exchange Rate

Policy: One of the important measures undertaken to improve the balance of payments situation was the devaluation of rupee. In the very first week of July 1991, the rupee was devalued by around 20 percent. The reason was to bridge the gap among the real and the nominal exchange rates that had emerged on account of rising inflation and thereby to make the exports competitive.

Foreign Capital: The government took several measures to encourage foreign investment in India in the post-reform period. Some of the important measures are:

In 1991, the government announced a specified list of high technology and high-investment priority industries wherein automatic authorization was granted for foreign direct investment (FDI) up to 51 percent foreign equity. The limit was raised to 74 percent and subsequently to 100 percent for many of these industries. Moreover, many new industries have been added to the list over the years. Foreign Investment Promotion Board (FIPB) has been set up to negotiate with international firms and approve direct foreign investment in select areas. Steps were also taken from time to time to promote foreign institutional investment (FII) in India.

Disinvestment and Privatization: Disinvestment of equity in Public Sector Units (PSUs) was started in December



1991 and a Disinvestment Commission was set up during 1991-92 for identifying PSUs for equity disinvestment and for signifying modalities of disinvestment. A Department of Disinvestment, later made into a Ministry was created. The government has made a suo-motu statement in both houses of Parliament in December 2002, laying out the objectives of disinvestment as "to put national resources and assets to optimal use and in particular unleash the productive potential inherent in our public enterprises" (GOI 2003, p. 150). The successful privatization of BALCO, and the sale of important share of equity in Videsh Sanchar Nigam Limited as well as Maruti Udyog Limited and other firms to private investors, appears to have significantly changed the climate for privatization.

Globalisation: Globalization is implicit by people in different ways, it means increased trade and capital flows between nations, spectacular technical change, particularly in information and communication, which has facilitated this integration. To yet others, the perceived increase in economic and political power of mobile capital and skilled labor at the global level, vis a vis unskilled labor and sovereign governments, is what best characterizes the developments at the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century.

In fact, globalization and economic reform are not unrelated because one of the key doctrine of economic reform in the last ten years has been the opening up the national economy to international competition through more openness in trade and in capital flows in major areas of economic and social activity.

Social sector:

A claim has been made that "the ongoing economic reforms have a human face and,

in pursuance of the commitment towards development of human resources and improvement of human well being, additional resources for the social services sector are being allocated by the Government. Appropriate targets for the reduction of poverty, hunger, mortality and illiteracy have also been incorporated in the Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-07)" (GOI 2003, p. 211)

Education: Universal primary education has been mandated by a new amendment to the Constitution, whether the elementary education system that "is besieged by many systemic problems such as insufficient school infrastructure, presence of single teacher schools, high teacher absenteeism (specially in rural areas), large-scale teacher vacancies, inadequate equipment, etc." (GOI 2003, p. 245) is capable of delivering it is an open question.

Health: It is recognized by the government that: health sector reforms are a part of economic reforms. Care will have to be taken to ensure that the poorer segments of the population are able to access services they need. Data from the NSSO [National Sample Survey Organization] indicate that escalating health care costs is one of the reasons for indebtedness not only among the poor but also in the middle income group. It is therefore it is necessary that accurate mechanisms by which costs of rigorous illnesses and hospitalization can be borne by the individual are explored to make affordable choices. To make free public health care system sustainable, strategies must be evolved for levy and collection of user charges from people above the poverty line (GOI 2003, p. 245).

VIII-Conclusion: The 1991 economic reforms were focused primarily on the formal sector and as a result, we have



seen considerable explosion in these liberalized areas. Sectors such as telecom and civil aviation have benefited greatly from deregulation and subsequent reforms. However, liberalization and economic reforms still have a long way to go, particularly for the informal sector including the urban poor who hold jobs as street vendors or rickshaw pullers, the agricultural sector, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) and tribal's. The overarching objective of Indian development has always been the eradication of mass poverty and the attainment of a socio-economic-political-legal system in which every Indian has the freedom and opportunity to live a full life according to his or her own lights. There can be no doubt, therefore, that accelerating average annual rate of aggregate GDP growth to at least 8%-10% and sustaining it at that level for a sufficiently long period is a necessary condition for achieving the purpose within a realistically short time horizon. While growth-oriented policies together with policies to ensure that benefits of growth are widely shared are necessary, they have to be supplemented by policies that are focused on providing opportunities to the poor to acquire quality education and adequate health care. Significant progress has indeed been made in terms of increases of literacy, life expectancy and reductions in infant, child and maternal mortality.

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Economic Reforms and Employment Scenario in India

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Introduction

Population explosion and spread of education and skills in India make employment as a crucial problem for the Indian economy as the thinking in the rural India is also fast changing. The uncertain nature of agriculture and the mechanization practices in agriculture have displaced rural work force since 2000. The volume of unemployment has been increasing and migration from rural to urban seeking livelihoods has been increasing. Rapid and accelerated economic growth has been witnesses in the GDP after the reforms and it has been expected that this would bring in diversification of employment both in rural and urban areas the trickledown effect had not been effective and special programs for employment have been started to increase employment. The beginning of 1990s saw the initiation of economic reforms involving deregulation of economic activities, liberalization of foreign trade and investment and the role of public sector was reduced in providing employment. With a view to initiate multi-pronged attack on these twin problems different employment generation programmes have been implemented by the government since mid-1970s of which IRDP (1978-79), TRYSEM, RLEGP, NREGP, SJSRY, SGSY and SGRY are prominent. These programmes for employment generation culminated in the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act; 2005 which was subsequently renamed as Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Gurantee Act, making employment a legal right. The policies and programmes of the government with changes from

time to time to expand employment opportunities have brought in conspicuous changes in the structure of employment, mainly reducing the dependence on agriculture and encouraging non-farm employment in the rural areas. However, in the reforms era since 1991 the priorities and policy interventions of the Government have necessitated an investigation into the impact of reforms on the employment structure in India. This research paper makes an effort to reveal the employment scenario in India in the post-reforms period.

Objectives: The basic objective of this paper is to examine the trends of unemployment in the pre and post reforms period in India. It also makes an effort to analyse the structural changes in the employment situation.

Materials and Methods: Data is secondary collected from NSSO surveys of different rounds and Economic surveys of the Ministry of Finance. Simple averages and percentages are used to analyse the data.

Review of Literature:

Ram Krishna Singh et.al (2012) have analysed the unemployment in the state of Kerala from different angles. As per the NSSO report 2009-10 Kerala has the highest unemployment rate, 16.7 percent against the National average of 6.6 percent on current daily status. The authors opine that the state government need to spend more on productive activities instead of on higher education since productive activities create employment. P.Anbalgan (2012) has examined the employment trends in India. The empirical evidence in the



study reveals that one third of the working force in India is engaged in casual employment. The study points out that decelerated employment growth, low contribution to GDP by agriculture where majority are employed, low employment generation in the unorganized sector, Lack of education and skills as the challenges to the Indian economy. The authors conclude that appropriate policies can help India to reap the demographic dividend. Tenaji G.Gite (2012) states that the growth of non-farm sector in India is a structural transformation of the Indian economy. But it generates a few jobs. More structural changes can be achieved by the urban economy through labour intensive

techniques to expand employment. The study reveals that incomes in the rural areas would increase with the growth of urban oriented activities for which rapid agricultural growth is needed.

Results and Discussion: It is observed from the data in Table-I that the unemployment rate in the rural India increased to 5.7 percent in 2011-12 when compared to 5.3 percent in the pre-reforms period of 1987-88. At the same time urban unemployment decreased significantly from 9.4 percent to 5.5 percent. It implies that rural employment has decreased while the employment avenues in the urban areas have expanded.

Table-I: Unemployment among Urban and Rural areas

Period	Rural Areas	Urban Areas
1987-88	5.3	9.4
1993-94	5.6	7.4
1999-2000	7.2	7.7
2004-05	8.28	8.28
2009-10	6.8	5.8
2011-12	5.7	5.5

Note: Unemployment rate on currently daily status: Source: NSSO surveys

Workers under self-employment decreased to 52 percent from 56 percent between 1987-88 and 2011-12 showing a change in the distribution of workers, category wise. Regular salaried employment during the same period

increased from 14.4 percent to 18 percent while casual workers increased slightly to 30 percent in 2011-12 from 29.6 percent. However casualisation of employment went on increasing from 1987-88. Table-2 here under reveals the above trends.

Table-II: Distribution of Workers Category wise (Usual Status) (Percent of total workers)

Period	Self-Employment	Regular Salaried	Casual
1987-88	56.0	14.4	29.6
1993-94	54.8	13.2	32.0
1999-2000	52.9	13.9	33.2
2004-05	53.8	16.26	29.9
2009-10	51.0	15.6	33.5
2011-12	52.0	18.0	30.0

Source: NSSO Surveys



Employment growth in the organized sector which includes both public and private sectors was 1.4 percent during 1983-88. It declined regularly to 0.4 percent and became negative - 1.1 percent during 1999-2000 to 2004-05 though a slender growth rate of 0.7 percent was recorded in 2004-5 to 2009-10. The growth rates of employment in both the sectors decreased and a rising

trend in the private sector was visible at 3.8 percent. However, employment in the public sector was awfully low and negative as the priorities of the government changed with disinvestment on the increase.

Table-III provides the details of the employment growth in the private and public sectors.

Table-III: Growth in the Organized sector Employment

Period	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
1983-88	2.2	-0.4	1.4
1988-94	1.0	1.2	1.4
1994-2000	-0.1	1.5	0.4
2000-2005	-1.4	-0.5	-1.1
2005-2010	-0.7	3.8	0.7

Source: Economic Surveys

Growth rate of employment in the non-agricultural sector is crucial for generating incomes in the rural areas. In the post reforms period, between 1999-2000 and 2004-05 non-agricultural sector recorded 4.65 percent as growth rate. But

is decreased considerably to 2.53 percent during 2004-05 and 2009-10. This decline has its impact on the incomes of the rural households despite the generation of employment under NREGA. Table-IV provides the details.

Table-IV: Growth rate of Employment in the Non-Agricultural Sector

Period	Total	Male	Female
1999-2000 to 2004-05	4.05	4.42	5.76
2004-05 to. 2009-10	2.53	2.89	0.76

Source: Chandrasekhar and Ghosh (2011)

The slowdown in the growth of non-agricultural employment is more for females when compared to males. The decline has prompted mass migration from rural to urban seeking wage employment.

Findings of the Study:-

1. In the post reforms India urban unemployment has decreased by 3.9 percentage points while rural unemployment increased marginally.
2. Self-employment has decreased by 4 points while regular employment

increased by 3.6 points. However, casual employment has increased.

3. Organised sector employment has decreased regularly and became negative during 2000-2005. It implies that unorganized / casual employment has been increasing where security is not available to the work-force.

4. Non-agricultural employment has decreased and the decrease is steep in female employment. Rural households are affected due to this decline.



Conclusion:-

It can be concluded that the Indian economy has witnessed structural changes in the employment scenario in the post-reforms period due to the strategies of the government, awareness of the people, spread of education, expansion of transport and communication facilities and impact of all forms of media. In rural India non-farm activities are opted by the workers, giving preference to even migration, because of stable employment, higher wages and more employment days. However, manufacturing sector employment has come down. Service sector employment has been encouraging in the reforms period with a lot of diversification. Public sector employment has fallen due to the policies of disinvestment by the government and the push to the private sector. Structural changes have taken place in the reforms period in the employment scenario. But they should be scientific and useful to the people by creating more employment avenues to improve incomes. Indian Economy has witnessed substantial GDP growth rates in the range of 6 to 8 percent on an average in the last 10-15 years. But the

comment that it is "Jobless growth" is to be taken in the right spirit. Casualisation of employment has increased. Suitable strategies and policy measures are to be designed to augment job creation failing which the so called higher growth rates become less meaningful to the marginalized sections of the society.

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Implementation of Agriculture Crop Insurance Scheme in Andhra Pradesh

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Abstract

Andhra Pradesh is the eighth largest state in the country covering 160.20 lakh hectares and representing 5.01% of the country's area. It has a population of 4.94 crores, ranking tenth in the country. Sustainable growth in Agriculture sector is the "need of the hour" not only for the State of Andhra Pradesh but also for the Country as a whole. It is the bed rock of the State's economy. Out of the total population of the State about 70% live in rural areas eking their livelihood from Agriculture and allied activities. It is a major source of income to the State's economy. Agriculture is the back bone of state's economy contributing about 23% to the Gross Domestic Product of the State. The Agriculture growth in the state continues to be the key factor for improving state's economy, accounting more than one fifth of GSDP and two - third of the population for source of livelihood. There is an urgent need to respond not only to sustain the agricultural production but also to the diversified market demands, export opportunities and environmental concerns.

Key Words: Crop Insurance Scheme, Agriculture, National Crop Insurance Programme

Introduction

Crop Insurance National Agriculture Insurance Scheme The Government have taken proactive step of implementation of National Crop Insurance Programme (NCIP) with effect from Kharif 2014 in all the Districts as per the directions of Government of India. These schemes are well received by the farmers as the Government developed needed infrastructure and streamlined the system of implementation of Crop Insurance Programme. The new scheme "National Crop Insurance Programme" (NCIP) comprising two components 1. Modified National Agricultural Insurance Scheme (MNAIS) 2. Weather Based Crop Insurance Scheme (WBCIS) Kharif 2014 in the state which have many more farmer friendly features. Modified National Agriculture Insurance Scheme MNAIS was

implemented in 4 Districts during Kharif 2013 on pilot basis was extended to all the Districts during Kharif 2014 and Rabi 2014-15 seasons to benefit the farmers in the event of crop loss due to any calamity. The scheme comprising the additional features such as coverage of prevented sowings, coverage of post harvest losses, localized calamities (hail storm) covered on individual basis, district major crop under Village Insurance Unit, 40- 75% premium subsidy to all the farmers, claims processed based on past 7 years average yield by excluding 2 disaster years, on account of payment in the event of mid season crop failure, 25% of likely claim will be paid in advance to the farmers Crops notified under MNAIS in all the districts of the state during Kharif 2014 viz., Rice (village made as insurance unit), Bajra, Groundnut(UI), sugarcane(P), sugarcane(R), Maize,



Redgram, Cotton (I), Cotton(UI), Blackgram, Castor, Turmeric, Chillies(I), Chillies(UI), Sunflower. Crops notified under MNAIS in all the districts of the state during Rabi 2014-15 viz., Rice, Blackgram, Chilly(Irrigated), Greengram, Groundnut, Onion, Maize, Jowar UI), Blackgram, Bengalgram, Sunflower and Rice(village made as insurance unit) in some districts Village as Insurance Unit Scheme Apart from Mandal Insurance Unit, one major crop in each District is selected under Village Insurance Unit, which is more beneficial to the farming community. Lower size of Unit is more representative in yield assessment for computation of Crop Insurance claims. Weather Based Crop Insurance Scheme Apart from the "National Agricultural Insurance Scheme" (NAIS), the Government of Andhra Pradesh is implementing

"Weather Based Crop Insurance Scheme (WBCIS)"

for the benefit of farming community, which aims to mitigate hardships of the insured farmers due to the financial loss on account of anticipated crop loss resulting from incidence of adverse deviations of weather parameters like Rainfall, Temperature, Relative humidity etc. The Scheme was extended to other Crops and Districts season by season. Season wise and District-wise notified crops under WBCIS and District wise Crops Notified under WBCIS. Season wise and District wise Crops Notified under WBCIS 43 Premium Subsidy: 25% to 50% premium subsidy is allowed to all the farmers irrespective of their category. National Agricultural Insurance Scheme NAIS is implemented for selected crops in selected districts during Rabi-2014-15. Districts and Crops Notified Under

implementation of different Crop Insurance Programmes, Andhra Pradesh state stands in No.1 position in terms of coverage of farmers, coverage of Area, Claims paid and Farmers benefited for the last 4 years. During the year 2011-12, an amount of Rs.397 crores of claims paid benefited 8.15 lakh farmers, during 2012-13, claims for Rs.779 crores benefiting 8.85 lakh farmers and during the year 2013-14, claims for Rs.580 crores paid to 7.57 Lakhs of eligible farmers in the state. Agricultural Credit The Annual Credit Plan 2014-15 for the State was Rs. 56019.16 crore towards Agriculture Credit Rs.13788.60 crore (22.61%) was disbursed under Agricultural credit.

Agriculture Insurance Company of India Limited (AIC) was incorporated under the Indian Companies Act 1956 on 20th December, 2002 with an authorised share capital of INR 15 billion and paid up capital of INR 2 billion. AIC commenced business from 1st April, 2003. National Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) A new crop insurance, called Rashtriya Krishi Bima Yoana (RKBY) or National Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) was launched by the Prime Minister on June 23 1999. Participation in RKBY was compulsory for farmers growing notified crops and availing of crop loans from formal credit institutions. However, non-borrower farmers growing notified crops were also eligible to opt for the scheme on a voluntary basis. In case of loanee farmers the Sum Insured (SI) was equal to the amount of crop loan advanced. However, the farmer has the option to insure the amount equivalent to the value of threshold yield of the insured crop.



Farmers against crop failure due to natural calamities, pests & diseases, weather conditions, Government of India is implementing National Crop Insurance Programme (NCIP) with component schemes of Modified National Agricultural Insurance Scheme (MNAIS), Weather Based Crop Insurance Scheme (WBCIS) and Coconut Palm Insurance Scheme (CPIS). In addition, National Agricultural Insurance Scheme (NAIS) which was to be withdrawn after implementation of NCIP from Rabi 2013-14, has been allowed to be continued on request of States. Improvement in crop insurance schemes to make them more scientific and to better serve the interest of farmers is a continuous process. To make the crop insurance schemes farmers friendly various improvements in consultations with various stakeholders including State Governments have been made in the schemes from time to time to sufficiently compensate the farmers on account of damage of their crops due to natural calamities/adverse weather to provide targeted benefit to the farmers under the Crop Insurance Schemes.

Objectives: The paper is to analyse the Implementation of crop insurance programmes in Andhra Pradesh

Methodology: This study is mainly based on secondary data. The secondary data will be collected from the government reports, Statistical Abstract of Andhra Pradesh, Socio economic survey of Andhra Pradesh (2013-14) and Agricultural census of India and Andhra Pradesh. Chief planning office at district head quarters as well as from related books, reputed journals and articles.

National Agricultural Insurance Scheme India

The National Agricultural Insurance Scheme or the NAIS was launched in 1999 rabi season in India under the charge of General Insurance Corporation as the implementing agency (IA). Subsequently from 2003 an autonomous organization called the Agricultural Insurance Company of India Ltd. with its head office in New Delhi was created to look after the implementation NAIS. The objectives of the NAIS are as follows. (a) Natural fire and lightening (b) storm, hailstorm, cyclone, typhoon, tempest, hurricane, tornado etc. (c) flood inundation and landslide (d) drought, dry spells (e) pests/diseases etc. The contours of the NAIS The salient features of the scheme can be described as follows: Selective compulsion:- Insurance is compulsory for all farmers growing notified crops and availing seasonal agricultural operations (SAO) loans from financial institution. All other farmers growing notified crops can also opt for the scheme voluntarily.

Multiple crops Covered: Food crops (cereals, millets and pulses), oil seeds, annual commercial/Annual horticultural crops. The set of commercial and horticultural crops have been enlarged over the years. The crops earmarked for coverage depend an availability of adequate past yield data from crop cutting experiments (CCE) and the requisite number of CCEs during the season. Wide coverage of States and Union Territories (UT):- The scheme extends to all states and UTS but those opting for the scheme (1) will have to take up all the crops identified for coverage and (2) will have to continue for a minimum period of three years. Unit of Insurance: The scheme would operate on the basis of (1) area approach for widespread calamities and



(2) on an individual basis (experimentally) for localized calamities like hailstorm, landslide, cyclone and flood. The defined area may be a Gram Panchayat, Mandal, Hobli, Circle, Phirka, Block, Taluka etc. to be declared by the state. However the unit is to reach the gram panchayat level in three years.

Crop Yield Estimation: The state will conduct a required number of crop cutting experiments or CCEs for all notified crops in the insurance units to assess crop yield. The state will maintain a single series of CCE-based yield estimates both for the sake of crop production statistics and for crop insurance. A technical advisory committee comprising of representatives from NSSO, Ministry of Agriculture and the IA will decide the sample size of CCEs. Indemnity levels, Threshold Yield and Loss The areas are classified into three groups as low risk, medium risk and high risk measured by levels of indemnity (LOI) at 90% and 80% and 60% respectively, based on the coefficient of variation in yield of last 10 years. xviiThe insured farmer can ask for higher LOI for payment of additional premium. The threshold yield (TY) of a crop in the unit is the moving average based on past three years yield in case of rice and wheat, and five years on case of others, multiplied by the state LOI. If the actual yield per hectare of the insured crop in the area based on the CCE falls short of the specified TY, then all the insured farmers growing that crop in the defined area are deemed to have suffered a loss.

Localised/specified perils: For localized perils, loss assessment is done at the individual basis experimentally. Loss assessment and indemnity procedure are formulated by IA. A cadre

of loss adjusters has to be created and officers to be trained LOI Table Sum Insured (SI):-The SI may extend to the TY valued at the minimum support price or at the previous year's market price at the option of the insured farmer and beyond TY for payment of actuarial premium. For those who have borrowed from institutional sources (loanees), the SI must be at least equal to the amount of crop loan. The financial institutions shall also compulsorily cover all crop loans distributed through Kissan Credit Card (KCC).

Premium: Premium rates are fixed at 3.5% for Bajra, 2.5% for other kharif crops, 1.5% for wheat and 2% for other rabi crops. The actual premium rates are required to be the fixed rates or the actuarial rates which ever are less. For commercial crops the rates are necessarily actuarial. The scheme foresees a transition to the actuarial regime in five years but the actual rates shall be applied at the option of the states. Fifty percent subsidy on premium is allowed in respect of small and marginal farmers but will be phased out in xviii three to five years subject to review. The central and state governments will share the burden.

Dates: For loan period April to September in Kharif season, declaration for insurance will be received by November and for rabi loaning season of October the 'cut off' date is May . Correspondingly the cut-off dates for receipt of the yield data from the government are January-March and July-September.

Bank's role: A nodal system has operated for the earlier CCIS and continues in the operation of NAIS in which the IA does not have to deal with the loan dispersal point. Each Scheduled bank shall with the concurrence of the



IA fix the Nodal points. The Nodal Bank will communicate to its branch offices on the notification of crops and areas from the Governments. The individual bank distributing loan for an insurable crop grants additional loan towards premium charges and the bank branch sends a statement crop wise and area-wise to the nodal branch every month. The banks maintain all back-up records relating to Kissan Credit card loans for insurable crops. The Nodal banks submit the declarations in a prescribed format to the IA in the stipulated time. On an experimental basis, the non-loanee farmers may submit the proposal directly to the IA depending on IA's infrastructure. In addition financial institutions (FIs) are expected to educate and guide the farmers on the scheme and its formalities and to maintain records.

Claim settlement: The state government will plan, conduct and maintain a single series of CCE's and furnish the yield data to IA within the stipulated cut-off dates. Claims will be worked out by the IA using the declarations received from FIs and the yield data from

State Government. The funds needed for payment of claims beyond the risk sharing limits of IA shall be provided by the Government. The claim cheques and particulars are released by the IA to the Nodal Banks. The Banks at the grass-root level in turn credit the accounts of individual farmers and display the particulars on a notice board. The IA has a responsibility of professional building up the crop yield database and the preparation of xixactrial premium rates as well as in organizing training, awareness and publicity programmes. The IA also seeks to procure reinsurance from international market.

Roles of the Government: The state government notifies the crops 'area's and the premium rates as applicable. It also supplied the IA with past 10 years area wise yield data and the current yield data from CCEs. The premium subsidies to small and marginal farmers are shared by the State and central governments. The central and State governments contribute for building up a corpus fund to meet catastrophic losses. The corpus fund is also released as per the scale and date given. The corpus fund meant for catastrophic losses are shared by with central and state governments. The two governments also share the administration and operational cost (A&O) on a sun set basis for five years. The State government is implemental in setting up various monitoring Committees as required.

Benefits and exclusions: The scheme is expected to be a critical instrument for the development of agriculture. It will encourage farmers to adopt progressive practices and modern technology and helping maintain the flow of credit and benefit to farmers and entire community with multiplier effects.

Conclusion

The entire system of crop insurance in rural India is bizarre in the extreme. The farmer is not compensated for individual crop loss, but has to be treated as one of the entire group in the area, and the unit for calculation is taken to be the block of the district & (mandal). There is wide variation in soil types, cultivation conditions and even rainfall within such blocks, and so the average disguises a large range of crop output. Some farmers may lose their entire crop even when the average for the block is normal. In these



circumstances, linking compensation payments to the average crop performance of the block (mandal) is extremely unfair. It is akin to linking payments of life insurance claims to the average death rate in a particular area, rather than the death of the individual who has taken out the policy. What explains this extraordinary system, which adds to the burden on farmers without providing any compensation to so many genuine cases? The answer lies in the way in which the system of crop insurance was introduced, and the inflexible manner in which it is currently being pursued. Some well-meaning policy-makers at the Centre decided some years ago that anyone taking a crop loan from an institutional source should also take on crop insurance. And so the public insurance companies were instructed to provide crop insurance - which could be linked to the loans - to farmers. This was an excellent idea, except that the insurance 13 companies were not provided with the additional staff that is necessary to supervise and implement the provision of crop loans.

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Economic Reforms and Agriculture Sector – An Analytical Note

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Abstract

The present paper deals with the economic reforms and agriculture sector in India. It is generally held view that the process of economic reforms was initiated in India by the government of P.V. Narasimha Rao in 1991 with the announcement of number of measures for liberalizing the economy by the then Finance Minister Manmohan Singh. The process of economic reforms includes liberalization, privatization and globalisation which are known as LPG policy. Economic reforms are consisting of two distinct strands -macroeconomic stabilization and structural reforms. These reforms paved the way for changes in different sectors gave more emphasis in industrial and service sectors other than agriculture a major sin of economic reforms neglects agriculture where India depends 48.9 per cent of population. The present paper has been divided into three sections. As a whole, it can be said that the initial years of reforms were to some extent favorable for agricultural growth, but latter period it is very much disheartening to note that a sharp decline in the growth rate of the almost all the sub-sectors witnessed.

Introduction:

During 1991, the country initiated economic reforms aimed at far-reaching changes in regulations, fiscal policy, trade policy, exchange rate, role of market forces, private sector participation in economic activities and government controls and intervention in the market. The agricultural sector was not targeted directly by the reforms for a couple of years, but it was affected indirectly through changes in the exchange rate, export liberalisation and terms of trade resulting from disprotection to industry. Annual growth rate in total gross domestic product (GDP) has accelerated from below 6 per cent during the initial years of reforms to more than 8 per cent in the recent years. The approach paper to Eleventh Five-Year Plan finds that 8.5 per cent growth in GDP is feasible during the next five

years. As a matter of fact, sectoral composition of growth is more challenging than the growth in total GDP, which is related to the well-being of a very large segment of population. Agriculture, which accounted for more than 30 per cent of total GDP in the beginning of reforms failed to maintain its pre-reform growth or keep pace with growth in the non-agricultural sector¹. On the contrary, it witnessed a sharp deceleration in growth after the mid-1990s². This happened despite the fact that agricultural productivity in most of the States was quite low and there was a lot of scope and potential for the growth of agricultural output³.

The only measure taken during the early years of reforms that had a direct impact on agriculture was decontrol of fertilizers and reduction in



the fertilizer subsidy⁴. The disprotection to industry resulted in improvement in terms of trade for agriculture during the initial years of reforms. Another factor, which contributed positively to agricultural growth during the initial years of reform was a substantial hike in minimum support prices given by the government, mainly to reduce the gap between domestic and international prices⁵ that resulted largely from devaluation of the overvalued exchange rate. The impact of these changes and various other factors was a small acceleration in the growth rate of agriculture during the first six years of reforms. The average growth rate of GDP in agriculture and allied sectors turned out to be 3.64 per cent during 1990-91 to 1996-97 which was 0.5 percentage points higher than the previous decade. In fact, during the early years of reforms, gap in the growth rate between agriculture and non-agriculture slightly narrowed down. After one decade of reforms 2000-2001 to 2010-2011, agriculture decline from 3.3 to 3.2.

Review of Literature:

Vijay Joshi and IMD Little (1993) have argued that in the long run, structural reform is as helpful for stabilization as stabilization is for structural reform. In the absence of reform, losses of public enterprises would continue to burden the budget; trade restrictions would hamper the growth of exports; and compulsory government capture of private savings would erode fiscal discipline. Deepak Nayyar (1993) was of the view that the internal imbalance in the fiscal situation and the external imbalance in the payments situation were closely related through the absence of produce in the

macro management of the economy. Bhagwati and Padma Desai (1970) have been highly critical of the regularly system. Isher J. Ahluwalia (1985) blamed the industrial licensing system and bureaucratic controls for the industrial stagnation during the second half of the 1960s and the 1970s. Chandrasekhar and Pal (2006) critically examined the financial liberalization in India. The EPW Research Foundation (1994) was of the view that the new economic policy is seriously flawed in conception -in its contents, strategy and approach and in many other respects.

Methods and Materials: Keeping all these facets in view, the present paper is aimed at to analyse the current status of Indian agriculture in the arena of economic reforms. This study is primarily based on the secondary data collected from the reports of the National Accounts Statistics (NAS), Central Statistical Organisation (CSO), Statistical Outline of India and various issues of Economic Survey.

Results and Discussion: After registering impressive performance during 1980s, the agricultural growth decelerated in the economic reform period (commencing in 1991). As is clear from Table-1, the rate of growth of production of food grains fell from 2.9 per cent annum in 1980s to 2.0 per cent per annum in 1990s and stood at 2.1 per cent per annum in the first decade of the present century (2000-01 to 2012-13). If we consider all crops together, the rate of growth of production fell from 3.2 per cent in 1980s to 2.3 per cent per annum in 1990s and stood at 2.8 per cent per annum during the period 2000-01 to 2011-12. However, the rate of growth of



productivity, both in the case of foodgrains and all crops, after falling in 1990s, improved during 2000s (as shown in Table-1). The implication of this observation is that output growth in the economic reforms period would have been still lower, had the productivity not

accelerated in the period 2000-01 to 2012-13. The period since 1991, therefore, emerges as a kind of watershed in time when growth in Indian agriculture, resurgent from the middle 1960s, was arrested.

Table-1: All-India Compound Growth Rates of Production and Yield of Some Crops (1980-81 to 2012-13)

Crop	Before Reform Period		After Reform Period			
	1980-81 to 1989-90		1990-91 to 1999-2000		2000-01 to 2012-13	
	Production	Yield	Production	Yield	Production	Yield
Rice	3.6	3.2	2.0	1.3	1.7	2.0
Wheat	3.6	3.1	3.6	1.8	2.3	1.1
Jowar	0.3	1.3	-3.1	0.5	-2.6	0.9
Bajra	0.0	1.1	1.0	2.4	1.9	4.5
Maize	1.9	2.1	3.3	2.3	4.9	2.6
Total Pulses	1.5	1.6	0.6	0.9	3.9	2.9
Total Foodgrains	2.9	2.7	2.0	1.5	2.1	2.1
Sugarcane	2.7	1.2	2.7	1.1	1.1	-0.2
Total Oilseeds	5.2	2.4	1.6	1.2	4.1	2.9
Non-foodgrains	3.8	2.3	2.7	1.1	3.8*	2.4*
All crops	3.2	2.6	2.3	1.3	2.8*	3.3*

Source: Computed from Govt. of India, Ministry of Agriculture, Agricultural Statistics at Glance, 1997, New Delhi.

Note: * Pertain to the period 2000-01 to 2011-12.

There was a prolonged deceleration in agricultural growth since the mid-1990s and over the period 1997-98 to 2004-05, the rate of growth of agricultural GDP was only 2.0 per cent per annum (down from 3.5 per cent per annum during 1981-82 to 1996-97). As shown by Eleventh Five Year Plan document, this deceleration, although most marked in rainfed areas, occurred in almost all the States and covered almost all the major sub-sectors

including those such as horticulture, livestock, and fisheries where growth of agricultural GDP was much below the target of 4.0 per cent per annum set in both Ninth and Tenth Plans (it was only 2.4 per cent per annum in the Tenth Plan). The Eleventh Plan also kept a target of 4 per cent per annum growth in GDP from agriculture and allied sectors while actual achievement was 3.6 per cent per annum. The Twelfth Plan has



maintained the growth target for agriculture at 4.0 per cent per annum.

The growth rates of GDP and agricultural growth rates have been presented in Table-2. In this regard, it is pertinent to quote Jhon Drez and Amartya Sen's view held that prior to economic reforms agricultural growth rate was 3.5 in the decade of 1980-1981 to 1990-91. After implementing economic reform the agriculture growth rate declined to 3.2 per cent in the decade of 2000-01 to 2010-11. The main reasons for the deceleration in agricultural growth in the post - reform period are: (i) significant deceleration in the public and overall investment in agriculture (ii) shrinking farm size (iii) failure to evolve new technologies (iv) inadequate irrigation cover (v) inadequate use of technology (vi) unbalanced use of inputs (vii) decline in plan outlay and (viii) weaknesses in credit delivery system.

Table-2: Growth Rates of GDP and Primary Sector

Period	Agriculture Growth Rates	GDP Growth Rate
1980-1981 to 1990-91	3.5	5.2
1990-1991 to 2000-01	3.3	5.9
2000-2001 to 2010-11	3.2	7.6

Source: Jhon Drez and Amarta Sen (2013): An Uncertain Glory: India and its Contradictions, New Delhi, p.23.

Conclusion:

By and large, from the analysis, it can be surmised that under the new

economic reforms, whatever negative aspects the Indian agriculture will face that can be suitably neutralized by responding to its positive aspects. Thus if the Indian agriculture can meet the challenges and opportunities open to it and if the developed countries do not put any trade barrier before the flow of Indian agricultural exports, then India will definitely be able to overcome the problems and barriers and also become successful to gain sufficiently from this new world trade regime. Therefore, it can be observed that liberalization has created several favourable impacts on the agricultural sector of the country. The emerging trends in agriculture which are very much prominent in the post-liberalization period include the rising productivity, growing investment, diversification of the sector, application of modern techniques, development of horticulture and floriculture, growing volume of exports and development of food processing industry. India with its rising population is in an advantageous position to develop its agricultural and allied sectors which are mostly labour intensive. Liberalisation has provided ample scope for the modernization and development of the agriculture sector and also to reap the maximum benefit from the increasing scope of agricultural exports arising out of the path of globalization adopted by the economy. However, as a whole it can be said that the initial years of reforms were to some extent favourable for agricultural growth, but latter period it is very much disheartening to note that a sharp decline in the growth rate of the almost all the sub-sectors witnessed. Another disquieting feature of the recent growth process is that the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors are on a disparate growth path.



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An Economic Analysis of Growth and Stability of Tourism Industry in India

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Abstract: In the dynamic global scenario, tourism happens to be one of the most relevant social, cultural and economic phenomenon in many of the countries, especially that off the industrially developing countries, because it enhances the economy via foreign exchange, generation of employment opportunities, poverty alleviation as well as developing business ties. In India, measuring growth of tourism and its economic stability to the national economy is very difficult. Therefore, it is essential to study the growth and stability of foreign tourist arrivals and its economic impact on foreign exchange earnings on Indian tourism industry. In this backdrop, the present paper explores the growth of foreign tourist arrivals and foreign exchange earnings into India through the Indian tourism industry. It also examines the level of stability of the India Tourism Industry in terms of foreign tourist arrivals.
Keywords: Tourism Industry, Foreign Tourist Arrivals, Foreign Exchange Earnings, Stability.

Introduction

Tourism comprises “activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (World Tourism Organization 2002). In the rapidly changing economic era of globalization and industrialization, tourism sector has emerged as one of the world’s largest industries. The concern on Tourism and development has assumed phenomenal significance at global, national and local levels. Globally, tourism possesses a very pertinent place in the economies of both developed and developing countries. Tourism has become the world largest exporting industry (Chauhan, 2010). In fact, for many countries, tourism is the largest commodity in international trade. Now it acts as second largest foreign exchange earner after oil and petroleum. Besides, it also contributes considerable amount on employment, improving standard of

living of the people, foreign exchange and then by facilitating an overall development of the country. Especially, income and employment opportunity plays a pivotal role in the country’s economic development (Uma Devi and Ananda 2014).

One of the chief reasons that government supports and promotes tourism throughout the world is that it has a positive impact upon economic growth and development (Ivanov and Webster, 2006). In India, tourism has become one of the major sectors of the economy, contributing to a large proportion of the national income and generating huge employment opportunities. And also Tourism sector linkages with other sectors of the economy like transport, construction, handicrafts, manufacturing, horticulture, etc, tourism has the potential to not only be the economy driver, but also become an effective tool for poverty alleviation and ensuring growth with equity. It has



become the fastest growing service industry in the country with great potentials for its further expansion and diversification. Furthermore, those directly or indirectly employed following the development of tourism may also demand more goods and services, and as a result it will not only induce more employment opportunities, but also generate a further multiplier effect through a successive chain of transactions that occur.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has, in its projection for 2020, estimated 1.6 billion arrivals generating \$ 2000 billion in tourism receipts. In India, it is the largest service industry, making a contribution of 6.23% to the national GDP and providing 8.78% of the total employment in the country. Tourism has a major economic and social implication in both developed and developing countries. The economic significance of travel and tourism has attracted the attention of many countries in actively promoting tourism, as a way to stimulate their economies. In India, measuring growth of tourism and its economic stability to the national economy is very difficult. Therefore, it is essential to study the growth and stability of foreign tourist arrivals and its economic impacts on foreign exchange earnings through Indian tourism industry. In this paper an attempt is made to describe the growth and stability of Indian tourism industry.

Objectives of the Paper - Following are the objectives of the paper:

1. To understand the present status and scenario of Indian tourism industry.
2. To study the growth of foreign tourist arrivals and foreign exchange

earnings from the tourism industry of India.

3. To ascertain the level of stability of the India Tourism Industry in terms of foreign tourist arrivals, Foreign exchange earnings, domestic tourist visits within India.

Hypotheses:

Based on the aforementioned objectives of the paper the following hypotheses were framed:

- I. Tourism Industry is grown significantly in India during the study period.
- II. There is stability in the Indian Tourism Industry during the study period.

Material and Methods: The entire empirical analysis is based on secondary sources of data, the data is collected from various government secondary sources such as the Government of India, the World Tourism Organization, the Ministry of Tourism and other relevant websites. The important literatures on tourism and data were also collected from various published sources like books, journal, magazine, reports and publications. In order to study the specified objectives, statistical tools like Annual Average Growth Rate, Compounded Annual Growth Rate (CAGR), Coefficient of Variation and Percentages were used. Compound Annual Growth Rate and Coefficient of Variation have been calculated to analyze the data. The coefficient of variation was calculated to understand the variability in the foreign tourist arrivals and foreign exchange earnings. The formula used for CAGR and CV are as follows.

$$CAGR = ((\text{End Value}/\text{Start Value})^{1/(\text{Periods} - 1)}) - 1$$



CV = (Standard Deviation / Mean) * 100

Analysis and Discussion: India is a country with rich culture and heritage and a large number of visitors visiting India each year. There is no other country in the world which offers wide choice in tourism like India i.e. such as historical tourism, adventure tourism, medical tourism, spiritual tourism, beach tourism etc. (Gupta and Gupta, 2008). India is a country with an attractive tourist places like rich tropical forests,

captivating wildlife, desert, safari, ancient and majestic monuments, forts and palaces, diverse culture, colorful fairs, folk arts, unique hospitality etc. and infrastructural development can attract tourists from all over the world. Table 1 presents the number of Foreign Tourists Arrivals (FTAs) in India during the period of 16 years i.e. 2000 through 2015 along with growth rates.

Table 1: Foreign Tourist Arrivals (FTAs) and Foreign exchange earnings from tourism in India

Year	FTAs in India	Annual Growth (%)	FEE (Rs. Crores)	% Change over previous year	FEE (US\$ Millions)	% Change over previous year
2000	2.65	-	15626	-	3460	-
2001	2.54	-4.15	15083	-3.47	3198	-7.57
2002	2.38	-6.30	15064	-0.13	3103	-2.97
2003	2.73	14.71	20729	37.61	4463	43.83
2004	3.46	26.74	27944	34.81	6170	38.25
2005	3.92	13.29	33123	18.53	7493	21.44
2006	4.45	13.52	39025	17.82	8634	15.23
2007	5.08	14.16	44360	13.67	10729	24.26
2008	5.28	3.94	51294	15.63	11832	10.28
2009	5.17	-2.08	53700	4.69	11136	-5.88
2010	5.78	11.80	64889	20.84	14193	27.45
2011	6.31	9.17	77591	19.57	16564	16.71
2012	6.58	4.28	94487	21.78	17737	7.08
2013	6.97	5.93	107671	13.95	18445	3.99
2014	7.68	10.19	123320	14.53	20236	9.71
2015	8.03	4.5	135193	9.6	21071	4.1
Average	4.938		57443.688		11154.000	
S.D	1.872		39540.803		6288.326	
CV (%)	37.91%		68.83%		56.38%	
CAGR (%)	8.89%		16.95%		14.82%	

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (2015)



The foreign tourist arrivals in India have increased from 2.65 million in 2000 to 8.03 million in 2015 showing some fluctuations and it has registered a positive significant compound annual growth rate of 8.89%. The growth in international tourist arrivals to India achieved a 14.3 per cent growth with arrival of 5.08 million tourists in 2007. A

similar growth was registered in 2006 when over 4.45 million foreigners visited the country. During 2009 foreign tourists were 5.11 million as compared to 5.28 in 2008, registering a fall of 2.08 percent. From the table it can be concluded that there is an increase in growth rate of both foreign tourist arrivals and their contribution to foreign exchange.

Table 2: International tourist arrivals in world and India during 2000-2015

Years	International Tourist Arrivals (in millions)		FTAs in India (in millions)	% of India in World	India Rank in the World	% of India in Asia & Pacific	India Rank in Asia & Pacific
	World	Asia & the Pacific					
2000	683.3	109.3	2.65	0.39	50 th	2.42	11 th
2001	683.4	114.5	2.54	0.37	51 th	2.22	12 th
2002	703.2	123.4	2.38	0.34	54 th	1.93	12 th
2003	691.0	111.9	2.73	0.39	51 th	2.44	11 th
2004	762.0	143.4	3.46	0.45	44 th	2.41	11 th
2005	798.0	154.6	3.92	0.49	43 th	2.53	11 th
2006	846.0	166.0	4.45	0.53	44 th	2.68	11 th
2007	894.0	182.0	5.08	0.57	41 th	2.79	11 th
2008	917.0	184.1	5.28	0.58	42 th	2.87	11 th
2009	885.0	181.1	5.17	0.58	42 th	2.85	11 th
2010	949.0	205.1	5.78	0.61	41 th	2.83	11 th
2011	995.0	218.2	6.31	0.63	39 th	2.90	9 th
2012	1035.0	233.6	6.58	0.64	41 th	2.82	11 th
2013	1087.0	248.1	6.97	0.64	42 nd	2.81	11 th
2014	1135.0	263.4	7.68	0.68	41 st	2.92	12 th
2015	1184.0	278.6	8.03	0.68	40 th	2.88	11 th
Average	890.494	182.331	4.938				
S.D	164.976	55.090	1.872				
CV	18.53%	30.21%	37.91%				
CAGR	3.99%	6.66%	8.89%				

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (2015)

Table 2 shows that India's Share in World Tourist Arrivals and Asia & Pacific Region during 2000-2015.

Interestingly, the number of international tourist arrivals in Asia and the Pacific Region also increased from



109.3 million in 2000 to 1184.0 million in 2015 with a positive and significant compound growth rate of 6.66 %. Though, India's share in the world tourist arrivals was very meager compared to the Asia Pacific region, its share in the world tourist arrivals has increased from 0.39% in 2000 to 0.68% in

2015, this is not even one percent. But the rank of India in world has improved from the 50th to 40th due to substantial flow of foreign tourist in India. It is very clear from the table that the share of India in the world market and in the Asia Pacific Region market during 2000-2015 is growing.

Table 3: India's Share in International Tourism Receipts in the World and in Asia & Pacific Region

Year	International tourist receipts (in US \$ billions) in the world	Asia & the Pacific	FEE in India (in US \$ millions)	% share of Indians in World	India Rank in the World	% Share of Asia and Pacific	India rank in the Asia and Pacific
2000	475.3	85.3	3460	0.73	36 th	4.06	10 th
2001	463.8	88.1	3198	0.69	36 th	3.63	12 th
2002	481.9	96.5	3103	0.64	37 th	3.22	13 th
2003	529.3	93.7	4463	0.84	37 th	4.76	9 th
2004	633.2	124.1	6170	0.97	26 th	4.97	8 th
2005	679.6	135.0	7493	1.10	22 th	5.55	7 th
2006	744.0	156.9	8634	1.16	22 th	5.50	7 th
2007	857.0	187.0	10729	1.25	22 th	5.74	6 th
2008	939.0	208.6	11832	1.26	22 th	5.67	6 th
2009	853.0	204.2	11136	1.31	20 th	5.45	7 th
2010	931.0	255.3	14193	1.52	18 th	5.56	7 th
2011	1042.0	289.4	16564	1.59	18 th	5.72	8 th
2012	1117.0	329.4	17737	1.59	16 th	5.38	7 th
2013	1198.0	360.2	18445	1.54	16 th	5.12	8 th
2014	1295.0	420.1	20236	1.56	15 th	4.82	7 th
2015	1232.0	418.9	21071	1.71	14 th	5.03	7 th
Average	841.944	215.794	11154.000				
S.D	283.064	117.082	6288.326				
CV	33.62%	54.26%	56.38%				
CAGR	7.65%	12.46%	14.82%				

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (2015)

It is very obvious from table 3 that the share of India in international tourism receipts (in world and the pacific

region) from the year 2000 to 2015 has been strengthened. It is clear that the amount of foreign exchange earnings



from the tourism industry in India has jumped from US\$ 3.46 million in 2000 to US\$ 21.07 million in 2015 and this has registered a positive and significant annual growth rate 14.82% over the years 2000-2015. As per India's share in the world in terms of tourism receipts, it holds only 0.73 % in 2000, this drastically increased to 1.71 % in 2015. Its share in the Asia Pacific region was 4.06 % in the year 2000 and this increased to 5.03% in share and by 2015. This trend reveals

that there is a further scope for the development of tourism industry in India. In addition to this, India's rank in positively moved from 36th in 2000 to 14th rank in 2014 in this world and from 10th rank in 2000 to 7th in 2015 in Asia and the pacific region. India is attracting tourist from all over the world. The large number of tourists is visiting India from various countries as are shown with help of following table 4.

Table 4: Top 10 countries for foreign tourist arrivals in India, during 2015

Source Country	FTAs	% Share
USA	1213624	15.12
Bangladesh	1133879	14.13
United Kingdom	867601	10.81
Sri Lanka	299513	3.73
Canada	281306	3.50
Malaysia	272941	3.40
Australia	263101	3.28
Germany	248314	3.09
France	230854	2.88
Japan	207415	2.58
Total of top 10 Countries	5018548	62.52
Others	3008585	37.48
All Countries	8027133	100.00

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (2015)

During the couple of decades the modernization and revolution of information technology in India have enhanced the flow of tourists even from the so-called developed countries. The table 4 shows that the share of top 10 countries in terms of foreign tourists' arrivals to India in 2015. The majority of the tourist arrivals are from the USA with 1.213 Million which comprises 15.12% followed by Bangladesh with 1.133 Million comprising of 14.13%,

United Kingdom with 0.867 Million comprising of 10.81% and Sri Lanka 0.299 Million comprising of 3.73% in the foreign total tourist arrivals in India in 2015.

Table 5 clearly portrays the number of Indian nationals going abroad and the number of domestic tourist visits to all states and union territories in India during the study period (2000-2015) and also illustrates the percentage change over the previous year.



Table 5: Indian Nationals Going Abroad and Number of Domestic Tourists Visits to All States and Union Territories in India

Year	Indians Going Abroad (in Millions)	% change over the previous year	Number of Domestic Tourist visits (in Millions)	% change over the previous year
2000	4.42	7.3	220.11	15.4
2001	4.56	3.4	236.47	7.4
2002	4.94	8.2	269.60	14.0
2003	5.35	8.3	309.04	14.6
2004	6.21	16.1	366.27	18.5
2005	7.18	15.6	392.01	7.0
2006	8.34	16.1	462.32	17.9
2007	9.78	17.3	526.56	13.9
2008	10.87	11.1	563.03	6.9
2009	11.07	1.8	668.80	18.8
2010	12.99	17.7	747.70	11.8
2011	13.99	7.7	864.53	15.6
2012	14.92	6.7	1045.05	20.9
2013	16.63	11.4	1142.53	9.3
2014	18.33	10.3	1282.80	12.3
2015	20.38	11.1	1431.97	11.6
Average	10.623		658.049	
S.D	5.157		390.496	
CV	48.55%		59.34%	
CAGR	11.43%		13.76%	

Source: Ministry of Tourism, Government of India (2015)

It is clear that domestic tourism in the country has recorded a massive compound annual growth rate of 11.43% compared to Indians going aboard as registering a compound annual growth rate of 13.76% during the study period from the year 2000 to the year 2015. In relative terms, the percentage increase in number of Indian nationals going abroad had shown an increasing trend during 2002 to 2004 and 2006 to 2008 then this was drastically reduced in the year 2009 and increased again to 11.4% in the year 2013. This information clearly indicate that the domestic tourism sector has also shown fluctuating trends over the years, hence steps should be taken to maintain stability domestically so as to enhance tourist arrivals in India when compared to the rest of the region and indeed the world.

Findings and Conclusion: From the analysis, it is clearly inferred that the India Tourism Industry has grown significantly during the study period of 2000 to 2015 and



the growth of the tourism Industry is spectacular as it has registered a Compound Annual Growth rate of 8.89% in Foreign Tourist Arrivals into India, 16.95% and 14.82% of CAGR in Foreign exchange Earnings in terms of US dollars and in Indian Rupees respectively, with the increased percent share from 0.39 and 2.42 to 0.68 and 2.88 in world tourist arrivals and in the Asia Pacific arrivals respectively. Some major programmes and projects like "Incredible India" campaign are an initiative to boost the Indian Tourism Industry. The Planning Commission has allotted funds for the development of tourism infrastructure, Commonwealth, World cup cricket, T20 etc. Finally, these results indicate that Indian tourism industry has grown significantly during the study period.

The present study investigated the economic analysis of growth and stability of tourism industry in India. After analyzing all the information collected from various sources, it may be concluded that the Indian Tourism Industry is growing significantly and there is instability during the study period of 2000-2015. The events like Commonwealth Games and Cricket World Cup and other international events have contributed a lot to promote tourism in India. In future, more such events should be organized by the government in order to attract more tourists. At the same time, government should also take initiative to ensure the security of both foreign and domestic tourists. As tourism is a multidimensional activity, and basically a service industry, it would be necessary that all wings of the Central and State governments, private sector and voluntary organizations become active partners in the endeavour to attain sustainable growth in tourism if India is to become a world player in the tourism industry.

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Stock Market (BSE) After Reforms: Liquidity, Return and Volatility

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Abstract

This paper explains the about the capital market (BSE) after reforms in terms of liquidity, return and volatility. After 1991 in Indian economy lot of changes happened due to liberalisation privatisation and globalisation of the economy, same happen in the case of the capital market also. There have been a number of major changes in the economic and financial policies in India since 1991 for the analysis of the study data has taken from 1991 to 2010 based on this calculated the trend.

Introduction:

A strong and vibrant stock market is essential for financial reform and growth. Efficient stock markets encourage individuals to invest in shares and give correct signals to the management of the company to maximise shareholder wealth. The allocative efficiency of financial systems based on securities markets also depends upon the extent to which security prices in the secondary market reflect the risk and return of alternative securities. It is, therefore, important to check if markets are efficient and to examine the factors that contribute to it. There have been a number of major changes in the economic and financial policies in India since 1991. Liberalisation, globalisation and market reforms have had an impact on the functioning of the market. Reports from other markets have shown that reforms and liberalisation have led to increased efficiency. Majnoni and Massa (2001) reported that stock exchange reforms in Italy resulted in increased stock market efficiency. According to Richards (1996), financial liberalisation should lead to the reduction in stock market volatility provided appropriate economic policies are in place. In India we have two stock exchanges NSE and BSE, NSE is the

modern stock exchange and BSE is the oldest stock exchange in India this study we considered BSE stock exchange liquidity, return and volatility trends.

Review of literature:

Gurunathan (2007) explained that development of the stock market is expressing the economic Development of the country. In this paper, an effort has been made to study the investors' necessities in the Indian Stock Market. Chattopadhyay & Behera (2008) in their study explain the forepart of this century has been the financial Liberalisation of equity markets across the world. It is generally believed that due to liberalisation Policy and the consequent development of Indian stock markets, the latter might have integrated with the developed markets. They concluded that Indian stock market is not influenced by other Markets.

Bekaert G. et al (2003) pointed that effect it of liquidity on estimated return in the emerging market by means of a simple asset pricing model with liquidity. Consistent with liquidity being a priced factor, unpredicted liquidity shocks are optimistically correlated with return shocks and pessimistically correlated with shocks to the dividend yield. Equity market liberalisation significantly



improves the level of liquidity but has no significant effect on the relationship between liquidity and future returns.

Eleswarapu, V. et al (1998) have explained that the problem of illiquidity with the purpose of afflicts the stocks listed on BSE. They considered on 250 firms over the five year period 1989 to 1993 and bring into being confirmations in favour of liquidity premium for stocks

Objectives of the study:

To study the trends in the stock market (BSE) in terms of liquidity, return and volatility.

Research methodology:

The study used only the secondary data: Secondary data has collected from journals and websites. The data has taken from 1992 to 2012

Tools of analysis: Return: $R_t = \text{Log} (I_t / I_{t-1}) * 100$

Where R_t indicates return, it is the value of the index on day t and I_{t-1} is the value of the index on day t-1.

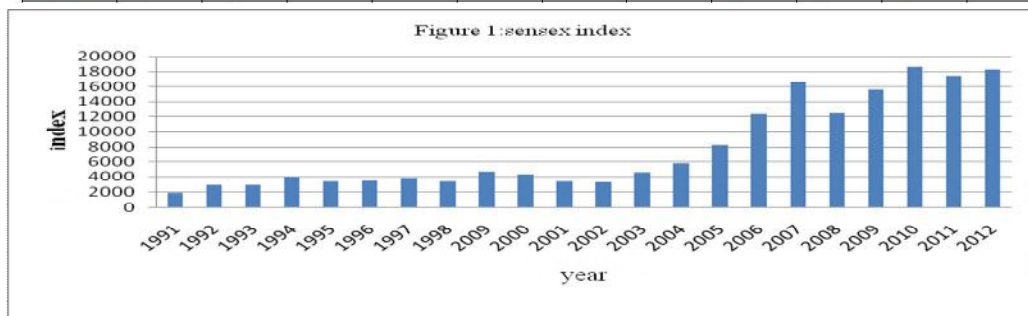
on the B.S.E.they furthermore establish that the trading frequency is optimistically associated to number of shareholders and shares stupendous. In adding together, the possession structure seems to matter, by means of attentiveness in the hands of insiders in addition to government bodies having a venomous effect on liquidity.

Volatility: for the measurement of volatility standard deviation has calculated.

Data analysis and interpretation:

Sensex: Index is the main key point for the measurement of liquidity, volatility and return. Index movement is very low then there is the chance for the low liquidity of the security and if index movement if high then there is more chance for the liquidity of the security.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
SEN	1879	2895	2898	3974	3288	3469	3812	3294	4658	4269	3331
SEX	.51	.67	.69	.91	.68	.24	.86	.78	.63	.69	.95
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
SEN	3206	4492	5741	8280	1227	1656	1236	1558	1860	1742	1820
SEX	.19	.19			7	9	6	5	5	3	2



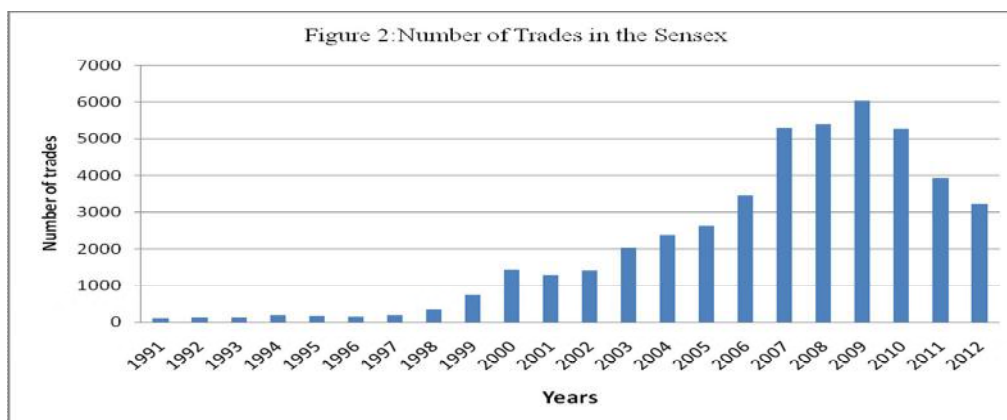
The above table showing that from 1991 to 2001 there were the slight increase in the sense after that i.e., from 2002 onwards gradually increase the sense, so here the evidence is that more liquidity of the security after 2002 the reason senses gradually increased.



Number of trades:

Based on the number of trades then we can say liquidity of the security. This may be the first step in checking of liquidity. While measuring the liquidity of the senses liquidity is also one of the indicators of liquidity for that analysis of the study this one is considered for the study. If trades were more then there are chances for more liquidity of security. Below charts explain the number of trades from 1991 to 2012.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Number of trades	97	126	123	196	171	155	196	354	740	1428	1277
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Number of trades	1413	2028	2374	2640	3462	5303	5408	6056	5285	3944	3235



Here in 1991 the number of trades very low then slowly have increased from the 2000 year onwards continuously increased and in 2009 it was touched peak level then it was decreased the number of listed companies the final conclusion is that the number of trades has increased after the introduction of depository system in India, so there is more liquidity in sense.

Number of shares traded

At the time of talking about liquidity number of shares traded is also one of the measurements for the liquidity, this is one of the steps in checking of liquidity. If the stock is not trading then there is no question of liquidity. If the stock is trading more number there is the chance for more liquidity. A number

of shares traded considered in the below table:

As per the above table in 1991 the number of shares trades were very low from that year onwards the number of shares traded in Sensex were increasing but from the 2001 year onwards it has increased a lot but 2008 slow down and 2009 year it was increased highest level then it was decreased. Here after 2001 shares trading were continuously increasing then there is more chance for the liquidity.

A number of listed companies: The following table provides the year-wise break-up of the number of companies listed in the sensex for trading. All the listed companies were trading, the



trading point of view all companies are liquid.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Number of shares traded	22683	35031	75834	107248	77185	80925	85877	129272	208635	258511	182196
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Number of shares traded	221403	388748	477174	664467	560780	986005	739600	1136513	990776	654137	563883

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Number of listed companies	2263	2861	3585	4702	5603	5832	5853	5849	5815	5869	5782
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Number of listed companies	5650	5528	4731	4781	4821	4887	4929	4975	5067	5133	5111

As per the table listed companies were gradually increasing all most all the years from 1991 to 2012.but 2002 onwards consistently increasing the number of listed companies in the sensex.

Market capitalisation: turnover ratio is considered as one of the measures of liquidity. This is may be calculated as the

percentage of turnover in the market capitalisation of the stock market. Market capitalisation is also one of the indicators for the finding of liquidity in the stock market.generall market capitalisation was more then there is a possibility for the more liquidity the following table explains the trend of market capitalisation from1991 to 2012.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Market capitalisation	323363	188146	368071	435481	526476	463915	560325	545361	912842	5711553	612224
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Market capitalization	572198	1201207	1698428	3022191	3545041	5138014	3086075	6165619	6839084	6214941	5348645

Return: return is one of the important ones from the investment point of view return calculated daily wise return of the sensex average price.

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Return	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-0.2	0.0	0.0	-0.10	0.2	-0.1	-0.1
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Return	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	-0.2	0.2	0.0	-0.2	-0.2



Here returns were from 1991 to 1994 constant but 1995 it was decreased again in 1999 increased then 2000,2001and 2002 decreased, again in 2003 increased and decreased in 2008 then increased in 2009 again in 2010,2011 and 2012 decreased. Here daily returns were

fluctuating neither continuously increasing nor continually decreasing.

Volatility:

Volatility is one of the important for the measurement of risk it will measure the total risk of the index. Here volatility is calculated from 1991 to 2002 below table shows the about trend of volatility

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Volatility	3.4	3.3	1.8	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.9	1.8	2.2	1.7
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Volatility	1.1	1.2	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.8	2.2	1.0	1.3	1.3

The beginning of 1991 volatility was so high from 1991 onwards volatility is gradually decreased then slightly increased in 2000 and again gradually decreased from 2000 to 2007 then it has highly increased in 2008 then decreased from 2008 onwards.

Conclusion: Liquidity, return and volatility have calculated based on that the trend have considered.sensex return specially from 2003 onwards lot of changes, number of trades and number of shares are highest in 2009, the number of listed companies continuously increasing from 1991 onwards, market capitulation highest in 2010, sensex daily return fluctuation is more after 1991 and initially volatility so high then it has decreased.

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MGNREGA Performance: Inter-district Analysis of Telangana State

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Abstract: In a long history of Indian employment policy, Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) is a major flagship programme to provide employment guarantee to rural masses. So far, it has successfully completed a decade of the journey in its implementation since 2006. United Andhra Pradesh was stood as one among the best performers in MGNREGA implementation with its design, administrative structure, innovative features like regular social audit, adoption of information technology, etc. The present study focuses on MGNREGA performance in the newly born state of Telangana. The main objectives of the study are to examine the macro-level status and to explore inter-district variations in the implementation of the MGNREGA in Telangana. The MGNREGA performance in Telangana state is moderate during a decade of its implementation. In the state, MGNREGA provides employment to about 45 percent of rural households on average. Average employment under MGNREGA is 49 days which is less than half of the proposed target during 2006-16. Over a period of time, employment provision has been coming down in terms of average household employment and share of households who completed 100 days per annum. The performance of the MGNREGA is not satisfactory in economically backward districts where employment generation is poor.

Introduction:

On June 2nd 2014, Telangana was emerged as 29th Indian state after a prolonged struggle by separating from erstwhile Andhra Pradesh. In Telangana, 61 percent of people live in rural areas. It is the twelfth largest state in terms of both geographical area and population in the country. According to 2011 Census, around 61.33 percent of the population live in rural areas mostly depending on agriculture. Although two perennial rivers of Godavari and Krishna are passing through the state, agriculture is carried out through bore-wells (ground water) in the state rather than surface irrigation [Subrahmanyam, S. (2002)]. The share of agriculture is declining in Gross State Domestic Product over a period of time. It has declined from 17.9 to 12.8 between 2004-05 and 2014-15 [SEO-Telangana (2015)]. The most important feature is both small and marginal holdings constitute around 85.9

percent in total agricultural holdings with an average size of 1.11 hectares, which is highly uneconomical. Agriculture is not at all sustainable in such uneconomic holdings having an irregularity of rains, climate change, depletion of ground water, escalation of input costs and declining profitability. The situation led the farmers to take an extreme step of committing suicides as they were driven into a debt trap. According to National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) of India, around 898 farmers committed suicides in the same year of formation of the state. After Maharashtra, the highest number of farmers' suicides happened in Telangana. The situation clearly lauds about the farm conditions and agrarian crisis in the region [Galab, S. et al. (2009)]. In this scenario, rural employment and livelihood of the landless, small and marginal farmers become questionable. Therefore,



Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act is very important to provide employment to the rural poor in the region. The present study is intended to understand the performance of MGNREGA since its implementation in the region. We focused mainly macro level performance and inter-district analysis of the MGNREGA.

The MGNREGA employment trend has been similar in several states too. The same trend is continued in Andhra Pradesh (undivided) too. The households coverage, average employment per household, person-days generated, the proportion of households completed 100 days are highest in 2009-10 in the state of undivided Andhra Pradesh. There are wide inter-district variations in employment generation under MGNREGA [Indrakant, S. (2015)]. At this juncture, the present study focuses on MGNREGA employment generation in the newly born state of Telangana. The main objectives of the study are to examine macro-level trends of employment generation and explore inter-district differences in MGNREGA performance in Telangana state. This study is based on the secondary data which is taken from national and state level official websites of MGNREGA. This paper is organised into two sections. I discuss state level picture of MGNREGA in Telangana in the first section and inter-district analysis in the second section.

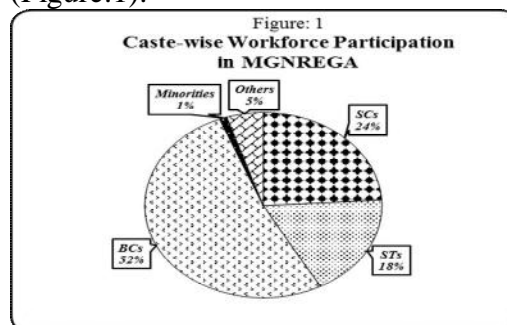
1. MGNREGA Employment Trend in Telangana:

So far, MGNREGA is completely successful nowhere in the country in providing at least 100 days of

employment to rural households during a decade of its journey. Telangana too is not an exemption for that. Nonetheless, the MGNREGA performance is moderately better in the newly formed state of Telangana.

1.1 Coverage & Participation:

In Telangana, MGNREGA is successfully implemented in all the districts except Hyderabad since 2006. They are, namely, Adilabad, Karimnagar, Khammam, Mahabubnagar, Medak, Nalgonda, Nizamabad, Rangareddy and Warangal. At present, MGNREGA covers approximately 8827 Gram Panchayats of 442 Mandals in the nine districts. On an average, MGNREGA provides 45 percent of total rural households in the state. Women participation is about 59 percent which indicates their proportion in the rural labour market. It varies from 54 percent to 61 percent over a period of time. Under MGNREGA, BC workers participation is higher than rest of the social groups as like their population. Among total workforce who involve in the MGNREGA, BCs are 52 percent, SCs are 24 percent, STs are 18 percent, others are 5 percent and Muslim minorities are only 1 percent (Figure:1).



1.2 Employment Trend and Work completion rate: If we compare with the national average, MGNREGA employment generation is relatively better in Telangana



state as portrayed in Figure: 2. Average employment given per household is 49 days per annum which is less than half of the proposed target of the Act.

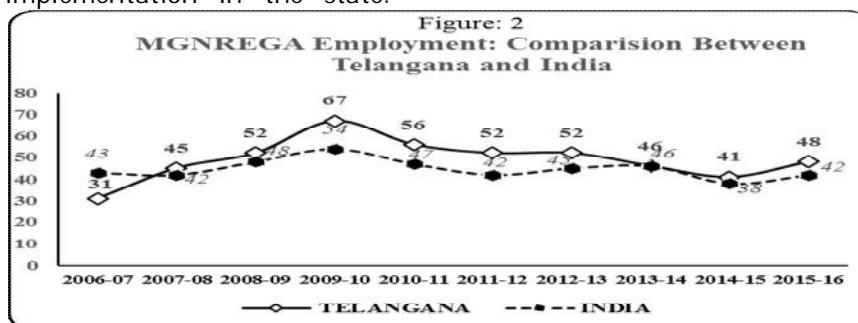
Table: 1 MGNREGA Performance in Telangana (2006-16)

Year	Households Coverage	Women Participation	Average Employment Per Household	Households Completed 100 days	Work Completion Rate
2006-07	26	54	31	1.8	33.6
2007-08	43	60	45	9.5	37.3
2008-09	48	61	52	8.5	29.9
2009-10	53	61	67	21.7	51.6
2010-11	52	59	56	14.8	69.4
2011-12	39	60	52	13.6	0.3
2012-13	48	60	52	13.3	3.2
2013-14	48	60	46	8.1	4.7
2014-15	45	61	41	5.3	1.2
2015-16	45	60	48	9.8	0.5
Average	45	59	49	11.2	23.2

Source: www.nrega.nic.in

The employment generation under MGNREGA increased continuously for first four years during 2006-07 to 2009-10 and declined steadily thereafter as shown in the Table: 1. In a decade of MGNREGA implementation, the year of 2009-10 seems to be a saturation point in MGNREGA employment generation as it could not exceed that limit during later years of implementation in the state.

Under MGNREGA, maximum employment provided during the period of 2009-10, in terms of, households coverage, average employment given per household and the percentage of households completed 100 days. However, the MGNREGA is still far away from its objectives of employment guarantee as like as national level.



Here, work completion rate is defined as the ratio of a number of works completed to the total number of works undertaken under MGNREGA. During the period of



2006-07 to 2015-16, work completion rate is just 23.2 percent only. What it exactly means that about 77 percent of the works were left incomplete which adversely affects quality and usefulness of the assets. After 2010-11, the work completion rate drastically declined and worsened further. The reasons could be changes in priority of works, inadequate material expenditure, improper planning and monitoring, and lack of coordination among the administrative bodies and other departments.

1.3 Expenditure:

In general, Centre sponsors lion share of the total expenditure for the MGNREGA implementation. The share of states is limited to administrative expenditure and some part of material expenditure as mentioned in the Act (NREGA - 2005). The proposed ratio of wage-material expenditure is 60:40. But, in practice, wage expenditure always dominates the material component in MGNREGA implementation. Perhaps, the state government may try to manage with the material expenditure that is received from the Centre without or less contributing from their pockets. It could be one of the reasons for poor assets creation. As long as the state government is not serious about assets creation, it can happily handle MGNREGA implementation with Centre's funds without thinking of financial burden and assets creation as well.

The maximum proportion goes on wage expenditure as the MGNREGA wages are regularly revising to adjust inflation. Therefore, wage expenditure is maximum even though there is a decline in employment generation. On the whole, among the total expenditure, wages are 50 percent, the material is 51 percent and 9 percent of administrative expenses during the period of 2006-07 to 2015-16.

As shown in Table: 2, total expenditure of the MGNREGA has been come down over a period of time after reaching the maximum in 2010-11.

2. MGNREGA: Inter-district Analysis

The MGNREGA implementation is very crucial in backward regions which are dry and or less irrigated; and where employment opportunities in the non-farm sector are limited. Obviously, workers depend more on MGNREGA for employment in those districts compared to others. But, we observe wide variations across the districts in the performance of MGNREGA in terms of households coverage, average employment and 100 days completed households (see Table: 3). The MGNREGA performance in poor districts seems to be not much encouraging where it should not be.

Under MGNREGA, households' coverage is highest in Nalgonda (54 percent), Adilabad (53 percent) and Warangal (50 percent) where it is more than the state average of 45 percent. The households' coverage seems to be less Rangareddy, Mahabubnagar and Medak districts which are located quite adjacent to Greater Hyderabad Municipal Corporation (GHMC); and in Karimnagar district which is known for canal irrigation than other districts. Of course, urban proximity can influence the demand for MGNREGA works, but employment provision should not be less for participating households in backward regions.

Table: 4 clearly illustrates that MGNREGA increased from 2006-07 to its maximum during 2009-11 and started declining thereafter in all the districts of Telangana.



Year	Wage	Material	Administrative	Total Expenditure
2006-07	33848 (85)	691 (2)	5403 (13)	39943 (100)
2007-08	81284 (77)	18065 (17)	6504 (6)	105853 (100)
2008-09	103137 (76)	24956 (18)	7468 (6)	135561 (100)
2009-10	169791 (82)	27707 (13)	8912 (5)	206410 (100)
2010-11	151508 (62)	72749 (30)	18942 (8)	243200 (100)
2011-12	105074 (68)	32502 (21)	16680 (11)	154256 (100)
2012-13	127431 (71)	34742 (19)	17928 (10)	180101 (100)
2013-14	135951 (61)	66530 (30)	18931 (9)	221412 (100)
2014-15	112009 (62)	49737 (28)	18397 (10)	180143 (100)
2015-16	145609 (77)	21755 (12)	21360 (11)	188723 (100)
Total	1165643 (70)	349435 (21)	140525 (9)	1655602 (100)

Note: Parentheses indicate horizontal percentages
Source: www.nrega.nic.in

District	Households (%)	Average Employment (Days)	HHs 100 days Completed (%)	Work Completion Rate (%)
Adilabad	53	56	15	26
Karimnagar	38	38	8	24
Khammam	45	48	11	24
Mahbubnagar	41	48	12	23
Medak	42	51	13	20
Nalgonda	54	42	8	25
Nizamabad	45	55	16	22
Rangareddy	32	65	20	23
Warangal	50	40	7	21
TELANGANA	45	49	11	23

Source: www.nrega.nic.in



Table: 4 District-wise MGNREGA Household Employment (2005-06 to 2015-16)

District	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16
Adilabad	35	53	54	78	63	58	67	55	48	46
Karimnagar	26	38	46	63	40	34	32	35	35	36
Khammam	32	49	54	65	47	53	54	48	39	36
Mahabubnagar	26	43	57	62	57	59	57	39	37	44
Medak	29	54	52	66	61	53	49	45	41	58
Nalgonda	22	35	41	58	49	46	53	42	38	35
Nizamabad	27	50	56	78	82	46	53	46	44	66
Rangareddy	53	53	66	82	61	75	60	67	56	72
Warangal	28	30	39	55	47	44	44	39	33	37
AVERAGE	31	45	52	67	56	52	52	46	41	48

Source: www.nrega.nic.in

The MGNREGA provides the highest number of days of employment in the districts like Rangareddy, Adilabad, Nizamabad and Medak (Table: 3).

Average employment given per household is maximum in these districts. The lowest employment was provided in

the districts of Karimnagar, Warangal and Nalgonda. But, the correlation between household coverage and average employment is negative. Although MGNREGA provides more employment in Rangareddy, Nizamabad, Medak, Mahabubnagar and Khammam, the households' coverage is so poor.

Table: 5 Correlation Matrix for Some MGNREGA Indicators

	<i>Household Coverage</i>	<i>Average Employment</i>	<i>100 days Completed HHs</i>	<i>Work Completion Rate</i>
Households Coverage	1			
Average Employment	-0.37	1		
100 days Completed HHs	-0.47	0.99	1	
Work Completed Rate	0.32	0.01	-0.02	1

Source: Author's Calculations.

The average days of employment and share of 100 days completed households both are moving in the same direction. The percentage of households who received 100 days under MGNREGA is highest in districts where maximum employment was given in rural areas. This proportion is highest in Rangareddy (20 percent) and lowest in Warangal district (just 7 percent). There are no

major differences in work completion rate among the districts. At the district level, work completion varies between 20 to 26 percent for the period of 2006-16. One should expect that correlation between households' coverage and employment generation would be statistically significant and positive. Contradictorily, the estimated correlation matrix reveals that the



correlation of coverage with average employment and 100 days completed households is negative as shown in Table: 5. On the other hand, the correlation between work completion rate and employment generation is extremely poor and ignorable. It is questionable how MGNREGA is providing employment without corresponding asset generation. From a decade of experiences in Telangana, the performance of MGNREGA is not satisfactory as it couldn't provide not more than half the employment target in economically backward districts.

Conclusion:

Telangana is one of the moderately performing states in the implementation of MGNREGA in the countryside. The employment generation is relatively better than the national average in the state. But, the same trend continues in employment generation and asset creation over a period of time. Under MGNREGA, households' coverage, employment generation and work completion rate have been continuously declined after reaching to a point. The employment generation is not accompanying with assets generation, and most of the works were left incomplete as the amount spent on the material is always less than stipulated proportion. Hence, the state should take the issue of asset generation seriously to create durable and sustainable assets along with employment generation under MGNREGA. In Telangana, there is wide variations among the districts as far as MGNREGA performance is concerned. However, the MGNREGA performance is not satisfactory at the district level as it provides less employment in economically backward districts where it should be more.

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Employment Trends in India – A Study

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Abstract: Employment is the key element in the development agenda in India. There are some approaches have identified but the differences emerged during the last over 50 years. In the initial years of development planning, unemployment was not expected to emerge as a major problem. Yet care was taken to see that employment of a reasonable magnitude is generated in the employment process to productively employ the growing labour force. A reasonably high rate of economic growth combined with an emphasis on labour intensive sectors like the small scale industry was envisaged to achieve this goal. The rate and structure of growth rather than technology were seen as the instruments of employment generation. Thus while granting that in economy with relative abundance of labour, a bias in favour of comparatively labour intensive techniques is both natural and desirable.

Introduction

It was clearly recognized that considerations of size and technology should not be set aside to emphasis employment. Unemployment was estimated to be relatively low, as was also the growth rate of labour force and a targeted economic growth rate of 5 percent with some emphasis on labour intensive consumer goods sectors was expected to generate large enough employment over the years to prevent any increase in unemployment. These expectations continued from first five year plan onwards during 1950's and 1960's. Economy grew at the rate of around 3.5 per annum and against the planned rate of 5 percent per annum. Yet employment grew at high rate of 2 percent per annum. Labour force also increased higher at 2.5 percent against less than 2 percent per annum assumed. So the unemployment has increased. Magnitude of unemployment had almost doubled during 1956 – 1972 from around 5 to 10 million and unemployment rate from 2.6 to 3.8 percent. With the availability of data on levels of consumption, employment and

unemployment for 1972-73 reveals that 41 percent of poverty in urban areas and 54 percent in rural areas.

In the fifth five year plan employment issue was discussed as a major item at the same time a strong opinion was emerging to suggest that growth alone cannot solve the problems of poverty and unemployment and therefore a number of special employment and poverty alleviation programmes were launched. They were mostly two types of assistance provided to the unemployed youth that is providing financial assistance and assistance for productive self employment and offering supplementary wage employment to the under employed. Over the years some of these programmes have been continued and some of other programs integrated or discontinued. The latest in the series in the National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme which aims at legally guaranteeing employment at upto 100 days per annum to every rural household, under the act of parliament.

Objectives :



The basic objective of this paper is to examine the trends of employment from the 1950's to 2000 planning period and the growth rates in different sectors are also examined.

Methodology : The study is purely based on secondary data collected from

government reports and official websites. Simple averages and percentages are used for analyze the data.

Table - 1: Employment Growth Rates 1972 – 73 And 1990 – 2000
(Percentages per annum)

	1972-73 to 1977 - 78	1977-78 to 1983	1983 to 1987-1988	1987-1988 to 1993-1994	1993-1994 to 1999-2000
Agriculture	2.30	1.20	.04	2.39	.06
Mining	4.68	5.85	6.16	2.09	-3.27
Manufacturing	5.10	3.75	2.10	1.45	2.05
Construction	1.59	7.45	13.59	-1.10	6.61
Gas & Water	12.23	5.07	4.64	3.39	-5.22
Transport	4.85	6.35	2.67	3.58	5.28
Trade	3.71	4.12	4.42	3.20	6.20
Services	3.67	4.69	3.92	3.76	.55

Source: NSSO Surveys(1972-2000)

The above table shows that growth rate of employment declined continuously from the period 1987-88/1993- 94. A higher growth during this period seems to have been primarily contributed by agriculture which otherwise has experienced a generally low and rapidly declining employment growth. Among other major sectors, manufacturing has also experienced a declining trend in employment growth; but, construction, trade and transport have fluctuating trends and have recorded a relatively high employment growth even during 1994-2000 when overall employment growth has been the lowest. In fact that while employment growth was reasonably high at around 2 per cent with just about 3.5 per cent growth rate of GDP during the earlier decades, with over 6 per cent GDP growth, employment growth has been much lower since the 1980's, particularly

during the period 1994-2000. It must, however, be clarified that with large weight of agriculture, the overall employment growth has been mainly influenced by employment growth in that sector. Thus, even though employment growth in construction, trade, transport and manufacturing has improved, the aggregate employment growth has significantly declined during 1994-2000 as compared to 1988-94 due to a steep fall in employment growth rate in agriculture. Slow down in employment growth in agriculture has been a result both of a low GDP growth and a decline in employment elasticity.

Table no:2 reveals that employment content of growth as measured by employment elasticity has been declining over the entire period since 1972-73, but has seen a particularly sharp decline during 1994-2000 . Manufacturing, on the other hand, had a reasonably high



elasticity to begin with, but has shown a continuous decline with slight increase during 1994-2000.

Table:2

Employment Elasticities in Major Sectors					
	1972-73 to 1977-78	1977-78 to 1983	1983 to 1987-88	1987-88 to 1993-94	1993-94 to 1999-2000
Agriculture	0.64	0.49	0.36	0.50	0.02
Mining	0.95	0.67	0.85	0.33	-0.63
Manufacturing	0.55	0.42	0.40	0.25	0.28
Construction	0.35	1.00	1.00	-1.10	1.00
Elasticity,gas, water supply	1.0	0.74	0.48	0.63	-0.76
Transport	0.76	0.92	0.45	0.64	0.56
Trade	0.78	0.75	0.70	0.58	0.68
Services	0.80	0.99	0.42	0.51	-0.06
All	0.61	0.55	0.38	0.41	0.15

Source: NSSO Surveys(1972-2000)

Construction, transport and trade have maintained relatively high elasticities, and have even shown an increase in them during 1994- 2000 when aggregate elasticity is estimated to have sharply declined. Elasticity in other services has continuously declined over the years but

the decline has been very sharp during 1993-94 and 1999-2000. It may be noted that the non-agricultural sectors on an average have shown an employment elasticity of 0.35, as against 0.02 in agriculture and 0.15 in aggregate.

Table:3 Employment Shares of Major Sectors(%)

	1972-73	1977-78	1983	1987-88	1993-94	1999-2000
Agriculture	74.0	72.3	68.4	65.5	60.38	56.70
Industry	11.4	12.3	13.7	15.5	15.82	17.56
Services	14.6	15.4	17.5	18.4	23.80	25.74

Source: NSSO Surveys(1972-2000)

Table no:3 explains that the differential growth of employment among different sectors of the economy, there have obviously been changes in the structure of employment. Among the three major sectors by broad division of economic activity, namely, agriculture, industry and services, there has been a decline, as expected, in the shareof agriculture and increase in the share of industry and services in total employment. The structural changes have, however, been

slow. In a period of 27 years, from 1973 to 2000, the share of agriculture has declined by 17 percentage points only from 74 to 57 per cent. Share of industry increased from 11 to 18 per cent and that of services rose faster from 15 per cent in 1972-73 to 26 per cent in 1999-2000, growing particularly fast during 1987-88 to 1999-2000.

The slow change in employment structure assumes the nature of a problem particularly when seen along with the



change in the structure of the national gross domestic product. During the period when the share of employment in agriculture declined from 74 per cent to 57 per cent, its contribution in GDP declined from over 40 per cent to 22 per cent; and, when the share of services sector in employment increased from 15 to 26 per cent, its contribution to GDP increased much faster from around 30 percent to 52 percent. As a result the asymmetry between the income and employment shares among different

sectors has sharply increased, particularly between the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. A sharper decline in contribution of agriculture in GDP than in its share in employment implies a decline in its relative productivity and increase in income differentials between agriculture and non-agricultural sectors. An opposite trend is seen in the services, where the increase in GDP share has been faster than of employment, while industry has retained its position in respect of relative productivity.

Table:4 Employment Status by category of Employment

	1972-73	1977-78	1983	1987-88	1993-94	1999-2000
Self Employed	61.4	58.9	57.4	56.0	54.8	52.9
Regular wage/ Salary workers	15.3	13.9	13.9	14.4	13.2	13.9
Casual Wage Workers	23.3	27.2	28.7	29.6	32.0	33.2

Source: EPW research foundation India. A pocket book of data series (2012) Delhi(2012)

Table no:4 examined the another aspect of employment trends and structure that is of interest in a developmental context is the distribution of workers by employment category in terms of self-employed, regular wage and salaried workers and casual wage earners. It has been generally expected that with shift of workers from agriculture to non-agricultural activities and from footloose to enterprise based employment, there will be an increase in the proportion of workers employed on a regular wage and salary basis. There has been a decline, albeit slow, in the share of self-employed, from 61 per cent in 1972-1973 to 53 per cent in 1999-2000. The share of regular wage-salaried workers has, however, stagnated at around 14 per cent, while that of casual workers has increased from 23 to 33 per cent.

This situation has generally been interpreted to mean an increasing

'casualisation' of workforce. In so far as the term describes an increase in the share of casual workers, it is factually true. But if it is meant to imply a process of 'regular' workers turning 'casual', or a decline in employment and earnings, the trend needs to be carefully analyzed. The shift is seen from self-employed to casual workers category and most of it has taken place in rural areas, from agriculture to non-agricultural activities, such as construction, trade and services. There has, no doubt, been displacement of workers from large industries in urban areas, rendering the regular workers to the status of casual workers. But the magnitude of such change in status of workers has not been very significant in relation to the total numbers involved. The phenomenon of casualisation, therefore, needs to be seen in the overall perspective of employment trends in the economy. Agriculture is increasingly



unable to productively absorb the growing rural labour force. At the same time, there has been some growth of non-agricultural activities in rural areas in construction, trade and services which have generally offered better earnings than agriculture. Most of these employment opportunities have been of temporary and casual nature. But they have provided either full-time or supplementary employment adding to the incomes of the rural households. On the other hand, regular jobs have hardly increased in the urban areas; in fact, there is evidence to show that such jobs have declined due to redundancy caused by technological and competitive compulsions in the larger industrial enterprises. So, part of the regular workforce has been rendered casual and most new jobs have been in the casual category. Increasing proportion of casual workers in the total employment is thus mostly a result of structural shifts taking place in the rural areas. To some extent, it is distress-driven, the small and marginal landholders and the landless not finding gainful work in agriculture and taking up whatever work they find in the non-agricultural activities, irrespective of earnings from them. But there is evidence to suggest that many are opting for non-farm work due to more regular employment and better earnings.

Slow growth of employment in the organized sector has been a major factor in the stagnancy in the proportion of regular wage and salary earners. This sector consisting of public services and enterprises and large private firms, is the one that offers regular jobs. Employment growth in this sector has been just about 0.5 per cent during 1994-2000. In the post-2000 period, organized sector employment has, in fact, shown an

absolute decline; it declined by about one million from around 28 million to 27 million during 2000-2003, (GOI, 2004). Of around 21 million new employment opportunities generated during 1994-2000 only about 4 per cent has been in the organized sector, and the rest 96 per cent in the unorganized sector (Planning Commission, 2002). As a result, the share of the unorganized sector in total employment has increased from around 92 per cent to 93 per cent. The high and increasing preponderance of the unorganized sector has been a matter of anxiety from the viewpoint of quality of employment as workers in this sector suffer from poor conditions of work, low earnings and lack of employment and social security.

Findings and Conclusions:

1. Growth rate of employment declined continuously from the period 1987-1988 or 1993-94 a higher growth during this period seems to have been primarily contributed by agriculture
2. The employment content of growth as measured by employment elasticity has been declining over the entire period since 1972-73. But has been a particularly sharp decline period 1994-2000. Manufacturing on the other hand had a reasonably high elasticity to begin with but has shown a continuous decline with slight increase during 1994-2000. Construction, transport and trade have maintained relatively high elasticities and have even shown an increase in them during 1994-2000. When aggregate elasticity is estimated to have sharply declined.
3. Among the three major sectors by broad division of economic activity namely agriculture, industry and services there has been a decline as expected in the share of agriculture and increase in



the share of industry and services in total employment, the structural changes have however been slow.

4. During the period when the share of employment in agriculture declined from 74% to 57%, its contribution in GDP declined from over 40% to 22% and when the share of services sector in employment increased from 15 to 26%, its contribution to GDP increased much faster from around 30% to 52%. As a result the asymmetry between the income and employment shares among different sector has sharply increased, particularly between the agricultural and non – agricultural sectors.

5. With the shift of workers from agriculture to non –agricultural activities and from footloose to enterprise based employment there will be an increase in the proportion of workers employed on a regular wage and salary basis. There has been a decline albeit show, in the share of self employed from 61%, in 1972-76, to 53% to 1999-2000. The share of regular wage salaried workers has, however stagnated at around 14% while that of casual workers has increased from 23 to 33 percent.

The recent experience, however, suggests that most of the new employment opportunities are likely to be generated in the unorganized sector and will be characterized by poor conditions of work, and lack of employment and social security. Even within the organized sector an increasing number of workers are being employed in a 'flexible' manner on casual or contract basis, without the social security benefits available to regular workers.

And, also, the problem of the 'working poor', namely, of those fully engaged in work, but earning less than the poverty line income, will persist. Thus the challenge of quality of work, in terms of earnings and social security will continue. Tightening of the labour market with increase in the demand for labour may lead to improved. Provision of a minimum social protection to this large mass of workers is, therefore, likely to emerge as a much greater challenge than of expanding employment opportunities. It will require special attention of the state and society at large in coming years, as the market-driven high growth even if accompanied by an expansion in employment opportunities may not by itself be adequate to address the issue of social protection.

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Human Resources Development in India – A Study of Skill Development Programmes

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Introduction:

Human resource is the most important and vital factor of economic development and social development of a country. The Human Resource Development is a multidimensional concept. In a broad sense the process of increasing knowledge, skill and capacities of all the people.¹ India is one of the youngest nations in the world with more than 54 per cent of the total population below 25 years of age. India's workforce is the second largest in the world after the China's. However, India's formally skilled workforce is approximately 2 per cent which is dismally low compared to China 47 per cent, Japan 80 per cent or South Korea 96 per cent. To leverage our demographic dividend more substantially and meaningfully, the Government of India as launched the "Skill India" campaign along with "Make in India". The 12th Five Year Plan observes that Skill development programmes in the past have been run mainly by the government, with insufficient connection with market demand. It has called for an enabling framework that would attract private investment in vocational Training through Public-Private Partnership (PPP) ². The aim of skill development in the country is to support achieving rapid and inclusive growth through: a) Enhancing individuals' employability (wage/ self employment) and ability to adapt to changing

technologies and labour market demands". b) Improving productivity and living standards of the people. c) Strengthening competitiveness of the country. d) Attracting investment in skill development ³.

The objectives of the present paper is as follows: 1.To study the human resources development in India. 2. To examine the status of skill development programmes in India. 3. To analysis the skill development programmes. 4. To identify the performance of skill development centers. The study found that despite fast economic growth India is still lagging behind in Human Resource Development.

Methodology: For the purpose this study the human resources development through skill development programmes in India. The skill development programmes which are working under National and state level government programmes would be selected. The study is not only aim at finding out the sense of accountability to skill development programmes in India. But also to assess their status of skill development programmes in national level and state levels. The study, therefore, to find out the extent to which the skill development centers are doing justice to the youth and other stakeholders. For purpose of eliciting the youth programmes will be



employed to collect the relevant secondary data.

Status of Skill Development in India:

India is one of the few developing countries in the world, where the working age population will be far in excess of those dependants on them and as per the World Bank. This has increasingly been recognized as a potential source of significant strength for the national economy to provided, we are able to equip and continuously upgrade the skills of the population in the working age group. India is one of the youngest nations in the world, with more than 54 per cent of the total population below 25 years of age and over 62 per cent of the population in the working age group i.e., 15 to 59 years. The country population pyramid is expected to bulge across the 15 to 59 age groups over the next decade. This demographic advantage is predicted to last only until 2040. India annual skilling capacity was estimated at approximately 7 million during the period of 2013-14. Apart from meeting its own demand, India has the potential to provide a skilled work force to fill the expected short of well-trained skilled workers. It is estimated that only 2.3 per cent of the work force in India, has under gone formal skill straining as compare to developed countries like to, 68 per cent in the UK, 75 per cent in Germany, 52 per cent in USA, 80 per cent in Japan and 96 per cent in South Korea. Large sections of the educated workforce have little or no job skills, making them largely unemployable.

Therefore, India must focus on scaling up skill training efforts to meet the demands of employers and drive

economic growth. In this manner, the ministry of skill development and entrepreneurship was set up in 2014, to drive the skill India, agenda in a mission mode. Therefore, proposes to launch the National Mission for Skill Development (NMSD), which will provide the overall institutional frame work to rapidly implement and scale up skill development efforts a cross in India over the past decade. It seeks to provide the institutional capacity to train a minimum of 300 million skilled people by the year 2022 ⁷. Now in India 249 training partners, 3,222 training centers working 55, 57,476 people trained and 23, 88,009 people placed ⁸. i.e Retail, Auto, Construction, Healthcare, Banking & Financial services, Creative Industry, and Logistics.etc.,

National Policy on Skill Development:

The objectives of the national policy on skill development are to: a) Create opportunities for all to acquire skills throughout life, and especially for youth, women and disadvantaged groups. b) Promote commitment by all stakeholders to own skill development initiatives. c) Develop a high-quality skilled workforce/entrepreneur relevant to current and emerging employment market needs. d) Enable the establishment of flexible delivery mechanisms that respond to the characteristics of a wide range of needs of stakeholders. e) Enable effective coordination between different ministries, the Centre and the States and public and private providers.

Scope of the National Skill Development Policy:

The coverage of the National Policy on Skill Development includes the following: a) Institution-based skill development



including ITIs/ITCs/vocational schools/technical schools/ polytechnics/ professional colleges, etc. b) Learning initiatives of sectoral skill development organized by different ministries/departments. c) Formal and informal apprenticeships and other types of training by enterprises. d) Training for self-employment/entrepreneurial development e) Adult learning, retraining of retired or retiring employees and lifelong learning f) Non-formal training including training by civil society organizations g) E-learning, web-based learning and distance learning.

Skill Development schemes/programmes for various target groups: Various Skill Development Programmes for youth in India as follows.

1. Horticulture Mission for North East and Himalayan State (HMNEH) is being implemented for overall development of horticulture in north east and Himalayan states. The mission addresses entire spectrum of horticulture from production to consumption through backward and forward linkages. The duration of this training program is 3 months to 1 year (farmers 2 to 5 days). Specific group scheme caters to entrepreneurs, gardeners, farmers, supervision, and field staff.

2. Support to Artisans Scheme. It is a Sub-scheme of Integrated Leather Development Programme, for providing employment opportunity and fulfills the demand of operators in the footwear sector and improving the quality. The duration of this training program, short duration training programmes i.e. (2 week to 1 month). This scheme caters to need of Artisans in rural clusters.

3. Capacity Building and Technical Assistance (CBTA): This programme is to provide funding for skill development, enhancing of employability and competencies and promotion of self-employment and entrepreneurship amongst youth. The duration of this training program varies (6 months to 1 year). Specific group are youth from the north east region, special focus on girls, women, disabled persons and youth from BPL background and from remote and backward districts or unreached areas.

4. Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP): by various govt. and pvt. Organization, industries or NGOs is being to enable trainees to establish commercially viable enterprises in food and agri-processing. Specific groups are SC/ST/Minority Community/Women at least 35 per cent.

5. National Urban Livelihoods Mission (NULM): This is being skill training to be provided for both wage employment (job placement) and enterprise development. Duration of the training program, minimum 3 months (with 400 hrs of technical training & 30 hours soft skills training). Specific groups are Urban Poor.

6. Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS): Programme is a component of scheme of support to voluntary agencies for adult education and skill development" JSS are established to provide vocational training to no-literate, neo-literate, as well as school drop outs by identifying skills as would have a market in the region of their establishment. Specific groups are Socio-economically backward and educationally disadvantaged groups in both Rural and Urban areas.

7. Vocationalisation of Secondary and Higher Secondary Education: to enhance the



employability of youth through demand driven competency based modular vocational courses, to maintain their competitiveness through provisions of multi-entry multi-exit learning opportunities and vertical mobility/interchangeability in qualifications and to reduce dropout rates. Specific groups are Children from Class IX onwards i.e. at secondary stage.

8. **Integrating Differently Abled persons in the mainstream of Technical and Vocational Education:** The aim of this programme to train the differently abled students in technical institutions by ministry of human resource and development. The differently abled students were given both formal and non-formal training in the polytechnics colleges in India. Duration of the training program, for few weeks to 6 months (part time non formal). This programme meant for differently abled persons only.

9. **Pradhan Mantri Kaushal Vikas Yojana(PMKVY):** This is to 24 lakh trainees to be offered monetary incentives and a government certification on successful completion of training and assessment, which will help them in securing a job for a better future. Duration of the training program, trainees with more than 3 months training. The target groups are target to aligned to the demand from the flagship programmes.

10. **Craftsmen Training Scheme:** This scheme is to provide semi-skilled/skilled workers to industry by systematic training to school leavers and reduce unemployment among educated youth by equipping them with suitable skills for industrial employment. The scheme is implemented through government run it is and private ITCs. Under the scheme focus is on creating

centers of excellence as also focus on difficult areas. Duration of the training program 6months -3 year. Specific groups are school leavers with 8th, 10th and 12th pass, maximum of 50 per cent reservation depending on state SC/ST per cent, 25 per cent women, 3 per cent physically handicapped.

11. **Skill Development Initiative:** This is to provide for skills up gradation/formation, vertical and horizontal mobility including recognition of prior learning for school drop-outs, unorganized sector workers etc., and facilitating multi entry and exit and allowing recognition of prior learning. Duration of the training program 1 month to 1 year (modular courses form 60 hours to 1000 hours). Specific groups are class 5th onwards as well as people with uncertified prior learning, at least 30 per cent women.

12. **Apprenticeship Training Scheme:** The objective of this programme is to utilize fully the facilities available in industry for imparting practical training with a view to meeting the requirements of skilled manpower for industry and thereby reducing mismatch. Apprentice Protsahan Yojana (APY) would facilitate MSME also to engage the trainees. Duration of the training program 6 months to 4 years. Specific groups are school leavers with 8th, 10th and 12th pass or NCVT holder. The apprenticeship scheme to cover all categories of apprentices except the graduate, technician and technician.

13. **Women Training Institutes:** This is meant to enhancing women training to increase women participation in the labour market. Training facilities are being offered to women through 11 institutes spread across the country. Duration of the training program short



and long term. The target groups are Girls 8th, 10th, 12th pass.

14. **Entrepreneurship**

Development Programs through MSME: This entrepreneurship development programmes are being organized regularly to nurture the talent of youth by enlightening them on various aspects of industrial activity required for setting up MSEs. Duration of the training program EDP-2 week, ESDP-6 week, MDP-1 week (FT)/2week (PT). Specific groups are workers, educated unemployed youth, Entrepreneurs and their executives.

15. **Skill Development activities though Tool Rooms:** This is upgrade skills of prospective entrepreneurs, existing workforce and also develop skills of new workers and technicians of MSE s. duration of the training program short term and long term programmes on high end technology. Specific groups are workers, educated unemployed youth, entrepreneurs and their executives.

16. **Multi-Disciplinary Training Centers (MTDC):** to setup own units of cottage and small industry. The multi-disciplinary training centre of KVIC implements the programme. Duration of the training program flexible, usually short term. Specific groups are artisans, unemployed youth, supervisors etc.

17. **Training by coir board on spinning of coir and production of value added products:** to provide intensive training in advanced method of coir manufacture including extraction of fibre, spinning, bleaching, dyeing, weaving and designing etc. duration of the training program, long term and short term. Specific target groups are Rural women only.

18. **Multi Sectoral Development Programme:** to improving socio-economic conditions of minorities and

proving basic amenities to them for improving the quality of life of the people and reducing imbalances in the identified minority concentration areas. Duration of the training program, varies. Specific target groups are minority only.

19. **Seekho aur Kamao:** to bring down unemployment rate of minorities; conserve and update traditional skills of minorities and establish their linkage with the market and improve employability of existing workers, school dropouts etc. and ensure their placement. Duration of the training program modern trades- minimum 3 months. Specific target groups are minority youth only.

20. **Pandit Deen Dayal Upadhyaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojana** (earlier known as Aajeevika): This is to training 10 lakh (1 million) rural youths for jobs in three years, that is, by 2017 and bench marking training against international standards this would also address the needs of differently abled, marginalized youth and women in LWE districts. Duration of the training program 3 to 12 months,. Specific groups are Rural poor youth (18 to 53 years), 33 per cent women, 50 per cent SC/ST, 15 per cent minorities, 3 per cent differently abled.

21. **Rural Self Employment and Training scheme (RSETI):** Rural self employment training institutes (RSETI) across the country as institution to mitigate the unemployment and underemployment problems among youth in the country. This institute generates self employment in rural areas through training for capacity building and by facilitating in settlement in vocations. Duration of the training program 1 to 6 weeks. Specific target groups Rural BPL Youth.



22. **Hunar Se Rozgar Tak under Capacity Building for Service Providers (CBSP) Scheme:** to create employable skills in the interested youth who are in the age group of 18 to 25 years and who are minimum 8th pass. Duration of the training program 6 to 8 weeks. Specific target groups are 8th pass, 18-28 years.

23. **Special Central Assistance to SC and Tribal sub plan:** 10 per cent allocation of assistance is fixed for skill development of tribal youth. Duration of the training program varies. Specific target groups are scheduled castes and tribe youth.

24. **TRIFED-Skill development/upgradation and capacity building for handicrafts/handlooms:** TRIFED – a national level cooperative body under the ministry of tribal affairs, government of india, is engaged in the skill development/up-gradation & capacity building trainings of tribal handicraft artisans and tribal people along with marketing of their products. Skill development & capacity building training of minor forest produce gatherers and training of tribal handicrafts, tribal paintings etc. duration of the training program, 45 days (30 days training and rest 15 days in mass production). Specific groups are women and educated unemployed school dropout youths.

25. **Support to Training and Employment Programme for Women (STEP):** This is to provide skill that give employability to women. And to provide competencies and skills that enable women to become self-employed/entrepreneurs. Duration of the training program less than 3 weeks. Specific groups are poor and asset less women in traditional sectors.

26. **Priyadarshini scheme to organize women into effective self help group:** the women empowerment and livelihood programme in mid gangetic plains also called priyadarshini programme envisages holistic empowerment of 1.08,000 poor women and adolescent girls through formation of 7200SHGs. The programme originally being implemented in six districts including four districts in Uttar Pradesh. Duration of the training program less than 3 weeks. Specific target groups are women only.

27. **Skill up-gradation Training Programme for Women in 200 Border/Tribal/Backward Districts (SUTP):** The programme is aimed at enhancing the vocational skills of women in the border or tribal or backward districts and also at helping them to acquire self-employment. The programme enables women participants to supplement their income productivity and learn new skills for which there is a good demand in the market. Duration of the training program maximum duration of skill training programmes should not exceed three months. Specific groups are women from SC/ST/OBC/Minority, Widow, Economically backward and destitute/homeless categories¹⁰.

Results and Discussions:

The target groups in the unorganized sector include own-account workers, workers and apprentices in micro enterprises, unpaid family workers, and casual labourers, home based workers, peripatetic workers and migrant labourers, out of school youth and adults in need of skill, farmers and artisans in rural areas, among others. In order to encourage participation in skill development, entry barriers such as educational qualifications, transportation, loss of wages, problem of



language, etc...The demand driven system guided by labour market signals thereby reducing skills mismatch, labour market information and human resources planning; expansion of outreach using established as well as innovative approaches; focus on new emerging occupations; lifelong learning focus both on pre-service and in-service training; stress on planning and monitoring; involvement of social partners, stakeholders and provide greater space for public private partnership; use of modern training technologies including distance learning, e-learning, web based learning and skill up gradation of trainers, their quality assurance and improvement of status.

Suggestions and Conclusion:

The initiatives described above involving both the States and the Centre, often with private partnership will lead to the establishment of a credible, trustworthy and reliable training, testing and certification edifice linked to global standards and responsive to the needs of the ultimate consumers of skilled personnel for quality jobs beckoning the Indian youth, the government and private sector will act in a concerted manner so that these opportunities materialize and operate as an employability guarantee. Further, the success of these various training programmes hearty depends upon the improving the educational levels of youth, improving access to quality training for employment opportunities and coordinating among various stakeholders. For this there is a need for data base on different parameters in farm and non-farm sectors in India.

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Globalization and its Impact on Indian Agriculture and Rural Development: Issues and Challenges

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1.1 Introduction:

Everybody knows that agriculture is the mainstay of Indian economy. More than 55 percent of the country's populations still depend on agriculture. As of 2011, rural areas host 742 million or over 55 percent of population. About 55 percent of India's total workforce is rural. Indian agriculture has surpassed many obstacles and successfully moved from the status of being a self-deficient country to a self sufficient one in food grains as well as in several other sectors of agriculture. But there are threats of this achievement being soon gaped down by the monstrous growth of population. It has been estimated that India would need nearly 300million tones of food grains by 2030. In other words, by the year 2020, we may need about 122million tones of rice, 102million tones of wheat, 41million tones of coarse grains and 28 million tones of pulses, 143million tones of milk. Macmillan dictionary of IT defines information technology as "the acquisition, processing, storage and dissemination of vocal, pictorial, textual and numerical information by a micro-electronics based combination of computing and telecommunications".

1.2 Need of IT in Agricultural and Rural Development

Everybody knows that agriculture is the mainstay of Indian economy. More than 55 percent of the country's populations still depends on agriculture. As of 2011,

rural areas host 742 million or over 55 percent of population. About 55 percent of India's total workforce is rural. Indian agriculture has surpassed many obstacles and successfully moved from the status of being a self-deficient country to a self-sufficient one in food grains as well as in several other sectors of agriculture. But there are threats of this achievement being soon galped down by the monstrous growth of population. It has been estimated that India would need nearly 300million tones of food grains by 2030. In other words, by the year 2020, we may need about 122million tones of rice, 102million tones of wheat, 41million tones of coarse grains and 28 million tones of pulses, 143million tones of milk. The natural resources are depleting day by day and it is going to be a big challenge to feed the population. To ensure food security and maintain sustainable agriculture so that our country is hunger free in coming years, we need to strengthen farmers by timely and expert suggestions on recent technologies applicable in agricultural and rural development.

The needs of agriculture are:

- ❖ To reduce knowledge gaps and increase knowledge sharing for increasing productivity and boosting growth in rural areas.
- ❖ Empowering farmers with relevant and timely information about different crop variety.
- ❖ To reduce farming risks.



Rural areas are predominantly under developed with poor infrastructure, electricity and roads. Rural people are very few as producers of information, and left with less access than urban people to the information and networking resources. Naturally they have fewer possibilities of orienting technology to address their specific needs.

To achieve a sustainable level of food production it is necessary that they have seamless access to:

- ❖ Information on weather, production and cultivation techniques, seeds and fertilizers, plant nutrients and water usage,
- ❖ Funds and liability coverage through agri-finance and agri-insurance,
- ❖ Assistance from universities on new techniques eg. Biotechnology, used to increase production yield,
- ❖ Market infrastructure like warehouses and cold chain management.

In the current scenario, the role of information technology assumes great importance and only with proper integration of IT with agriculture and rural sector, the problems can be solved and country can move towards a sustainable production.

1.3 Application of IT in Agriculture and Rural Development

Application of Information Technology operations in agriculture and rural development may be described as follows:

1.3.1 Communication Technology in Agriculture and Rural Development:

Information is power. More the person is informed, more he is empowered. Information is a flowing asset which is continuously generated, disseminated and gets utilized. A flow of information needs an unhindered information communication system. But

is a paradox for rural India that it is one of the least communicated populations of the world. Recent advances in space science and information communication technology has ushered in a great opportunity for this neglected mass of India.

Internet provides huge, advanced information on just a click of the computer mouse. The rural masses are largely disconnected with the outer world. Internet is the only way to make them global and also an effective medium to introduce the world to those rural masses and their socio-cultural aspects. Various internet based inventions have been designed to uplift the rural areas. Some of them are:-

a. e-agriculture: Agriculture previously was a function of land, labour and capital but nowadays farmers want to sell more and more produce of the best quality at a competitive price. Under such a scenario technology plays a major role. e-Agriculture means IT in agriculture, IT means internet which not only provides technology for farming methods but also provides the best source to get farm inputs and the best destination to sell their produce at the best price. Internet based interventions is also suitable for extension agents and field workers in providing updated information to the villagers. Several technologies have been developed for taking into consideration the agro-ecological situation of the region and entered in we world from where users can utilized it by surfing various rural portals.

b. e-Education: The rural population is largely illiterate and uneducated. Many educational experts are convinced that the only way quality education can be delivered to masses,



cost-effectively, is through IT. Developing a program to train villagers core group(VCG) including women and enthusiastic youth, will ensure that IT reaches the common person even in remotest parts of the country.

c. e-Health service: Rural population is always struggling on the health front. Information technology tools are available to improve communication, consultation and two way refer all linkages from primary health care to tertiary health care level. Telemedicine is a marriage of IT and medicine which in the near future is going to be benefit the rural masses at large. Telemedicine can help in remote diagnostic services and extension of super specialty hospital treatment for people in the rural areas.

d. e-Marketing: For rural areas, proper disposal of farm produce at better price is always a perpetual problem. Internet not only provide the prevailing price of the farm produce but the place of disposal also. Internet has strengthened the marketing information and marketing intelligence services. By sending e-mails to the buyer, one can sell and negotiate the price of produce without going to the buyer's door and paying much to the middlemen.

e. e-banking: To provide the banking facility and to develop banking habit among the rural population, e-banking is essential. It facilitates e-finance and e-insurance to the farmers quickly and without much paper work. ATM facilities are becoming very popular among various e-banking services. Queries related to loan and savings can easily be obtained through internet having e-banking facilities.

f. e-Finance: Rural population are a resource poor mass. They need credit for running their business. Breaking the

monopoly of private creditors and timely disbursement of credit without much paper work is possible through e-finance.

g. e-Insurance: Rural population is having almost negligible insurance cover. If the head or working manpower unfortunately dies or is subjected to any accident, such family meets the misery of poverty. Government of India has not only started a subsidized scheme to insure the rural population but also their crops, so their livelihood must does not get much affected from unforeseen calamities. e-insurance is designed to cover it all at faster speed without much paper work.

h. e-Government: It refers to ICT enable route of governance. Through e-governance, government can connect to the rural masses with their administrator, so they can ask their problem status of solution. Various world bank and centrally sponsored e-governance projects are in operation, e.g. Meghdoot in Madhya Pradesh and Bhoomi in Karnataka. NICNET network operation over 700VSATS are being used to provide nationwide data communication link between district, and state capitals for administrative planning and other applications.

i. e-Panchayat: For the first time in the country, electronic knowledge based Panchayat is introduced in Andhra Pradesh by National Information Centre (NIC) of Department of information Technology (DIT). As a pilot basis in Ramachandrapuram Gram Panchayat in Medak District of A.P., here all the functions of Panchayath are computerized and web enabled. Internet based service for birth and death registrations, house tax assessment and collection, trade license, old age pension, work monitoring, financial accounting, MIS for Panchayath are all being



executed in computerized e-panchayath system. Additional services such as market information and agricultural extension service are also being provided to the citizens of the village from e-panchayath.

1.3.2 Remote Sensing in Agriculture:

The measurement of acquisition of information of an object or phenomenon, by a recording device that is not in physical or intimate contact with the object is remote sensing. Remote sensing is the science and art of acquiring information (special, spatial and temporal) about material objects, area or phenomenon under investigation.

a. Agro-climatic mapping:

Remote sensing data based agro-climatic map helps in crop selection and guides further on different farming operations on the basis of local resources and agro-climatic situations prevailing over the region. It lessens the farming risk and improves income in rural areas.

b. **Soil mapping:** Conjunctive use of Remote sensing data and collateral information like-lithology, physiography has enabled mapping soils at different scales, which is helpful in land use planning.

c. Land use/land cover mapping:

Map of land use/ land cover prepared on the basis of space borne multi spectral data have provided a sound data base for agro-climate regional planning for increasing food production, reclamation of degraded lands etc. A nation wide wet land mapping by using IRS LISS-II data carried for comprehensive planning of wet land ecology and inland fisheries.

d. Watershed development:

Remote sensing data based mapping of watershed helps in proper planning of arable and non-arable land and

arrangement of network of natural drains. It not only helps in curbing different types of erosion but also helps in resource generation in the area.

e. Agricultural drought assessment:

Vegetation index (VI) derived from space borne data is sensitive to moisture stress in crops and serves a surrogate measure to assess agricultural drought.

f. Pest assessment and control:

Possible pest investigation warning is the key to preventive measure of first control which is not only cheap but also eco-friendly. Locust control through remote sensing might play vital role in future.

g. Precision farming technology (PFT):

It is an emerging technology that allows farmers to adjust inputs, duly considering the in field variability of soil, crop condition and resulting in the reduction of cost of production that is why it is sometimes referred as site specific farming (SSF). The PFT using Global Positioning System(GPS) which comprises of satellites (among them most of all are Remote sensing satellites), software, some hardware and technical staff.

1.4 Problem in Using Information Technology

Information technology is get to reach India at a large scale. Poor educational status, functional literacy on use of computers, poor infrastructural facilities like lake of power, public utilities are hurdles towards gaining access to farm information. The second aspect is most of the information available on the websites and internet is on English with a web content of 64 percent which 5 percent of the Indian population know.

1.5 Measures to Boost Information Technology skill among Rural / Farm Communities



The following measures are suggested to boost IT skill in agriculture and rural development:

❖ Rural people need to be encouraged to form groups wherein they can gain access to schemes being offered by financial institutions. Apex bodies like APEDA for starting up community computer centres or kiosks.

❖ Development of the integrated set of websites, content management tools and multimedia tools available in regional languages for the farmers to benefits.

❖ Need for establishment of rural development Data Centre based around IT environment as an effective sources of communication link for rural development. The focus should be on the growing concept of E-villages worked out to introduce basic designs based around IT platform, which forms the basis of foundation of rural development process.

❖ Development of workshops and variety of training programs to strengthen local capacity for use of IT as a tool of employment.

❖ Long term credit loans and subsidies can be given to SHGs, youth clubs in starting cyber cafes in rural areas by central government and state governments to bring about increased electronic connectivity in rural areas.

❖ Repacking of internet – accessed information and combining internet technology with traditional or more effective dissemination medium like the radio, T.V., street theater, C.D. ROMs and even folklore songs.

1.6 Conclusion

The core concern in Indian agriculture and rural development is the necessity to increase productivity, employment and income for poor segments of the agricultural and rural population. IT tools facilitate the farmers to be aware of

the agricultural situation in India as well as abroad and accordingly undertake agricultural production.

Ultimately, it can be rightly stated that the potential impact of IT on agriculture and rural development would be enormous. In future, IT will serve as a predominant role for fulfilling the needs of a Second Green Revolution.

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Economic Reforms of Public Health Status in Rural Areas

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Abstract: The health status disproportionately affects the poor leading to higher morbidity and mortality in the world. The physical body is the poor man's main asset. The ill health due to disease or injury trigger spiral of chain reactions, loss of work deprivation of earnings, and expenditures for medical treatment, often supported by borrowings. By these reasons with reduced financial capacity to restore earlier health status, lower productivity and earnings and the burden of debt repayments. Inevitably pushes low-income families in to the poverty trap. Statistics of the union ministry of health and family welfare indicate that life expectancy in India has gone up by five year, from 62.3year for males and 63.9 year for female's in 2001-2005 to 67.3 year and 69.6 years respectively in 2011-2015.crude birth rate in rural areas declined from 38.9 per 1000 in 1971 to 21.4 per thousand in 2013.in rural areas , it has declined from 30.1 per thousand to 18.0 per thousand during the same period indicating that birth rate in rural areas came down at a faster rate as compared to urban areas death rate in rural areas also come down from 16.4 per thousand to 7.7 per thousand during 1971-2010. It is highlights the government focus to improve awareness of health in people in various diseases and have effective strategies in place with active participation of private health camps provides

Keywords: Economic reforms, higher morbidity and mortality public health sector,

Introduction: Poverty is a multidimensional factor in human life. To facilitate a comparative and lysis of the different poverty profiles across the world a standard definition of poverty based on daily consumption, has been adopted this definition considers as "poor" anyone who cannot afford a daily consumption. Unfortunately during the last few years the number of poor people has steadily increased in rural as well as urban areas, resulting in the proliferation of precarious dwellings in cities this situation brings about deterioration in social and health indicators, particularly life expectancy child and infant mortality, maternal mortality, and morbidity due to MALARIA, TB, and HIV/AIDS. Statistics of the union ministry of health and family welfare indicate that life expectancy in India has gone up by five

years, from 62.3 years for males and 63.0 years for females in 2001-2005 to 67.3 years and 69.6 years respectively 2011-2015. Curd birth rate in rural areas declined from 38.9 per 1000 in 1971 to thousand during the same period indicating that birth rate in rural areas come down at a faster rate as compared to urban areas and death rate in rural areas also came down from 16.4 per thousand to 7.7 per thousand during 1971-2010.

While there is substantial evidence available to establish the strong statistical connection between longevity and income levels, such evidence also seems to suggest that this connection works particularly through two variables: public spending on health and increase in incomes among the poor. The outcome depends upon the gains



being shared equitable with profit and on life-enhancing activities such as health, nutrition and education.

Public Expenditure on Health:

Health care is critically dependent on how health care provision is financed. Countries that have universal or near universal access to health care have health financing mechanisms which are single payer systems in which either a single autonomous public agency or a few co-ordinated agencies, pool resources to finance healthcare. Several countries follow this format of healthcare mechanism. In these countries 85% of financing comes from public resources like taxes, social insurance or national insurance which insure health care to over 90 % of the population. The Union Budget for 2015-16 allocates Rs. 33,152 crore to the health sector and took the initiatives for further increase in the direction of universal healthcare in the country. India still spends only about 1.2 percent of its gross domestic product, 4.0 percent of total expenditure and 17.8 percent of total social sector expenditure on health care in the country.

Public policy frame work for affirmative action the reduction of socio-economic inequalities has been the cornerstone of development planning in India. Article 38 of the constitution provides for the state to "strive to minimise inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities".

Objectives:

1. To provide Universal access to Equitable, Affordable and Quality health care programmes.
2. To develop health centres in rural areas and also required efficient more health workers.

3. To mobilize people about the medical facilities which were available in rural areas.

4. Government should focus on awareness of health schemes in health sector.

Health Sector Reforms in India

Started in early 1990's India's reform measures are piecemeal and incremental. Gradual shift in the organization, structure and delivery of health care.

Three phases

VIII Five Year Plan: 1992 -1997

IX Five Year Plan: 1997 -2002

X Five year Plan: 2002 -2007

HSR in India – Eight Five Year Plan

(1992-97): Concept of free medical care was revoked, Levying user charges for people above poverty line for diagnostic and curative services. Ensured commitment for free / highly subsidized care for the needy / BPL population

HSR in India – Ninth Five Year Plan (1997 -2002)

- Convergence between public, private and voluntary health care providers.
- Increase involvement of voluntary, private and self-help group in the provision of health care.
- Enabling Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRI) in planning and monitoring health programmes.

National Health Policy -2015:

This national health policy addresses the urgent need to improve their performance of health Systems. It is being formulated at the last year of the millennium declaration and its goals, in the global context of all nations committed to moving towards universal health coverage. National health policy implements, the determination of the government to cover economic growth to achieve health outcomes and an explicit



acknowledgement that better health contributes immensely to improved productivity.

Aim of the National Health Policy:

The primary aim of the National Health Policy in 2015 is to inform, clarify, strengthen and prioritize the role of the government in shaping health systems in all its dimensions investment in health organization and financing of healthcare services prevention of diseases and promotion of good health, developing human resources, encouraging medical pluralism, building the knowledge base required for better health, financial protection and regulation and legislation for Health.

Roles and Responsibilities of WHO:

In addition to identifying and disseminating best practices among the countries of the region, WHO should?

- a) Provide sustained technical support for policy analysis for emulation and implementation.
- b) Mobilize partners to allocate additional resources to health-related poverty reduction interventions.
- c) Assist countries in formulating and implementing the health component of their national poverty reduction programme.

Health Budget 2015:

1. Rupees 24549 crores have been allocated in the Pradhan Mantri Swasthya Suraksha Yojana (PMSSY) Scheme envisage setting up of new AIIMS- like institutions and up gradation of existing state Government Hospitals. A provision of Rs 2206.00 crore has been earmarked for scheme during 2015-2016.
2. Accredited Social Health Activists (ASHAs) in every village basic health care has been brought closer to the vulnerable groups by giving a boost to Health Education and Promotion.

Discussion:

Health as a right for all citizens is the goal that the Ministry will strive towards. A comprehensive approach that encompasses individual health care, public health, sanitation, clean drinking water, access to food, and knowledge of hygiene, and feeding practices. To transform public health care into an accountable, accessible, and affordable system of quality services. Convergence and development of public health systems and services that are responsive to the health needs and aspirations of the people. Public provisioning of quality health care to enable access to affordable and reliable health services, especially in the context of preventing the non-poor from entering into poverty or in terms of reducing the suffering of those who are already below the poverty line. Reducing disparities in health across regions and communities by ensuring access to affordable health care. Good governance, transparency, and accountability in the delivery of health services that is ensured through involvement of Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI)s, community, and civil society groups.

Health Research:

Central Government gives maintenance grants to the Council for Research in health, nutrition, non-communicable diseases and basic research. The council is also engaged in research on tribal health, traditional medicines and publication & dissemination of information.

To encourage savings and promote health care, Finance Minister Arun Jaitley in his budget has increased the limit of deduction under section 80D of the income tax Act from Rs.15,000 to Rs.25,000 on health insurance premium. In case senior citizens, the limits of



deductions has been increased from Rs. 20,000 to Rs 30,000. This is a very positive development as it will bring more people into the fold of insurance cover.

Methods: The research paper is prepared using a research library with online access to books, journals, articles, surveys and encyclopaedias.

Hypothesis: Null Hypothesis (Ho): Health measures taken in India are enough to ensure the availability of sufficient health development in rural. Alternative Hypothesis

(H1): good health safety measures taken in India are not enough to ensure the availability of sufficient health for all and also to avoid sickness in rural people.

Methodology: The present study analysed the sustainable improvement in promoting efficiency and effective functioning of health sector based on collection of secondary data from Government of India. National Rural Health Mission Document. New Delhi: Ministry of Health and Family Welfare.

New policies development:

The Government New Policy for Rural People Health Care: The developing of human resources requires adequate provision of health services, water supply, sanitation, education, housing, nutrition, and family welfare facilities which are essential determinates of the quality of life. It shows that the governments of India's recent initiatives for a healthy rural India are delineated below:

1. **Swachh Bharat Mission :** The government of India launched the "Swachh Bharat Mission" on 2 October

2014 which aims at attaining an open defecation free (ODF) India by 2 October 2019, by providing access to toilet facilities to all rural households and initiating solid and liquid waste management **Mission** activities in all the gram panchayates to promote cleanliness.

2. **Indra Dhanush (MID)** was launched on 25 December 2014 with the aim

of covering all those children who are either unvaccinated or are partially vaccinated against seven vaccine preventable diseases which include diphtheria, whooping cough, tetanus, polio, tuberculosis, measles and hepatitis-B by 2020.

3. **Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana (RSBY)** was started 1st April 2008 to provide health insurance coverage for below poverty line (BPL) families. The scheme offers health care benefits worth Rs. 30,000 per year to the poor household that can be accessed at empanelled private and public hospitals across the country through cash less smart card.

Recent updates in National Rural Health Scheme:

1. **National Urban Health Mission (NUHM):** In 2013 the government launched The National Urban Health Mission (NUHM) Non communicable disease including Injury, trauma, and Infrastructure Maintenance and Family Welfare Central Sector component.

2. **India Newborn Action Plan (INAP):** was launched in June 2014 at the 67th world Health Assembly to advance the Global Strategy for Women's and Children's Health.

3. **Janani Shisu Suraksha Karyakaram (JSSK):** The scheme is estimated to benefit more than 12 million pregnant women who access



government health facilities for their delivery.

4. **Rashtriya Kishor Swasthya Karyakram (RKSK):** was launched on 7th January 2014. The Ministry of Health & Family Welfare has launched this programme for adolescents, in the age group of 10-19 years.

Health out Come Goals Established In the 12th Five Year Plan:

- Reduction of Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) to 25 per 1,000 live births by 2017.
- Reduction in Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) to 100 per 100,000 live births by 2017
- Reduction in total Fertility Rate (TFR) to 2.1 by 2017.

Major Achievements in the Past One Year 2010 - 2011)

- The major achievements of National Rural Health Mission (NRHM) and two components of NRHM namely Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) Programme and National Disease Control Programmes are as under:

Number of districts with Mobile Medical Units increased from 363 in 2010 to 442 in 2011 in order to provide diagnostic and outpatient care closer to hamlets and villages in remote areas. 26926 VHSNCs were constituted during 2010-11. As a result, the number of VHSNCs constituted has been increased from 4.67 lakhs in 2010 to 4.95 lakhs in 2011 (as on June 2011). Large numbers of medical and paramedical staff has been taken on contract to augment the human resources. During the year 2010-11 (July 2010-June 2011), about 1334 MBBS doctors, 2003 specialists, 14711 ANMs, 4892 staff nurses, 3079 AYUSH doctors and 1113 AYUSH paramedics were

appointed. Under National Programme for Control of Blindness, number of cataract operation

Performed have registered a significant increase from about 50.38 lakh operations in 2006-07 to 60.32 lakh cataract operations in 2010-11.

Problems of Rural Health Development:

1. Lack of medical facilities in rural areas.
2. Lack of knowledge in rural people participation in government health schemes.
3. Increasing the medical cost.
4. Lack of knowledge the medical services workers.
5. Economic conditions
6. Unhygienic Environment
7. Nutritional Deprivation.

Suggestions:

Solutions to the inequalities of the Indian health system call for restricting the delivery system and modes of financing no one should be denied care for inability to pay comprehensive review of the health system.

➤ An outright substantial increase in public health spending. Restricting the public health system to increase accountability and improve utilization by the poor. Improving public sector efficiencies and utilization through correct mix of inputs untying up gradation of facilities with reform in hospital management and financing systems. Social insurance to provide financial risk protection to the poor against serious illness and cost of hospitalization in the private sector. Government gives subsidies to protect health of rural people like arogyasri cards, and other health cards.



Conclusion:

In a major boost to the Indian health sector, the government plans to double the public health expenditure from the current level of 1- 2 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to 2.5% the Government proposes to leverage the Economic Growth to achieve health outcomes with explicit acknowledgement that -better health contributes immensely to improved productivity as well as to equity.

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Policy shifts in Agricultural Produce Procurement: Study on Decentralized Procurement Scheme

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Abstract: The economic planning and the policies towards the agricultural development have gone through many changes in last few decades. Policies adopted towards the procurement of agricultural produce by safeguarding the farmers and enhancing their source of income by adopting the new procurement policy which was initiated by the earlier NDA government to curtail the subsidy towards storing and transporting of the food grains through FCI. Initially very few states adopted this scheme and the results were very impressive under the new procurement policy where it implemented. This method provided the farmer MSP for his produce/crop. Some states those haven't participated initially also participated in this method of procurement scheme. Objective of this paper to understand the policy changes towards procurement of food grains since pre independent era, going through various sources those related to procurement. Some observations from the available secondary sources are used to understand the Decentralise procurement scheme and the shifts in procurement policies those carried out for the betterment of agriculture and towards food security

Introduction

The history of procurement policy is not new to us if we turn our pages from Indian agricultural history; it is 'Bengal famine' the most important reason to have the new frame work for the procurement of food grains and this took a new phase in India during and after the British regime. British India redoubled its efforts to control wartime food grains distribution; it established a central food department in 1942 and issued a food grains control order by instructing provinces to prohibit the export of food grains except under permit. The Food officials those in Bengal (including of Bangladesh)focused only on two objectives first; by denying the rice to advancing Japanese troops by purchasing and removing stocks from border districts and by removing boats from coastal areas. By this move it seriously impeded internal food grains movements within the province. Secondly, Statutory Rationing System popularly known as SR system, under the Bengal civil

supplies department constituted in October 1943 by which regular supply of food grains was ensured to defense personals, special priority groups, employees of large establishments, staff of local government authorities and the urban people. Under this system specialized ration shops were opened and ration cards were issued to the residents of notified areas. (Ahmed, Haggablade, Chowdhury 2000)

The public distribution system (PDS) which is the key element of government's food security system in India is an instrument for ensuring availability of certain essential commodities at easily affordable prices especially for the poor. The government through the Food Corporation of India (FCI) procures and stocks food grains which are released every month for distribution through the PDS network across the country. In addition to sugar, edible oils and kerosene, food grains, mainly rice and wheat are distributed to the public via a



network of Fair Price Shops (FPS). The system of procurement is also used by the government of India to provide Minimum Support Prices to the farmers so as to stabilize farm output and income.

The increase in the Minimum Support Price effected over the years, which were considered necessary by the government to keep up the production of food grains, led to corresponding increases in the consumer prices in the PDS, adversely affecting the economic access of the poor to the PDS food grains. Another fall out of the universal PDS has been that the states with the highest incidence of poverty like in Odisha, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh are the ones whose per capita PDS off take has been the lowest. It thus became clear that the PDS, which existed till recently did not serve the poor well, especially in the poorer states. (Tajuddin 2015)

Referring to food security, Ahmed emphasizes that even today India's agricultural outputs sometimes falls short of demand. The green revolution howsoever impressive has not succeeded in making India totally and permanently self-sufficient in food (Ahmed, 1999). Kalahandi in Orissa where famine like conditions has existed for many years and some starvation deaths were reported happens even though there is availability of food in India.(Tajuddin,2008) Further on hunger, Harsh Mander (2009) explains that hunger survives in the form of individual men, women and children and sometimes entire tribal or dalit communities. Subsisting for long periods without sufficient food, they are forced to cut back on their food intakes, sometimes reduced to eating one meal a day or beg for food or to eat tubers, grasses and mango kernels to fill their

stomachs without nutrition, or sometimes just to drink a starch water, which their neighbors give them in tight-fisted charity.

Pre Independent period

During the war period, the mode of procurement was widely differed in different parts of the country as there was no single and uniform procurement scheme which could give command as a whole over the supplies. On the other hand, procurement schemes in different provinces were geared in the light those of local conditions. In the southern provinces, monopoly procurement proved to be successful in Madras, Cochin, Mysore and Travancore. In some other provinces like Bombay, Orissa and Bengal the procurement system approximated monopoly purchase models because all sales of food grains by the producers had to be made to the government agents or sub agents. But where as in other provinces where there was no monopoly procurement, except barring the two surplus provinces of Punjab and Sind, the food situation was not satisfactory. This made the government to realize that monopoly procurement has to be adopted by all the provinces in India. (Mishra, 1985)

Compulsory requisitioning this type of requisition was largely regulated in southern provinces and this system did not brought any success because of the ill-equipped administrative machinery.

Partial requisitioning, under this system, a part of the marketable surplus either from the entire provincial area or from the selected pockets of it was requisitioned, this system too met with failure. **Occasional requisitioning**, this system of requisitioning was resorted to against the farmer who refused to part with the surplus to the monopoly procurement machinery of the



provincial government. This created a fear among the small farmers those with very little or no surplus after meeting their normal need.

In the post-war period major encouragement was given towards production of food grains. So that there can be a marketable surplus by which the supply situation would improve but this did not happened. This led to another change in official food policy from increased production and procurement to increased imports of food grains. The Food grains Enquiry Committee observed: *imports have certain advantage over procurement. All the imported grain comes into the hands of the authorities and the entire amount is available for distribution. On the other hand, procurement can only be a function of production.*⁶(Mishra, 1985)

Post Independent Period

It is observed that in post-independence period there was no much pressure from the producers for the procurement of food grains as there was a availability of food grains thorough imports under PL-480. These imports were of time being and there was a dire need for adopting new methods towards procurement of food grains so that country can have an adequate stock to meet its need.

Methods for procurement

Open Market Purchase: This is the simplest and easiest method of procurement. The government enters into the market either directly or through agents appointed by it as buyers in competition with the traders and makes procurement at the going market price. This method of procurement is

suitable to implement the price support when the market prices of food grains.

Pre-emption Method: This method involves the procurement of food grains at the ongoing market price without the government entering into the competitive bidding. Under this method the price is determined through the normal market process and the government reserves the right of pre-emption to lift any stock at the prevailing price. This method is not applicable in case of rice where the procurement is made from the producers as well as from the millers.

Monopoly procurement: In this method the government is the sole agent for the buying, which involves a complete socialisation of interstate trade along with imposition of restrictions on movement of food grains. This type of procurement implies that each farmer is to be assessed for his production, consumption and outlay in kind for farming and finally for the surplus which he would sell to the government at the fixed price.

Levy System: This is one of the most efficient and important method of procurement under the state government which imposes levy on producers, millers and traders. By this method there is enforcing of levy which is very important for the public distribution system and to increase procurement. (Mishra, 1985)

Policy intervention towards procurement of food grains

Though adopting various methods of procurements towards procuring the food grains from the producers there was timely interventions by the policy makers toward better procurement of food grains after independence.

⁶ Referring to Report of Food grains Enquiry Committee, 1957 p.93



Government intervention in food grain marketing began in a big way since mid-1960s. This was to create a favorable incentive environment for the adoption of new technology based on high yielding varieties of wheat and rice, which were seen to possess vast potential for raising grain production. Adoption of the new technologies provided a ray of hope to tackle the problems of food shortage and hunger.

It was the Jha committee (1964-65) recommendations that there should be need to control the food grain prices and distribution to coordinate food policy at national level, zonal level and interstate movement restrictions by regulating and licensing of wholesale trade and strengthening of administrative machinery in the states. This recommendation was response towards the changing prices and supply situation in the country. To make the price structure of the crops the Agricultural prices commission was set up in 1965. It started with wheat and rice, later coarse grains and then other commodities, such as sugarcane, cotton and oilseeds were included. The prices of food grains are annually reviewed by the government of India. Since its inception the commission has been helping the government in evolution of stable and positive price policy for agricultural commodities. In 1980 it was renamed as Commission for Agricultural Costs and Prices (CACP) To make purchases of food grains by the government, the Food Corporation of India (FCI) was established in 1965 these bold steps were taken by the then Minister for Food and Agriculture, C.Subramanian. (MS Randhawa, 1986) Public sector organizations, cooperatives and other formal and informal bodies were created for the marketing system of agricultural commodities.

The 70s and 80s period was one of the golden periods in the agriculture sector as most of the institutions were established to cater the needs for the development of the sector. Prior to initiating economic liberalization policies in 1991, the central and state governments in India intervened at almost every state of marketing of major agricultural commodities. Minimum support prices were announced for 21 commodities and every activity of marketing such as transportation, storage, credit supply, and international trading of all these as well as other commodities were regulated. The process of withdrawal of government intervention though initiated along with the liberalization of the economy, accelerated with the implementation of the Agreement on Agriculture under the World Trade Organization (WTO). As a result prices of agricultural commodities are determined increasingly by market forces and therefore fluctuating demand and supply of agricultural commodities which resulted in high price risk for agribusiness. To help manage price risks, the central government has been encouraging revival of futures trading. (Patnaik, 2002)

This period from initial years of economic reforms till end year of the century there has been many changes towards welfare policies. The universal PDS was transformed into Targeted PDS by excluding the beneficiaries and also identifying the new on basis of poverty which still unable to explained. To overcome the subsidy towards the procurement and storage charges the government initiated a new procurement policy which is Decentralized procurement scheme (DPS)

Decentralized procurement scheme (DPS)



Change in procurement policy for the better market price to the farmers was initiated by the then NDA government in 1997-98, allowed the state governments to hire the agencies for procurement of food grains for which the expenses are shared. This authorizes the state governments to take decision to procure paddy from the farmers on Minimum Support Price (MSP) by the procurement agencies and directed the FCI to hire or procure paddy from farmers. Though this policy was objected by its own coalition partners (Telugu Desam Party & Akali Dal) and the opposition, but few states followed it.

Some observations from reports

Even after the decade of the implementation of the scheme the performance of procurement of food grains by States under the Decentralised Procurement Scheme was poor, as reported in the 2006 Report No. 16 on Performance Audit of Management of Food grains. Orissa the procurement of rice by the State Government under DCP was 0.68 lakh MT (4.5 percent) and 1.49 MT (7.4 percent) against the total procurement target of 15.00 lakh MT for 2003-04 and 20.00 lakh MT for 2004-05 respectively for the State. Despite the low procurement, 86460MT (40 per cent of total procurement) was supplied to FCI, instead of retaining this quantity for distribution within the State.

In the Andaman & Nicobar Islands, the procurement of rice during 2003-04 under DCP was only 247.65 MT of rice against the target of 12000 MT. Tamil Nadu and West Bengal continued to depend on FCI for distribution of rice under PDS as procurement of paddy in these States was up to 50 percent of requirement for PDS, during the period 2002-05. Low procurement of rice/paddy

in Tamil Nadu was attributed to drought during 2002-04.

In Chhattisgarh under the DPS procurement was much in excess of the capacity for custom milling of paddy, due to the absence of a project plan for procurement, storage and custom milling. Thus, the milling of paddy was delayed from 21 to 30 months, which resulted in excess overhead expenditure by the State Government, mainly on account of interest and loss due to rotting. The Central Government will reimburse the expenditure incurred by the State Government on procurement, storage and distribution of DCP stocks on the laid down principles. The expenses such as MSP, arhatiya/society commission, administrative charges, mandi labour charges, transportation charges, custody & maintenance charges, interest charges, gunny cost, milling charges and statutory taxes are reimbursed on actual basis. The cost of excess stocks handed over to FCI is reimbursed by FCI to the State Government/agencies as per Government of India norms. If we look at the table 2, where it indicates that the procurement is doing well after the adoption DPS as the target has been increasing constantly which shows that there is productivity and it this has been neglected due to various factors and under this scheme the states those unable to reach the targets earlier have done well in procurement under this new scheme. Though agriculture is in peril due to various reasons those making it not a profitable or suitable livelihood source but it is possible if the policies those adopted are implemented well at local level. This decentralize procurement scheme where states were unwilling to adopt it saw this model of procurement is beneficial to increase its own stock



rather than depending on the central pool for their food supplies. This scheme has made the states which were unable to procure and depends mostly on central pool now emerged as one of the important states in procurement process, which earlier the dependence was only on few states and it became the tradition to make procurement from these traditional states(Uttar Pradesh,

Punjab Haryana and Andhra Pradesh) but now the states like Chhattisgarh, Odisha those considered to be poor states are reaching their targets of procurement by adopting new policies towards procurement of food crops from farmers through several agencies.

Table 1. States/UT those Adopted the DPS

S.No	States /UT	DPS For Crop	Adopted from Years
1	A &N Islands	Rice	2003-04
2	Andhra Pradesh	Rice	2012-13
3	Bihar	Rice/Wheat	2013-14 (R)&2014-15(W)
4	Chhattisgarh	Rice/Wheat	2001-02 for both crops
5	Gujarat	wheat	2004-05
6	Karnataka	Rice	2002-03
7	Kerala	Rice	2004-05
8	Madhya Pradesh	Rice/wheat	1999-2000 (W)&2007-08(R)
9	Odisha	Rice	2003-04
10	Tamil Nadu	Rice	2002-03
11	Uttarakhand	Rice/Wheat	2002-03
12	West Bengal	Rice/Wheat	1997-98 (R) &2010-11(W)
13	Punjab	Rice/Wheat	To the extent as per requirement of 8.69 LMT for wheat
14	Rajasthan	wheat	2013-14 only in 9 districts
15	Telangana	Rice	2013-14
16	Maharashtra	Rice	2016-17
17	Jharkhand	Rice	2016-17 only in one district

Source:<http://dfpd.nic.in/decentralized-procurement.htm> &<http://fci.gov.in/procurements.php?view=86>

From the Table.1 it is evident that more number of states where these crops (rice and wheat) are majorly cultivated is adopting the scheme as they found it to be beneficial.

Table 2. Procurement of Rice and Wheat for Central Pool over the years from

2001-02 to 2014-15 (In Lakh Ton)

Conclusion

Successive governments in India have adopted different policies with regard to the improvement of agriculture and to ensure food security of people in the country. Having understood the



vulnerability of the Indian agriculture conditions in pre and post- independence period, which forced the country to seek foreign aid, it became necessary on part of the government to formulate different policies to improve and develop the existing the pattern of agriculture. Studies related to food security were looked into by taking various issues but not much through the lens of procurement as there is less work done on the procurement issue. This area demands scholar's attention towards

Table 2:Years	Wheat	Rice
2001-02	206.3	221.28
2002-03	190.26	164.22
2003-04	158.01	228.81
2004-05	167.96	246.85
2005-06	147.85	276.56
2006-07	92.26	251.06
2007-08	111.28	287.36
2008-09	226.89	341.04
2009-10	253.82	320.34
2010-11	225.14	341.98
2011-12	283.35	350.41
2012-13	381.48	340.44
2013-14	250.92	318.45
2014-15	280.23	320.4

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more micro level district research on food production, procurement, distribution and politics. The policy of decentralize procurement laid an impact in the procurement business where as the other side the it is unable to solve the problem of peasant society who still want to come out of agriculture. If we want our agriculture to flourish than its markets to be protected and so that all the stake holders (Farmers, Millers and Procurement agencies) should be benefited.

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Socialist Mask Unmasked

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Abstract: The New Economic Policy was meant to transform the mixed economy into a single sector economy by divesting public sector. The public sector was successful in establishing basic industries and an infrastructure to match. But the purpose of the public sector was to assist the private sector to become economically viable to stand on its own. Therefore, the public sector was assigned the production of basic, but intermediate products like steel, basic chemicals, thermo and hydro power. These goods were supplied to private sector at highly subsidised prices to make them into finished goods. As a result, the public sector made losses and private sector profits moreover, public sector banks advanced long term loans to private sector at low interest and often written off as unrecoverable to the benefit private sector. Thus the public sector helped the private sector to grow and stand on its own. The New Economic Policy was meant to complete the privatization of Indian economy by divesting the public sector. Today free enterprise and free trade rules the roost, with demand and supply determining market price. Therefore, the poor lost their safety net, with the result that 40.0 percent of Indians of 500 million, live below the poverty line (BPL). Thus the endowed society's pattern of society turned into a capitalist pattern of society. The New Economic Policy was an inevitable result of the privatization of the economy, one need not lament it. For, socialist is a post-capitalist society.

Introduction

Twenty five years are long enough to assess the New Economic Policy (NEP). The NEP was introduced in 1991 without funeral rites to Nehru vain policy of socialist pattern of society, to the delight of the Indian bourgeoisie an euphony to free enterprises.

What was the economic and political background to the NEP? At the dawn of freedom India was in shambles because of two hundred years of colonial loot. Therefore the need of the hour was to expedite economic development in order to raise the living standards of the masses. To shorten the take-off period, India opted for a planned mixed economy wherein the public sector was to play the leading role and the private sector to supplement it. Over the years the public sector had built up basic industries and

an infrastructure to match; including higher education, specially of science and technology. This strategy was successful, for within a short span of four decades (1950-90) India became a fast developing country. All this was achieved mainly with internal resources and indigenous technology. What is more, today India stands sixth in space exploration, after the USA, Russia, UK, France and China.

Then, why NEP? For an answer we have to go back to the early years of independence. The first five year plans (1951-55) was a plan of readjiment of economy an account of the partition of the country, and clear the ground for a faster economic development. The annual session of Indian National Congress (INC), the ruling party, in December 1955 at Avadi (near Madras) resolved: "Planning should take place



with the view to establishment of a socialist pattern of society, where the principal means of production are under social ownership or control, production is progressively speeded up and there is equitable distribution of the national wealth". Further, in order to achieve this objective, "the public sector must play a progressively greater role, more particularly in the establishment of basic industries" (AICC (INC), resolutions on political and economic policies, 1955-62, New Delhi, 1964 page 12).

The second five year plan (1956-60) was a plan of industrialisation, with top priority to basic industries within the fold of public sector, and the subsequent plans modelled on it. The Indian bourgeoisie welcomed the second plan. Its Doyen G.D. Birla wrote; "Those circles who believe that the public sector is breaching on the toes of the private sectors are taking short sighted view. The position is that the public sector even now helping to give a tremendous push to private sector. A number of ancillary industries have already been set up in the private sector to supply consumables to the public sector. Then the public sector steel mills go into full production, many more small industries will come into existence in the private sector to fabricate steel goods. This equally applies to several public sector undertakings. The public sector is thus going to act as a generator private sector" (Capital Calcutta, April issue, 1995) Birla was farsighted because what he expected of public sector really happened.

In fact, the public sector was set up to assist the private sector to expand to domain when freedom came the private sector had no necessary

wherewithal to interest to establish basic industries. Therefore the state took upon itself the burden of it. The public sector produced intermediate products like steel, basic chemicals, thermal and hydro power and supplied them at highly subsidised prices. So, the public sector made losses while the private sector profits. This was the reason why G.D.Brila welcomed public sector. What per Birla did not anticipate were long term loans at low interest doled out to private sector from public sector banks but which were often written off as non-recoverable. Recently in December 2016, the Govt of India written off loans worth off Rs. 4 billions. The written off loans would be recovered from the public by raising existing taxes or by imposing new taxes. By 1990 the public sector was sucked to a skeleton. The NEP only did the funeral rites by selling of the state's stock to the private sector.

Table – 1: Sale of public sectors shares (in Rs.crores)

Year	Target	Actual
2010-11	40,000	26,144
2011-12	40,000	18,594
2012-13	30,000	23,956
2013-14	54,000	36,925
2014-15	58,000	40,236
2015-16	69,000	30,875
2016-17 (till now)	36,000	23,538
Total	3,29,000	2,02,258

Source: Govt of India, Budgets from 2010-11 to 2015-16.

Why dwestment fell of the targets? Because, some of the public sector units are loss- making and some others are old enough to be sold as scrap.

What was more, both domestic and foreign capital especially the



multinationals were permitted to enter such spheres as banking, insurance, transport and communications, hither to the monopoly of the public sector. Before the multinationals, the East India Company was a street corner retail shop. A second freedom movement seems to be necessary.

The Indian national movement for freedom was a bourgeois movement because the native bourgeoisie was also oppressed by the colonial rule. Therefore, they supported it financially and organisationally. This has said by no other than Nehru in his Autobiography (1936): "The Indian National Movement for freedom, like any other national movements are bourgeois movements, and to call it a workers movement is wrong" (page 283). But when he became Prime Minister he naively believed that socialism was possible under the bourgeois rule. Marx thought that Socialism would be a post-capitalist society¹. Nehru read Marx and in his book glimpses World History said that Marx had opened his eyes to see the real world. But ! he closed his eyes when in power. All visionaries come to naught when this vision is not based on economic and political conditions. In this context, it is worth to recall Marx's warning to utopians "No social order perishes and new relations of production come into being until there is room in the old for the growth of productive forces"(preface to a contribution to the Critique of political Economy (1859) page 20).

In India of 1955 the economic and political conditions had not yet matured for socialism. There was still enough room for the growth of productive forces under capitalist. The NEP was meant to complete the process

of privatisation, and to raise India's position to the level comparable to that of highly developed capitalist countries. This is the beckoning of history.

1. Note In the preface to a contribution to the critique of political Economy (1859) Marx wrote: "In broad outlines Asiatic, Ancient, Feudal and Modern bourgeois modes of production may be designated as so many epochs in the progress of the economic development of society" (page20). In other words, each of the successive modes of production were more progressive than the preceding one. The fact that the economic development of society passed through several modes of production means that no mode of production is external so is capitalism and socialism can be still more progressive than the one preceding it. This is the dialectical process of development a new mode of production negating the old.

2. History has proved that a middle order mode of production, say, feudalism, cannot skip over capitalism and directly pass to Socialism. For example, the experiment of Soviet Russia to directly pass to Socialism came to naught, for, when the October Revolution occurred (1917) Russia was a semi-feudal country, with a sprinkle of modern industry in the midst of primitive agriculture (see Maurice Dobb, Soviet Economic Development since 1917, ch-1) China may face the fate of Russia, for, how it can build Socialism with billionaires (China ranks next to the USA in the list of billionaires).

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