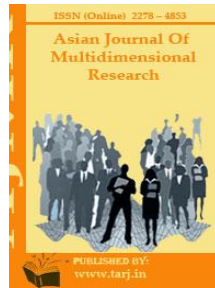
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FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS TAX

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ABSTRACT

A Financial Transaction Tax is a levy placed on a specific type of monetary transaction for a particular purpose. The concept has been most commonly associated with the financial sector, it is not usually considered to include consumption taxes paid by consumers.

A transaction tax is not a levy on financial institutions. It is charged only on the specific transactions that are designated as taxable. So if an institution never carries out the taxable transaction, then it will never be subject to the transaction tax. This tax is neither a financial activities tax, nor a "bank tax", for example. This clarification is important in discussions about using a financial transaction tax as a tool to selectively discourage excessive speculation without discouraging any other activity (as John Maynard Keynes originally envisioned it in 1936).

Transaction taxes can be raised on the sale of specific financial assets, such as stock, bonds or futures; they can be applied to currency exchange transactions; or they can be general taxes levied against a mix of different transactions. Like Securities transaction tax, Currency transaction tax, Bank transaction tax, automated payment transaction tax. The financial transaction taxes implemented around 40 countries that in operation i.e. Belgium, Colombia, Finland, France, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, Peru, Poland, Singapore, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, United Kingdom, United States and others.

The aim of the FTT was to raise revenue to ensure the financial sector pays a 'fair share' of the cost of the crisis and to reduce the speculative trading that allows the financial sector too much power over the productive economy. The Transaction tax reduces price instability. Such a tax would have the beneficial effects of curbing instability introduced by speculation, reducing the diversion of resources into the financial sector of the economy, and lengthening the horizons of

corporate managers. Transaction Tax should be different for delivery and non-delivery based purchase of shares and bonds, instead of the flat rate of all securities, "The proposed Transaction Tax will have a negative impact on traders. There should be a differential rate for delivery and non-delivery-based transactions, otherwise transaction tax to pull down the markets.

KEYWORDS: *Activities tax, Bank Tax, Speculation, Financial Assets, Curbing, Diversion.*

INTRODUCTION

Every transaction has tax implications. Prepare yourself to reduce the risks - and potentially enhance the opportunities.

"Financial instruments" include bonds, derivatives, shares, securities and units or shares in collective investment undertakings. "Financial institutions" include banks, collective investment schemes and pension funds. The definition, however, also includes persons (i.e. non-financial entities) carrying out certain financial activities (such as deposit taking, lending or financial leasing) where the average annual value of their financial transactions constitutes more than 50% of their overall average net annual turnover. It is this wider limb of the definition that could bring non financial institutions such as treasury companies into the scope of FTT.

HOW WILL FTT WORK?

Transactions will be taxed at 0.1% for shares and bonds, units of collective investment funds, money market instruments, repurchase agreements and securities lending agreements, and 0.01% for derivatives. These are proposed minimum rates and participating member states would be free to apply higher rates if they wanted.

The tax would have to be paid by each financial institution involved in the transaction. It will become chargeable for each financial transaction at the moment it occurs.

WHEN IS IT LIKELY TO COME INTO EFFECT?

It is proposed that FTT should apply from 1 January 2014 although the participating member states must agree unanimously before FTT can be implemented. The implementation time table suggests that the participating member states need to adopt and publish the provisions of the FTT by 30 September 2013.

EXAMPLES OF FINANCIAL TRANSACTIONS TAXES IN PRACTICE

- Selected examples of countries currently using some form of a Financial Transactions Tax

	Equity Transacti	Derivati ves	Corpor ate	Governm ent bonds	Currency Transacti	Consume r Account Transacti	Consume r Credit Transacti

	ons		bonds		ons	ons	ons
Argentina	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
Belgium	✓		✓	✓	✓ (1)		
Brazil	✓		✓	✓	✓ (4)		
Chile						✓ (2)	✓ (2)
China	✓						
France	✓				✓ (1)		
Hong Kong	✓						
India	✓				✓ (3)		
South Korea	✓		✓				
United Kingdom	✓						
United States	✓						

- 1) Established in legislation although only comes into effect if all EU countries introduce a currency transactions tax.
- 2) Rate temporarily reduced to 0% for 2009.
- 3) Recently removed tax on cash withdrawals.
- 4) CPMF was not renewed in 2007

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

1. Strengthen the Single Market by reducing the number of different national approaches to financial transaction taxation.

2. Ensure that the financial sector makes a fair and considerable contribution to public revenues.
3. Support regulatory measures in encouraging the financial sector to engage in more responsible activities, geared towards the real economy.
4. Harmonizing legislation concerning indirect taxation on financial institutions.
5. To create appropriate disincentives for transactions that does not enhance the efficiency of financial markets, there by complementing regulatory measures to avoid future crises.

METHODOLOGY

Information has been sourced from books, articles, various websites. This research paper is based on secondary data for finalization of views and opinions.

FINDINGS

1. A tax on financial transactions could effectively increase the cost of capital to business firms.
2. The increase in costs could reduce investment and subsequently GDP growth rate.
3. Revenue yield is the key driver behind all taxes.
4. It helps in reducing price instability.
5. Tax transaction intends to systematic regulation of nation.
6. Transaction tax reduces business profits and increase cost.
7. Transaction tax will provide large amount spending money which will add fire toinflexion.
8. Indian economy will be at its knees.
9. It will create a massive black money/underground economy using hawala/ gold/ cryptocurrency.

SUGGESTIONS

1. Tax base should be made on both national as well as international basis.
2. Tax Transaction must be Introduced to track unaccounted money which in turn helps to trace its source and destination
3. The countries should use bank/transaction taxes for expediency which would replace them with more efficient and progressive taxes.
4. It is concluded that more frequently traded shares are stronger affected than low-turnover shares. Therefore the tax revenue capitalizes at least to some extent in lower current share prices.
5. The presence of even very small transaction costs makes continuous rebalancing infinitely expensive. Therefore, valuable information can be held back from being incorporated into prices.
6. The financial transaction tax is not an instrument that is capable of distinguishing between "desirable" short-term trading strategies and the less significant share of "undesirable" ones.

CONCLUSION

- It will fail to raise the revenues needed for the Government to function
- Its incidence will fall on the poorer and lower sections the economy (the rich will pay much less than they do today)
- It will reduce savings in the economy
- It will reduce investment and harm business
- It will increase prices
- It will create a massive black money/underground economy using hawala/ gold/ cryptocurrency
- It will harm India's banking system by preventing it from providing a range of innovative products
- It will bring Indian economy to its knees

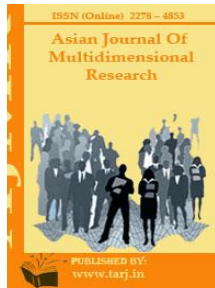
There has been NO NATION IN THE WORLD which has relied solely on a bank credit tax – and for very good reason. The countries which did use bank/transaction taxes for expediency have mostly abandoned/replaced them with more efficient and progressive taxes.

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PROTECTING THE SURVIVAL OF GIRL CHILD THROUGH CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFERS: A CRITIQUE

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ABSTRACT

Declining Child sex ratio in India has been a concern for the past several decades. The most plausible explanation for the gap in the number of girls in the 2011 census is prenatal sex determination with subsequent selective abortion of female fetuses. Sex-selection and infanticide are considered to significantly distort the naturally occurring ratio in India. Haryana, one of the richest states of India displayed the lowest Child Sex Ratio of 830 girls per 1000 boys as per the census 2011. It was the first state in the North India to start a unique incentive based scheme 'Apni Beti Apna Dhan (My daughter, My wealth)' in the year 1994 followed by 'Ladli (beloved daughter)' in 2005 to prevent decline in the sex ratio and valuing daughters. This paper presents findings of a research carried out to know whether such a scheme would yield desired results or not. The beneficiaries' perspectives about the 'Ladli' scheme and the problems faced by them in accessing the benefits were enquired about. The exploratory research study indicated that the cash grant provided under the scheme was perceived as a financial assistance from the government in marrying off daughters, since it is increasingly becoming an exorbitant affair. However, valuing a girl child and her education and upbringing were still not the concerns of the parents.

KEYWORDS: Girl Child, Sex Ratio, Scheme.

INTRODUCTION

At the International Conference on Population and Development held in 1994 (UNFPA, 1994) Gender issues were the focus of deliberations and it resulted in recommending sex composition of a nation as the most important indicator for any meaningful demographic analysis to assess equity between the males and to measure its Human Development Index. According to the Census 2011 data, India has the second lowest sex ratio (940) among the ten most populous countries of the world with China at the top with 926 girls per 1000 boys followed by Pakistan (943) and Bangladesh (978) clearly indicating a strong existence of son preference. India has the dubious distinction of having the largest number of 'missing women' in the world along with China (approximately 80 million). Sen (1990) estimated that there are 100 million 'missing women' in the world which indicates the magnitude of female survival disadvantage due to unequal treatment.

FEMALE INFANTICIDE AND SEX SELECTIVE ABORTIONS

The deficit of women in India can be traced historically. The practice of female infanticide and low female ratio was documented back in 1789 in the reports of British officials. In present times, we find rampant misuse of medical technologies like Ultra-sonograph designed for detection of congenital abnormalities of the foetus, are being misused for knowing the sex of the foetus with the intention of aborting it if it happens to be that of a female. This attitude is rooted in a complex set of social, cultural, and economic factors. The practice of dowry, lack of economic independence, social customs and traditions have relegated female child to a secondary status. The degree of discrimination may vary but the neglect of the girl child seems to be a universal phenomenon especially in the North Western region of the country.

As mentioned earlier, the practice of Female Infanticide has existed in India and was reported in 1789 in several districts of Punjab, Rajasthan; along the western shores in Gujarat – Surat and Kutch; and among a clan of Rajputs in eastern part of Uttar Pradesh. A detailed account of this practice was elucidated by Panigrahi (1963) in her book titled "British Social Policy and the Female Infanticide". She highlighted the fact that it did not arise out of any superstition or religious motive, it arose out of social institutions and customs. The roots of the evil lay deep in the institution of caste and dowry. Premi and Raju (1996) investigated Bhind district in Madhya Pradesh along with Barmer and Jaisalmer districts in Rajasthan and found that this practice of female infanticide was community specific. Villages that were inhabited entirely or predominantly by Gujars, Yadavs (Ahir) and the Rajputs had the lowest sex ratio. In multi-caste villages the chances of female infanticide reduced very substantially. In contemporary context, in the year 1995, Bumiller made a journey to see the prevalence of female infanticide among the poor of Tamil Nadu and sex selective abortion among the rich of Bombay. She met couples in Salem district of Tamil Nadu who confessed of having killed their daughters. Those were poor farm labourers, with many hardships in life and the expense of marrying their daughters was astronomical. Mothers justified their acts by saying "it was the right thing, why should a child suffer like them". The practice was not only uncommon, but also not the custom of majority. Most of the people considered it wrong.

However, among the economically better people living in cities and towns the same compulsions seem to have found solution in the medical technologies. Census figures suggest a connection between affluence and modern urbanized contexts with more pronounced decline in CSRs. George (1998) in his research on sex selective abortions in Rural Haryana attempted to

determine whether sex determination tests were being performed in Rohtak district and, if so, tried to measure their impact on the sex ratio. He found that within each family, the current rate of pregnancy was five to six times higher for mothers who had no sons than for mothers who had several sons. Also, the Sex Ratios at Birth (SRB) for all birth orders of recently born children were masculine dominated, including for the first child order. These findings are similar to what the popular demographer Bose found in his study in the year 1999, he reported that the declining trend of sex ratio in India and specifically in Haryana's Rohtak district of 866 females per 1,000 males is to a large extent due to female foeticide. Also very often abortions are conducted well beyond the 'safe period' of 12 weeks endangering women's health significantly. These reports and analysis indicate the formidable son preference in the North Indian state of Haryana. Anand, S. (1999) carried out a research on the Attitudes of People from the four North Western states Rajasthan, Haryana, Delhi and Punjab towards Female Foeticide and Female Infanticide. The study depicted that the preference for a male child over a female child was found to be universal. Religion, customs and traditions were playing important roles in this scenario. Girls, though eligible were not considered eligible to inherit parental property by the respondents. The other major reason articulated was that since daughters are unable to pursue family's agriculture based work therefore a son is a must. Demand for dowry was also expressed to be a contributory factor towards positive bias towards male children by the women respondents. Another study by Visaria(2002) indicated that the preference for male children was higher among better-educated people belonging to higher castes and land owning families. She also observed that the deficit of girls increases as the birth order increases. It was also seen that the sex ratio of last born children exhibits a greater deficit of girls than the sex ratios of all other births. Thus, there seems to be a consensus among social scientists and demographers that the patriarchal mindsets have led to this skewed sex ratio. Agnihotri, B. (2003) in his paper also reiterated that the sharp decline in the urban female to male ratio among children cannot be explained by migration, undercounts or biologically ordained high sex ratios at birth. The decline clearly points out one factor i.e. sex selective abortions. He further pointed out that sex ratios are becoming increasingly masculine in prosperous groups in rural and urban areas. Nanda (2004) examined the National Population Policy and the two child policy of certain state governments in the light of easily affordable and accessible procedures for sex determination, he identified the factors responsible for the practice of sex selective abortions in the country as the obsession with having a son, the socio economic and physical insecurity of women, the practice of dowry and the stigma attached to unmarried daughters.

Haryana started off the 20th century with a sex ratio of 967. It entered the 21st century with an even lower sex ratio of 861. Though there have been gender bias and deep-rooted prejudice against the girl children and women down the centuries, the latest advances in modern medical science and technology have only helped in reviving with vengeance the evil practice of killing a girl child and have quickened the pace and death of a girl child from the born to the unborn stage. It is alarming because unlike, infanticide, female foeticide is not a community specific practice; it seems to be an omnipresent phenomenon across region, class and caste. The brutal treatments of mothers and newborn girls have been reported in cases where a daughter is born instead of the desired son. The mother and newly born baby are treated badly because they are viewed as a burden and often receive no medical care. Despite the progress made due to government-run programmes, the girl child continues to lack adequate nutrition, healthcare, education and care. The child mortality data indicates that a larger number of female children do

not reach the age of five which illustrates the insignificance accorded to these young female lives.

This alarming backdrop has made life not only tough for girls and women; it has its ramifications on the safety of women in public spaces too. Since 1987, when the sex determination tests were first banned in Maharashtra, feminists have been trying to draw attention of the policy makers that the law of demand and supply will not apply to increasing the worth of females due to reduced numbers rather it will increase the violence against women in the society. Today we all are witness to this reality of increased violence and abuse of young women. The significant over representation of males in some populations resulting from an excess number of male births inevitably impacts relationship between women and men. There is lack of women available for marriage in some areas which leads to women from other regions being trafficked to be forcibly married and of brides being shared among brothers. These women are often unable to speak the local language, are deprived of their family environment and are under intense pressure to produce male children. Reports are already trickling in about how unemployed young men in Haryana find it difficult to get married. Consequently, there are various socio-economic and health implications of declining sex ratio as they are forced to go for repeated pregnancies and abortions.

Passing of PNDT Act and its subsequent revision to PCPNDT Act in the year 2001 were the results of sustained advocacy by the civil society groups and researchers against the misuse of medical technology in connivance with medical professionals to get rid of female children. There have been several efforts by the Centre and some state governments to generate awareness about the consequences of skewed sex ratio. International agencies have also tried to intervene and have supported government efforts to deal with this reality of swiftly declining sex ratio. India is a signatory to a number of International Instruments such as UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, with its two Optional Protocols, and Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), thereby affirming its commitment to the growth and development of women and children. It also accepted the Beijing Platform for Action for the advancement of women and girls adopted by the World Conference on Women in 1995. The period 1991–2000 was observed as the SAARC ‘Decade of Girl Child’. The commitment at the International and the National levels have translated into a specific focus on development of girl child and adolescent girls especially on their, survival, health and protection.

LADLI - INCENTIVE BASED SCHEME FOR THE GIRL CHILD IN HARYANA

Census 1991 findings brought out that the child sex ratio of Haryana had plunged to 879 which led to debates and discussions on Human Rights violations against girl children in Haryana. In response, the State Government launched a scheme for improving the status of girl child called ‘Apni Beti Apna Dhan’(ABAD) in 1994. Haryana was the first state in North India to start incentives based schemes for the girl children. Under the scheme, cash incentives were given to the girl child’s family. After a decade, the Census 2001 reported a further decline in the child sex ratio of 59 points i.e. the CSR came down to 820. Therefore once again the state machinery went into tizzy and examined ABAD scheme. In 2004-05, it was discontinued and a new scheme ‘LADLI’ was launched with the aim of restoring the sex ratio through greater cash incentives for the girl child.

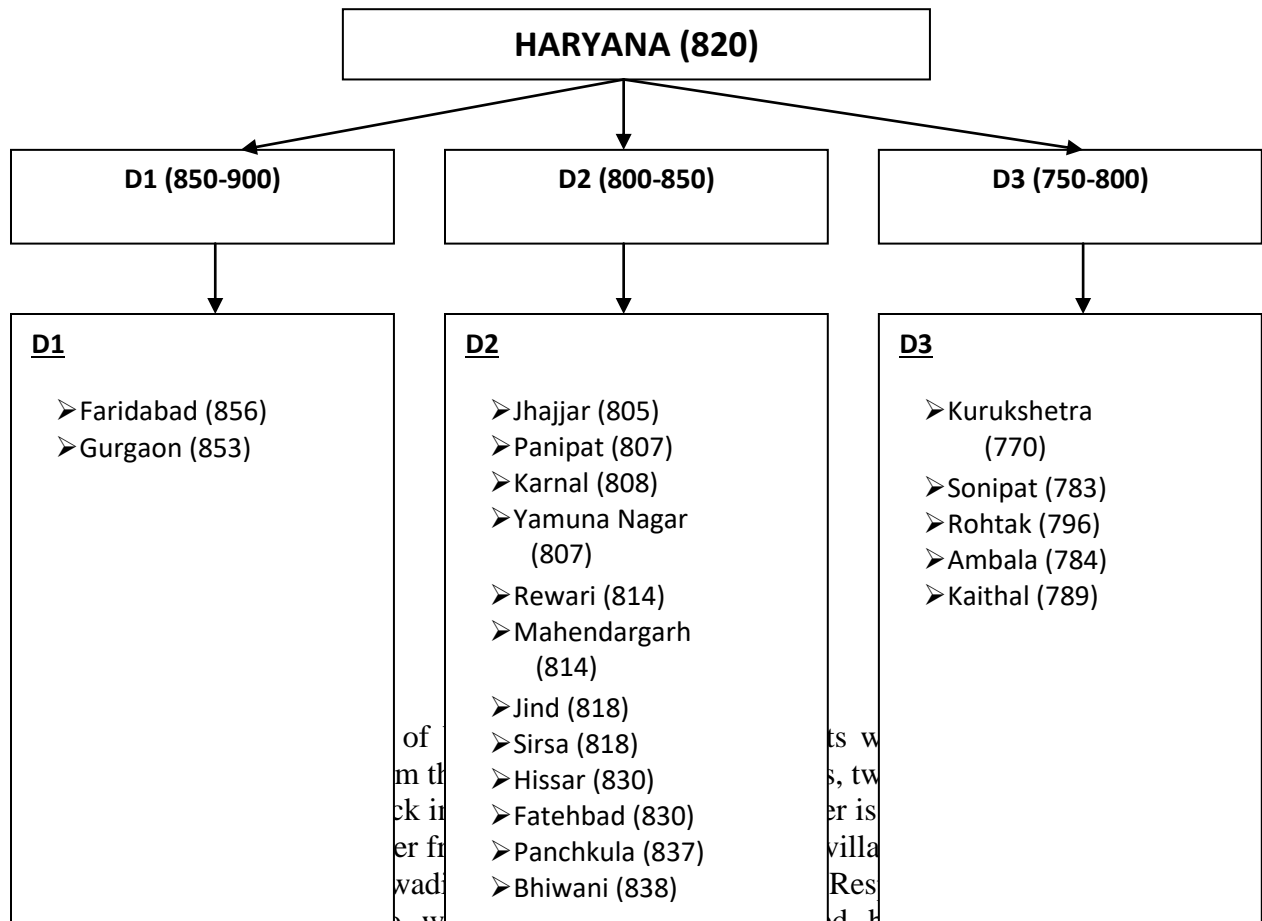
Ladli scheme of Haryana state was the first conditional cash transfer scheme tied to two conditions of ensuring that a girl child can avail this scheme but she should complete class X and

remain unmarried till the age of 18 years. The provisions of some of the national schemes, that is, those relating to maternity benefits like Janani Suraksha Yojana (Maternity Benefit Scheme), 2005, LADLI Delhi (2008) and Dhanalaxmi (Goddess of Wealth), 2008 for securing survival and education of the girl child resemble the provisions in the CCT schemes currently in vogue globally. The main difference is that the orientation in the Indian schemes is more towards the individual rather than the household which is the focus in CCT schemes generally (UNDP, 2009). The LADLI scheme of Haryana mentions combating female foeticide as its central objective. Under this scheme an amount of Rs 5000 is invested annually in the name of the girl child for the first five years. Every year certificates are provided to the parents as a proof of the money deposited and thus promoting the survival of the girls during the first five most critical years. Census 2011 findings confirmed continuous decline in female to male ratio in 0-6 years age group, revealing growing imbalance in more states. Fifteen years after the initiation of such schemes – assessing the effectiveness of this initial effort of the state government of Haryana was thought to be important and was the basic research question. The study also aimed at determining the knowledge of the beneficiaries about operational dimensions of the scheme and its usefulness in order to estimate its popularity. It also made an attempt to identify the reasons for denial of benefits to the eligible beneficiaries of the scheme.

METHODS

In order to have a representative sample, the first step was selection of districts (figure 1). For this, the criterion devised by the renowned demographer, Bose A. (2006), based on district wise analysis of 2001 census data was followed. Districts were classified into three groups, i.e. D1, D2 and D3 on the basis of Child Sex Ratio (CSR). From D1 the highest CSR category (850-900), both districts were included. From D2 category (800-850), the middle category of the CSR, two districts close to state average were selected. From D3 (750-800), the lowest CSR category, two districts with lowest CSR were selected.

FIGURE 1 - SELECTION OF DISTRICTS FOR THE STUDY (CATEGORIZATION BASED ON STUDY CONDUCTED BY BOSE, ASHISH (2006) TITLED FEMALE FOETICIDE: A CIVILISATIONAL COLLAPSE)



of the non-beneficiaries (who were eligible but were denied benefits) were considered. A comprehensive list of number of beneficiaries of the scheme in every village was prepared with the help of AWW, since local Anganwadi, of the ICDS programme is the structural mechanism to roll out the scheme in Haryana. The total number of available beneficiaries was found to be in the range of minimum (6) and maximum (15). Five beneficiaries were selected from each village. For this, a list of beneficiary mothers was prepared and home visits were made. and they were requested to come to Anganwadi for a meeting. A Focused Group Discussion was held with the beneficiary mothers. The beneficiary mothers who stayed back after the FGD and were more forthcoming, were selected for in-depth interviews. In total, 120 beneficiary mothers were interviewed and the information was supplemented with observations and comments received during twelve FGDs, two in each district. A list of non beneficiaries for every village was prepared with the AWW and it was found that they were very few. Two non beneficiary mothers were taken from every village. A total of 48 non-beneficiary mothers were selected.

Age, social category, type of family, and socio economic status were chosen as variables to understand the beneficiaries' perspective. Socio Economic Status (SES) Scale developed by Kuppuswamy (1976) was modified, it was ratified with the experts and a statistician was used to generate information about the socio economic profile of the beneficiary and non-beneficiary

mothers. The components selected for SES were educational qualification, occupation of respondent, occupation of husband, family income, type of house, source of drinking water, availability of toilets and house electrification status.

TABLE 1 – SCORES ASSIGNED TO CHARACTERISTICS FOR SES VARIABLE

S. No	Characteristics	SCORES			
		1	2	3	4
1.	Education	Upto Primary	Middle	High & above	
2.	Occupation of the respondent mother	Housewife	Labour	Self employed	Service
3.	Occupation of husband	Unemployed	Wage Labour	Self employed	Service
4.	Family Income	Upto Rs 3000	Rs 3000-4000	More than Rs 4000	
5.	Type of house	Kutchha	Semi Pucca	Pucca	
6.	Source of drinking water	Hand Pump / Well	Tap		
7.	Availability of toilets	Open	Public	Private	
8.	House electrified	No	Yes		

Thus, for the eight characteristics mentioned above scores were assigned. As it is clear from the table above, except for occupation of the respondent mother and her husband all characteristics had three point score categories.

The minimum and maximum scores possible for SES were:

TABLE 2 – MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM POSSIBLE SCORE FOR SES

S.no	No. of characteristics	Score possible	Total
1.	6	3	6X3=18
2.	2	4	2X4=8
Total	8	Total	24

Thus, a respondent could score minimum of 8 and maximum of 24. After examining the scores, the women respondents were classified into the three categories with low score that is (8-12), Medium (12-18) and High (18 and above) for further analysis of their perspectives about the 'Ladli' scheme with respect to SES.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

BENEFICIARY PROFILE

A little more than half i.e. 50.8% of the beneficiaries were from 20-25 years age group and 49.2% were from above 25 years of age. 66.7% of the beneficiaries belonged to OBC category. Majority of the beneficiaries were Hindus. A large number i.e. 84.2% beneficiaries were living in joint families. It was found that, 77.5% of the beneficiaries had large families with 8 and more members. Also, 29.2% of the beneficiaries had low SES score with the score ranging between 8-12. 31.7% fell at the middle SES category with a score range between 12-18. It was found that 39.2% of the beneficiaries were from high SES category with a score range of 18 and above.

KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE SCHEME

All the beneficiary mothers were aware of the scheme and 72.5% of them were informed about it by the Anganwadi worker; thus indicating a crucial role being played by the AWW in implementation of the scheme. Anganwadi workers were in constant touch with women in the community and were instrumental in disseminating the required information about the scheme. A large majority of the beneficiary mothers that is around 93.3% knew about the amount of cash disbursed under the scheme. They reported that the scheme is 'good' because there is sufficient cash incentive provided to the families of girl children. Most of the beneficiaries (81.7%) knew that only the second daughter is eligible for getting the benefits under the scheme. However, the knowledge differed significantly at 5% level of significance with respect to SES category. High SES category beneficiaries had better knowledge than those belonging to low and medium SES category. 85% of the beneficiaries knew that Rs 5000 were invested every year for the girl child for the first five years.

OPINION ABOUT THE USEFULNESS OF THE SCHEMES

Majority of the beneficiaries believed that the scheme will help in delaying the age of marriage. Few beneficiaries believed that such programmes will help in balancing the adverse sex ratio. Only 8.3% of the beneficiaries believed that the scheme will motivate people to educate their daughters. 58.3% of the beneficiaries were of the opinion that the cash grant will be utilized for their daughter's dowry. They perceived that the incentive given was kind of a gift or 'Kanyadaan' from the government for their daughter's wedding.

OPINIONS ABOUT IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHEME

Majority of the beneficiaries were of the opinion that AWWs were helpful in filling the forms. A large number of beneficiaries were of the opinion that criteria for identifying the beneficiaries were unsatisfactory as the most poor were unable to gather the large number of documents required. A little more than half of the beneficiaries believed that the scheme required a lot of formalities and hence needed to be simplified. This can be attributed to the fact that the scheme's application form required many documentary proofs like birth certificate, domicile certificate, photograph etc.

OPINION ABOUT SIGNIFICANCE OF THE GIRL CHILD IN THE FAMILY

Beneficiaries believed that they cannot depend on their daughters in old age and only a son can look after them during old age. Also, they expressed their fear of girls being subjected to sexual

abuse. They were of the opinion that daughters have to go to marital home so they do not offer any benefit to the parents. However, those who wished to have daughters expressed daughters being more emotionally attached to parents. They therefore, desired to have a daughter but only if sons were there as well. A little less than half i.e. 42.5% of the beneficiaries were of the opinion that daughters are a liability.

SUGGESTIONS BY THE BENEFICIARIES

A large number of the beneficiaries suggested that dowry should be banned. Also, 92.5% of beneficiaries suggested that for improving the status of the girl child in the family, punitive laws for those committing sex selective abortions are must. They suggested that both the daughters (1st and the 2nd born) should be eligible and money should be given at regular intervals rather than at the end of school years. 98.3% of the beneficiaries suggested that paper work should be reduced. Despite the fact that education for girls is free up to graduation in government institutions in Haryana, 84.2% of the beneficiaries wanted that money should be given so that they can spend n their daughters' education.

REASONS FOR DENIAL OF BENEFITS TO THE ELIGIBLE BENEFICIARIES OF THE SCHEME

All the non-beneficiaries who were eligible for the scheme had applied to receive the benefits but a few of them were not sure whether their application was submitted to the right authorities or was complete. The AWW actually filled and submitted their forms and therefore women were not in a position to respond to this and seemed completely dependent on them. The AWWs revealed that reasons for rejection were incomplete applications. This reiterates that for the poor and illiterate people documentary proofs for eligibility become impediments in availing the benefits. 12.5% of the non-beneficiaries applications were rejected because the yearly quota had exhausted, 12.5% of the non-beneficiaries submitted their application late hence their application was rejected.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings indicate that more awareness about the papers required to avail the benefits of the scheme and its long term objectives need to be highlighted as people fail to find connect between the schemes and the opportunity for girls to survive and grow. They did not seem to be sensitive to the fast dwindling number of girl children, injustice towards girls in not allowing them to be born because of sex determination followed by abortion and its consequences on the safety of women. Therefore in this backdrop of son preference attitude towards girl children cannot be expected to be changing dramatically. However, the benefits to the girl children may influence to some extent in promoting the birth of second girl child in the family and in delaying the age of marriage to avail the benefits of the scheme. However the birth of third and later born parity daughters is still in jeopardy with wish to keep the family size small. On examining the differences in the design of the two schemes, ABAD, the first scheme was instrumental in easy and wider reach of the latter i.e. LADLI as it is being implemented through same institutional set up of ICDS. The study clearly indicates that according to beneficiaries the schemes have been initiated in recognition of the fact that daughter's marriage is an expensive affair and this incentive is a kind of help extended by the government for that. Ironically, they were not aware of the actual objectives of the schemes and how better educational status and delayed marriage can help their daughters to harness their development potential. The figures show that girls

forced into early marriage rarely continue their education, denying them any hope of independence, the ability to earn a livelihood or of making an economic contribution to their households. Girls who complete secondary school are six times less likely to become child brides than contemporaries with less or no education.

A vast number of beneficiary mothers were in favour of banning dowry to improve the status of girls and women. This highlights the need for government to play a significant and more proactive role in the strict implementation of the Dowry Prohibition Act and PCPNDT Act. However, it is also evident that implementing any law without the societal sanction is difficult. To think that any punitive measures or incentive based scheme can bring long term solution is also not practical. These efforts have to be supported by sustained and proactive initiatives like motivating girls in schools to be economically independent and take up further studies and careers. These kind of interventions may bear fruits in a slow and gradual fashion, but can prove to long term solutions, as has emerged from the study with more positive response from comparatively better educated mothers. There is a clear picture emerging for the planners to think afresh about this approach.

In conclusion, it can be said that some of the points for reflection and action at the policy level are related to a more inclusive roll out as per the ground reality like an urgent need to differentiate between the long term and short term objectives of the scheme as the scheme has not been very effective as the Child Sex Ratio has shown a further decline. Monitoring and evaluation system have to be streamlined on the lines of International Conditional Cash Transfer schemes as Ladli scheme is only audited for its budget allocation. Delays, budgets running out before the end of the financial year and grants being withdrawn without reasons being disclosed should be considered by the policy makers. The scheme's guidelines do not mention about role of media in popularizing the schemes thus, building conducive environment for promoting the birth of girls and popularizing the schemes is important. Examples of individuals taking anti-dowry stand should be highlighted as dowry is the major reason which leads to daughter being perceived as a liability in the family. The efforts of the girls taking care of their old parents should be publicly applauded and well recognized in the society as people perceive that only sons can look after their parents in old age. The daughter's right to succession in family property also has to be emphasized. Despite acknowledging daughters as more supportive and caring, the societal perception of sons as old-age support persist. Studies have shown that women's empowerment in terms of education, employment and financial independence do not automatically translate in their agency and freedom of choices.

Strict implementation of PCPNDT is called for since the misuse of techniques for the purpose of prenatal sex determination leading to selective abortion of girls has not been effective nationally because few health providers have been charged or convicted. This lack of prosecution is not surprising, given that most primary care is with unregulated private providers. Though there are some success stories of collective actions in public domain where the existing socio-political milieu compel societal responses to gendered concerns to be politically correct and egalitarian, when it comes to the private realm of

In addition to these the foremost need is to address and train the functionaries at the grassroots to sensitise women towards their unfelt need to educate their daughters to have a good future whereas on the contrary they were found to be reinforcing the general notion among women that the cash incentive received is a help towards daughters' dowry. The training imparted for

implementation of the schemes should address the mindset of AWWs and helpers by showing positive role models and questioning the age old practices. Also, connecting cash incentives with educational attainment like Delhi's Ladli scheme will ensure completion of schooling up to high school at least. Besides this in order to expand the reach of the scheme, the non beneficiaries were actually the most deserving category therefore, sustained efforts of reaching the most vulnerable who are left out of the ambit of the scheme due to transitory living patterns, poor working conditions, illiteracy and lack of access to information.

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ANALYTICAL STUDY ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (OCB) PARAMETERS AT WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Performance is one of major factor in every organization; in other words we can say that performance improvement is the prime objective amongst any organization's objectives. There are many parameters related to performance in an organization. One of the emerging parameter is Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). OCB is an emerging concept in performance analysis but at the same time it represents a very old human conduct of voluntary action and mutual aid with no request for pay or formal rewards in return. According to Organ (1988), The definition of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) is "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization". It may explained as follows: "extra-role behavior" (ERB), defined as "behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations". Organizational citizenship is functional, extra-role, pro-social organizational behaviors directed at individual, groups and / or an organization. This paper throws light on the various parameters which results in OCB in an employee.

INTRODUCTION

Performance is one of major factor in every organization; in other words we can say that performance improvement is the prime objective amongst any organization's objectives. There are many parameters related to performance in an organization. One of the emerging parameter is Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). OCB is an emerging concept in performance

analysis but at the same time it represents a very old human conduct of voluntary action and mutual aid with no request for pay or formal rewards in return. According to Organ (1988), The definition of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) is "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization". It may explained as follows: "extra-role behavior" (ERB), defined as "behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations".

Successful organizations are always in need of employees who will deliver more than their usual job responsibilities and provide performance that is beyond expectations. Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB) describe activities go above and beyond their prescribed role requirements. This motive-based view also helps make sense of the disparate findings of research seeking personality correlates of OCB . By viewing OCB as caused by multiple motives, one can see that different personality traits could predict OCB depending on the citizen's motive.

Organizations prefers employees who will do those things that aren't in any job description. Organizational citizenship behaviours have often been conceptualized as inherently a socially desirable class of behaviours. OCB showcase a "good soldier syndrome" which is so necessary for the prosperity and good functioning of every organization. It means doing a better job, making an effort above and beyond formal requirements, and filling the gap between procedures and regulations on the one hand, and dynamic reality on the other. OCB is usually perceived as exerting exceptionally good behaviours for the sake of the organization and informally supporting its members. To date, and as far as we could find, no study has investigated the meaning and implications of OCB behaviours in the third sector. Obviously, such behaviours are important to private organizations since they affect their competitiveness and profitability. Employers should focus on increasing OCB among their paid employees. Thus, OCB represent a powerful element of free-will conduct, most relevant in third-sector organizations, which highlight values of voluntary personal actions especially among paid employees. Consequently it is interesting to examine how OCB is manifested in interpersonal relationships within work units of the non-profit sector. Successful organizations need employees who will do more than their usual job duties and provide performance that is beyond expectations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organ (1988) suggested that high levels of OCB should lead to a more efficient organization and help bring new resources into the organization. Organ further added that, securing needed resources refers not only to the attraction of new members or raw materials, but also to such intangible factors as company good will, or the external image and reputation of the organization. Smith (1983) and Bateman and Organ (1983) conducted focused on the antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, job satisfaction acts as the best predictor. But Penner, Midili & Kegelmeyer, (1997) had a different view, that job satisfaction is not only one reason for the accurate prediction of OCB. Original position that disposition can have important effects on organizational citizenship behaviour. (Smith 1983) Individuals with high

collectivism and propensity to trust are more likely to believe they can be a valued part of the organization, to value this role, and because of this belief, engage in behaviours to make a difference in the organization. Organizational citizenship is discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee's formal job requirements, but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization. (Robbins, 1996). Successful organizations need employees who will do more than their usual job duties and provide performance that is beyond expectations. Organizational citizenship behaviours have often been conceptualized as inherently a socially desirable class of behaviours. Achievement, affiliation, and power are not new ideas, but the application of these motives to the study of OCB does provide a new lens through which to view OCB. Much research is still needed to validate the ideas expressed in this paper. As defined by Organ (1988), OCB reflects a "good soldier syndrome" which is so necessary for the prosperity and good functioning of every organization. It means doing a better job, making an effort above and beyond formal requirements, and filling the gap between procedures and regulations on the one hand, and dynamic reality on the other. OCB is usually perceived as exerting exceptionally good behaviours for the sake of the organization and informally supporting its members. To date, and as far as we could find, no study has investigated the meaning and implications of OCB behaviours in the third sector. Obviously, such behaviours are important to private organizations since they affect their competitiveness and profitability. must be committed to increasing OCB among their paid employees. Thus, OCB represent a powerful element of free-will conduct, most relevant in third-sector organizations, which highlight values of voluntary personal actions especially among paid employees. Turnipseed & Rassuli (2005) define OCB as defending the organization when it is criticized or urging peers to invest in the organization; which means that OCB is 'going beyond the call of duty'. Employee attitudes were found to influence subsequent organizational citizenship. Indeed, as citizenship appears to consist of discretionary behaviors, how the employee perceives the organization (as evidenced by his/her attitude toward it) would likely predispose this employee to either perform or withhold such performance (Dick et al, 2006). Results indicate that perceptions of citizenship performance predict overall performance equally well across all task performance levels (Coole, 2003). As per Jacqueline et al, (2004), it is any behavior not officially required by the organization; rather its practice depends solely on the consent of employee as a consequence of the organizational environment. Deckop et al, (1999) argues in his study that, for employees low in value commitment, a pay-for-performance system appears to be a disincentive for engaging in OCB. Niehoff & Yen (2004) asserts that, the belief among theorists is that as more employees engage in OCB, the organization becomes more successful. Such behavior (i.e. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour) might enhance coworkers' or supervisors' productivity, help coordinate activities, increase the stability of organizational performance, and help the organization attract and retain employees (Borman, 2004).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

POPULATION OF STUDY

Nagpur.

SAMPLING SIZE

The sample size was 150 employees.

SECONDARY DATE: collected by referring to journals, websites, research papers so on.

INTERPRETATION OF OUTPUT

RESPONDENT’S PROFILE

1. Out of the 150 respondents 20% were from IT department, 29.3% from Administration, 32% from marketing department, 12.7% from finance department and 6% from HR department.
2. 8.7 % respondents has less than 1 year experience, 26 % has 1 to 2 yrs of experience, 28.7% has 2 to 3 yrs of experience and 36.7 % has more than 3 yrs of experience.
3. .6% were undergraduates, 12.8% were graduates, 84.4% were post graduates and 2.2 % were doctorates.
4. 3 % respondents mother tongue is Gujarati, 29% Hindi, 1.3% Kannad, 2% Malayalam, 48% marathi, 8.7% Tamil and 8% Telugu.
5. 73.3% were unmarried, 22 % were married and 4.7% were divorce.
6. 76% were male and 24% female.

TABLE :1

KMO and Bartlett's Test^a		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.543
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	193.358
	df	78
	Sig.	.000
a. Based on correlations		

The overall test is the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA), which as far as this research is concerned; it falls in the acceptable range of (above 0.45), with a value of 0.543. Therefore, most of the variables obtain and exceed the minimum acceptable MSA level and thus all the



seven concerned variables are statistically significant and collectively meet the necessary threshold of sampling adequacy with an MSA value of 0.543.

TABLE :2**COMMUNALITIES**

	Initial	Extraction
professional development	1.000	.516
training application	1.000	.433
development opportunities	1.000	.532
strategic role	1.000	.631
autonomy of work	1.000	.551
employee empowerment	1.000	.487
strategic unit	1.000	.826
organization values	1.000	.920
organization proud	1.000	.433
helping colleagues	1.000	.696
employee behaviour	1.000	.942
complain about things	1.000	.830
corporate image	1.000	.468

Factor analysis procedures are based on the initial computation of a complete table of inter-correlations among the variables (correlation matrix). This correlation matrix is then transformed through estimation of a factor model to obtain a factor matrix. The loading of each variable on the factors are then interpreted to identify the underlying structure of the variables. Table 3 contains the information regarding the 13 possible factors and their relative explanatory power as expressed by their eigen values. In addition to assessing the importance of each component, we can also use the eigen values to assist in selecting the number of factors. If we apply the latent root criterion, six components will be retained.

Scree Plot

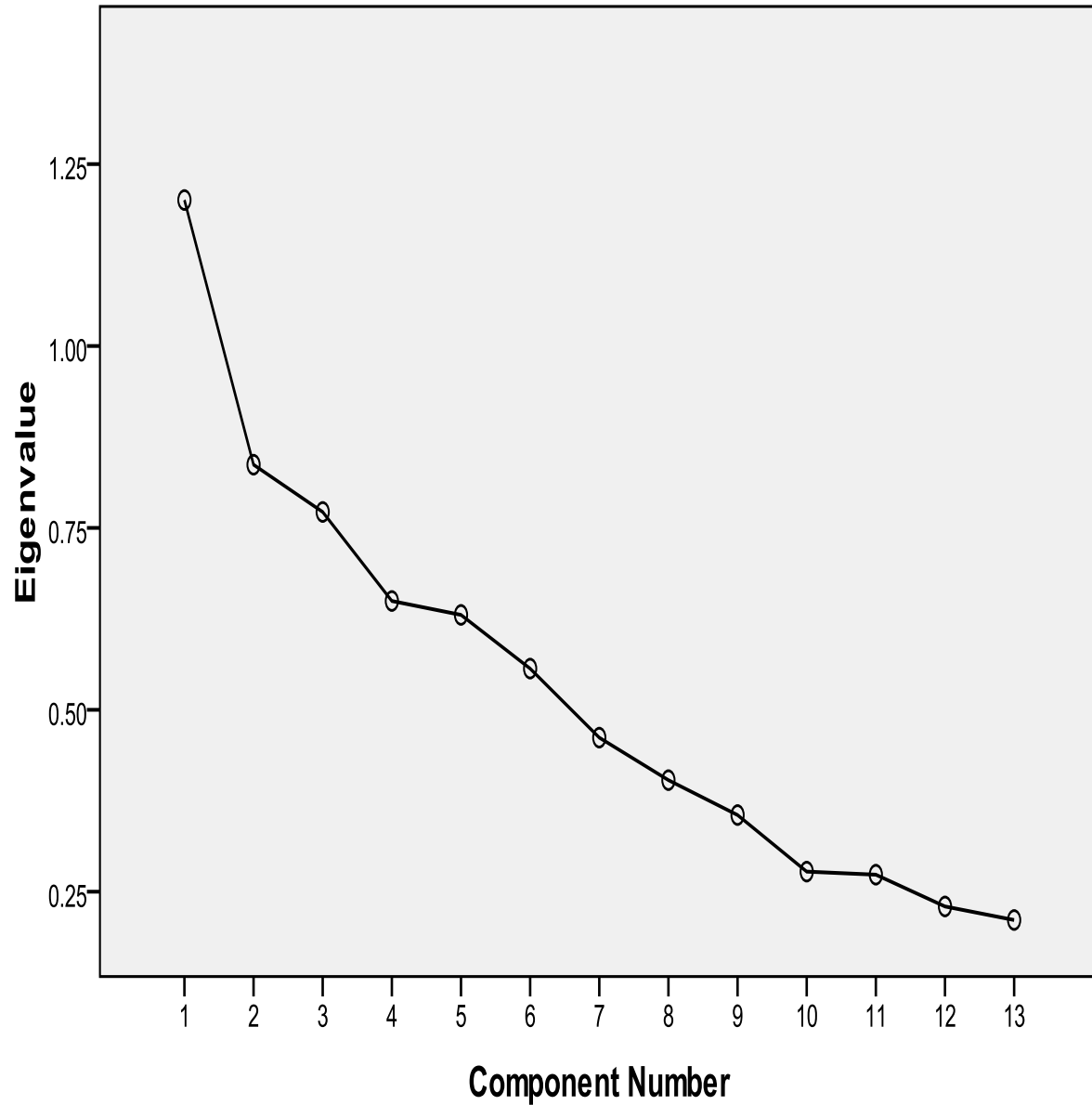


TABLE :3

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues ^a			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. 2	.846	11.025	26.885	1.557	10.378	22.450	1.626	10.840	21.848
2. 3	.789	10.279	37.164	1.427	9.515	31.965	1.508	10.050	31.898
3. 5	.650	8.469	54.469	1.208	8.051	50.000	1.216	8.107	49.302
4. 6	.558	7.270	61.738	1.040	6.935	56.935	1.145	7.633	56.935
5. 7	.492	6.409	68.147						
6. 8	.452	5.894	74.042						
7. 9	.391	5.098	79.140						
8. 10	.374	4.878	84.019						
9. 11	.302	3.932	87.950						
10. 12	.275	3.584	91.535						
11. 13	.244	3.184	94.719						
12. 14	.211	2.754	97.473						
13. 15	.194	2.527	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When analyzing a covariance matrix, the initial eigenvalues are the same across the raw and rescaled solution.

INTERPRETING THE FACTORS

Based on the factor loading pattern, interpretation would be difficult and theoretically less meaningful. Therefore, the only way is to rotate the factor matrix to redistribute variance from the earlier factor to the later factors. Hair et.al(1998), mention that rotation should result in a simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor pattern. Therefore to do so, as explained in methodology section, I apply an orthogonal (VARIMAX) ROTATION. The VARIMAX rotated component analysis factor matrix is shown in Table 4.

TABLE :4

Sr. No.		Component						Communalities
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
1.	Professional development	.118	.305	.498	-.396	-.062	-.023	.516
2.	Training application	-.004	.002	.622	-.125	.103	-.137	.433
3.	Development opportunities	-.691	.080	-.040	.060	-.098	-.181	.532
4.	Strategic role	.266	-.617	.152	.080	.275	.272	.631
5.	Autonomy of work	.053	.692	.134	.014	-.182	.135	.551
6.	Employee empowerment	.462	.361	-.232	.168	-.226	-.098	.487
7.	Strategic unit	-.019	.254	.169	.848	-.037	-.109	.826
8.	Organization values	-.019	.090	-.075	-.027	-.048	.950	.920
9.	Organization proud	-.035	-.141	-.162	.607	.116	.059	.433
10.	Helping colleagues	-.033	-.080	.802	.175	-.081	.093	.696
11.	Employee behaviour	.129	-.070	.006	.108	.952	-.062	.942
12.	Complain about things	.882	-.041	.034	-.083	.099	-.182	.830
13.	Corporate image	-.012	.612	-.021	.016	.290	.093	.468

							Total
Sum of squares (Eigen Values)	.846	.789	.650	.558	.492	.452	3.787
Percentage of Trace	11.025	10.279	8.469	7.270	6.409	5.894	49.346

Variables 3,6 & 12 comes under factor 1, variables 4,5 & 13 comes under factor 2, variables 1,2 & 10 comes under factor 3, variables 7 & 9 comes under 4, variable 11 comes under factor 5 and variable 8 comes under factor 6.

Component Transformation Matrix						
Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	.613	-.354	-.030	.039	.698	-.098
2	.718	.401	.024	-.393	-.409	-.031
3	.068	.641	.308	.606	.204	-.284
4	-.087	-.284	.781	-.277	-.084	-.466
5	.024	.109	.529	-.061	.176	.820
6	-.309	.460	-.116	-.629	.516	-.134

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Variables	Factors	Result
Development opportunities(-.691)	FACTOR 1 Working Atmosphere	ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR
Employee empowerment(.462)		
Complain about things(.882)		
Strategic role(-.617)	FACTOR 2 Employee Empowerment	
Autonomy of work(.692)		
Corporate image(.612)		
Professional development(.498)	FACTOR 3 Employee Development	
Training application(.622)		
Helping colleagues(.802)		
Strategic unit(.848)	FACTOR 4 Strategies	
Organization proud(.607)		
Employee behaviour(.952)	FACTOR 5 Employee Behaviour	
Organization values(.950)		
	FACTOR 6 Organization Values	

Based on the loading of the thirteen variables on each factor (for factor loading greater than 0.45) and the loading of the six summarized categories, the model was developed and is presented above. Before presenting the model, let me mention that, naming of the factors totally depends on the opinion of the researcher. Sometimes naming of the factor draws criticism due to this reason.

CONCLUSION

Organizational citizenship behaviours have often been conceptualized as inherently a socially desirable class of behaviours. It means doing a better job, making an effort above and beyond formal requirements, and filling the gap between procedures and regulations on the one hand, and dynamic reality on the other. Employer, type of environment, the job conditions everything plays a key role in enhancing OCB behavior in employees. Consequently it is interesting to examine how OCB is manifested in interpersonal relationships within work units of the non-

profit sector. Successful organizations need employees who will do more than their usual job duties and provide performance that is beyond expectations.

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DISINVESTMENT OF PUBLIC SECTOR ENTERPRISES

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INTRODUCTION

At the very basic level, disinvestment can be explained as follows:

“Investment refers to the conversion of money or cash into securities, debentures, bonds or any other claims on money. As follows, disinvestment involves the conversion of money claims or securities into money or cash.”

Disinvestment can also be defined as the action of an organisation (or government) selling or liquidating an asset or subsidiary. It is also referred to as ‘divestment’ or ‘divestiture.’

In most contexts, disinvestment typically refers to sale from the government, partly or fully, of a government-owned enterprise.

A company or a government organisation will typically disinvest an asset either as a strategic move for the company, or for raising resources to meet general/specific needs.

OBJECTIVES OF DISINVESTMENT

The new economic policy initiated in July 1991 clearly indicated that PSUs had shown a very negative rate of return on capital employed. Inefficient PSUs had become and were continuing to be a drag on the Government’s resources turning to be more of liabilities to the Government than being assets. Many undertakings traditionally established as pillars of growth had become a burden on the economy. The national gross domestic product and gross national savings were also getting adversely affected by low returns from PSUs. About 10 to 15 % of the total gross domestic savings were getting reduced on account of low savings from PSUs. In relation to the capital employed, the levels of profits were too low. Of the various factors responsible for low profits in the PSUs, the following were identified as particularly important:

- Price policy of public sector undertakings
- Under-utilisation of capacity
- Problems related to planning and construction of projects

- Problems of labour, personnel and management
- Lack of autonomy

Hence, the need for the Government to get rid of these units and to concentrate on core activities was identified. The Government also took a view that it should move out of non-core businesses, especially the ones where the private sector had now entered in a significant way. Finally, disinvestment was also seen by the Government to raise funds for meeting general/specific needs.

In this direction, the Government adopted the 'Disinvestment Policy'. This was identified as an active tool to reduce the burden of financing the PSUs. The following main objectives of disinvestment were outlined:

- To reduce the financial burden on the Government
- To improve public finances
- To introduce, competition and market discipline
- To fund growth
- To encourage wider share of ownership
- To depoliticize non-essential services

IMPORTANCE OF DISINVESTMENT

Presently, the Government has about Rs. 2 lakh crore locked up in PSUs. Disinvestment of the Government stake is, thus, far too significant. The importance of disinvestment lies in utilization of funds for:

- Financing the increasing fiscal deficit
- Financing large-scale infrastructure development
- For investing in the economy to encourage spending
- For retiring Government debt- Almost 40-45% of the Centre's revenue receipts go towards paying public debt/interest.
- For social programs like health and education

Disinvestment also assumes significance due to the prevalence of an increasingly competitive environment, which makes it difficult for many PSUs to operate profitably. This leads to a rapid erosion of value of the public assets making it critical to disinvest early to realize a high value.

APPROACHES TO DISINVESTMENT

There are primarily three different approaches to disinvestments (from the sellers' i.e. Government's perspective).

MINORITY DISINVESTMENT

A minority disinvestment is one such that, at the end of it, the government retains a majority stake in the company, typically greater than 51%, thus ensuring management control.

Historically, minority stakes have been either auctioned off to institutions (financial) or offloaded to the public by way of an Offer for Sale. The present government has made a policy statement that all disinvestments would only be minority disinvestments via Public Offers.

Examples of minority sales via auctioning to institutions go back into the early and mid-90s. Some of them were Andrew Yule & Co. Ltd., CMC Ltd. etc. Examples of minority sales via Offer for Sale include recent issues of Power Grid Corp. of India Ltd., Rural Electrification Corp. Ltd., NTPC Ltd., NHPC Ltd. etc.

MAJORITY DISINVESTMENT

A majority disinvestment is one in which the government, post disinvestment, retains a minority stake in the company i.e. it sells off a majority stake.

Historically, majority disinvestments have been typically made to strategic partners. These partners could be other CPSEs themselves, a few examples being BRPL to IOC, MRL to IOC, and KRL to BPCL. Alternatively, these can be private entities, like the sale of Modern Foods to Hindustan Lever, BALCO to Starlight, CMC to TCS etc.

Again, like in the case of minority disinvestment, the stake can also be offloaded by way of an Offer for Sale, separately or in conjunction with a sale to a strategic partner.

COMPLETE PRIVATISATION

Complete privatisation is a form of majority disinvestment wherein 100% control of the company is passed on to a buyer. Examples of this include 18 hotel properties of ITDC and 3 hotel properties of HCI.

Disinvestment and Privatisation are often loosely used interchangeably. There is, however, a vital difference between the two. Disinvestment may or may not result in Privatisation. When the Government retains 26% of the shares carrying voting powers while selling the remaining to a strategic buyer, it would have disinvested, but would not have 'privatised', because with 26%, it can still stall vital decisions for which generally a special resolution (three-fourths majority) is required.

DISINVESTMENT-A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

For the first four decades after Independence, the country was pursuing a path of development in which the public sector was expected to be the engine of growth. However, the public sector overgrew itself and its shortcomings started manifesting in low capacity utilisation and low efficiency due to over manning, low work ethics, over capitalisation due to substantial time and cost over runs, inability to innovate, take quick and timely decisions, large interference in decision making process etc. Hence, a decision was taken in 1991 to follow the path of Disinvestment.

PERIOD FROM 1991-92 - 2000-01

The change process in India began in the year 1991-92, with 31 selected PSUs disinvested for Rs.3,038 crore. In August 1996, the Disinvestment Commission, chaired by G V Ramakrishna was set up to advice, supervise, monitor and publicize gradual disinvestment of Indian PSUs. It submitted 13 reports covering recommendations on privatisation of 57 PSUs. Dr. R.H. Patil subsequently took up the chairmanship of this Commission in July 2001. However, the Disinvestment Commission ceased to exist in May 2004.

The Department of Disinvestment was set up as a separate department in December, 1999 and was later renamed as Ministry of Disinvestment from September, 2001. From May, 2004, the Department of Disinvestment became one of the Departments under the Ministry of Finance.

Against an aggregate target of Rs. 54,300 crore to be raised from PSU disinvestment from 1991-92 to 2000-01, the Government managed to raise just Rs. 20,078.62 crore (less than half). Interestingly, the government was able to meet its annual target in only 3 (out of 10) years. In 1993-94, the proceeds from PSU disinvestment were nil over a target amount of Rs. 3,500 crore.

The reasons for such low proceeds from disinvestment against the actual target set were:

1. Unfavorable market conditions
2. Offers made by the government were not attractive for private sector investors
3. Lot of opposition on the valuation process
4. No clear-cut policy on disinvestment
5. Strong opposition from employee and trade unions
6. Lack of transparency in the process
7. Lack of political will

This was the period when disinvestment happened primarily by way of sale of minority stakes of the PSUs through domestic or international issue of shares in small tranches. The value realized through the sale of shares, even in blue chip companies like IOC, BPCL, HPCL, GAIL & VSNL, however, was low since the control still lay with the government.

Most of these offers of minority stakes during this period were picked up by the domestic financial institutions. Unit Trust of India was one such major institution.

PERIOD FROM 2001-02 - 2003-04

This was the period when maximum number of disinvestments took place. These took the shape of either strategic sales (involving an effective transfer of control and management to a private entity) or an offer for sale to the public, with the government still retaining control of the management. Some of the companies which witnessed a strategic sale included:

- BHARAT ALUMINIUM CO.LTD.
- CMC LTD.
- HINDUSTAN ZINC LTD.
- HOTEL CORP.OF INDIA LTD. (3 PROPERTIES: CENTAUR HOTEL,JUHU BEACH, CENTAUR HOTEL AIRPORT,MUMBAI & INDO HOKKE HOTELS LTD.,RAJGIR)
- HTL LTD.
- IBP CO.LTD.
- INDIA TOURISM DEVELOPMENT CORP.LTD.(18 HOTEL PROPERTIES)
- INDIAN PETROCHEMICALS CORP.LTD.

- JESSOP & CO.LTD.
- LAGAN JUTE MACHINERY CO.LTD.,THE
- MARUTI SUZUKI INDIA LTD.
- MODERN FOOD INDUSTRIES (INDIA) LTD.
- PARADEEP PHOSPHATES LTD.
- TATA COMMUNICATIONS LTD.

The valuations realized by this route were found to be substantially higher than those from minority stake sales.

During this period, against an aggregate target of Rs. 38,500 crore to be raised from PSU disinvestment, the Government managed to raise Rs. 21,163.68 crore.

PERIOD FROM 2004-05 - 2008-09

The issue of PSU disinvestment remained a contentious issue through this period. As a result, the disinvestment agenda stagnated during this period. In the 5 years from 2003-04 to 2008-09, the total receipts from disinvestments were only Rs. 8515.93 crore.

2009-10 Onwards

A stable government and improved stock market conditions initially led to a renewed thrust on disinvestments. The Government started the process by selling minority stakes in listed and unlisted (profit-making) PSUs. This period saw disinvestments in companies such as NHPC Ltd., Oil India Ltd., NTPC Ltd., REC, NMDC, SJVN, EIL, CIL, MOIL, etc. through public offers.

However, from 2011 onwards, disinvestment activity has slowed down considerably. As against a target of Rs.40,000 crore for 2011-12, the Government was able to raise only Rs.14,000 crore.

POLICY ON PUBLIC SECTOR AND DISINVESTMENT

The Industrial Policy Resolution of 1956 gave the public sector a strategic role in the economy. Massive investments were made over the next four decades to build the public sector. Many of these enterprises successfully expanded production, opened up new areas of technology and built up a reserve of technical competence in a number of areas. Nevertheless, after the initial concentration of public sector investment in key infrastructure areas, public enterprises began to spread into all areas of the economy including non-infrastructure and non-core businesses. The Government announced on 24th July 1991 the 'Statement on Industrial Policy' which inter-alia included Statement on Public Sector Policy. The statement contained the following decisions:

“Portfolio of public sector investments will be reviewed with a view to focus the public sector on strategic, high-tech and essential infrastructure. Whereas some reservation for the public sector is being retained, there would be no bar for area of exclusivity to be opened up to the private sector selectively. Similarly, the public sector will also be allowed entry in areas not reserved for it.

Public enterprises which are chronically sick and which are unlikely to be turned around will, for the formulation of revival/rehabilitation schemes, be referred to the Board for Industrial

and Financial Reconstruction (BIFR), or other similar high level institutions created for the purpose. Social security mechanism will be created to protect the interests of workers likely to be affected by such rehabilitation packages. In order to raise resources and encourage wider public participation, a part of the government's shareholding in the public sector would be offered to mutual funds, financial institutions, general public and workers. Boards of public sector companies would be made more professional and given greater powers. There will be a greater thrust on performance improvement through the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) System through which managements would be granted greater autonomy and will be held accountable. Technical expertise on the part of the Government would be upgraded to make the MOU negotiations and implementation more effective.

To facilitate a fuller discussion on performance, the MOU signed between Government and the public enterprises would be placed in Parliament. While focusing on major management issues, this would also help place matters on day-to-day operations of public enterprises in their correct perspective”.

In accordance with the decision announced in the aforesaid statement on industrial policy on public sector and also as per budget speech of July 1991, in order to encourage wider participation and promote greater accountability, the Government equity in selected CPSEs was offered to mutual funds, financial institutions, workers and the general public.

In the subsequent years, there have been constant policy changes. While on one hand, disinvestment as a policy has been much debated, there have also been changes and disagreements in terms of the different approaches that can be taken for disinvestment to happen.

CURRENT GOVERNMENT POLICY

The President of India's address on 4th June 2009 unveiled the agenda of the Congress- led Government at the Centre. In keeping with the election manifesto of the Congress Party, the President's address mentioned: “Our people have every right to own part of the shares of public sector companies while the Government retains majority shareholding and control. My Government will develop a roadmap for listing and people-ownership of public sector undertakings while ensuring that Government equity does not fall below 51%.”

In line with the Presidents' address, the Economic Survey (2008-09) stated the following as the Governments plan of action: "Revitalize the disinvestment program and plan to generate at least Rs. 25,000 crore per year. Complete the process of selling of 5-10% equity in previously identified profit making non-navratnas. List all unlisted public sector enterprises and sell a minimum of 10% of equity to the public. Auction all loss making PSUs that cannot be revived. For those in which net worth is zero, allow negative bidding in the form of debt write-off."

The subsequent Union Budgets have also taken disinvestment on the agenda of the Government. The Government has also announced its intentions of raising the minimum public shareholding in listed companies to 25%. This figure was subsequently revised to 10%. This, besides bringing more quality paper in the market, shall also lead to disinvestment as the Government shall have to dilute its present holding to ensure the minimum public shareholding in the listed PSUs. At current prices, this could mean a divestment amount of over Rs. 101084 crore, in case 25% public shareholding were to be achieved and Rs.10339 crore, in case 10% public shareholding were to be achievements.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST DISINVESTMENT

There have been several arguments that have been raised against disinvestment, both specific as well as general in nature. Some of them are listed below:

- The Government will forego dividends on the equity holdings by selling off its stakes. According to the Public Enterprises Survey 2007-08, the Central PSUs taken together contributed Rs. 19,423 crore to the central exchequer in 2007-08 as dividends, witnessing an increase of over Rs. 4,000 crore from 2005-06. Considerable disinvestment of government's stakes in CPSEs would squeeze this important source of revenue for the Government.
- A nationwide survey conducted by the NCAER in 2007-08 revealed that only 0.5% of Indian households invest in equities. A recent article in *The Economist* (21st May 2009) estimates this section to be 0.7% of Indian households. Thus, in case the public offer route is followed, it would imply transferring the common ownership of the PSUs by all Indians into the private ownership of 0.5-0.7% of Indians. Thus essentially implying that the real beneficiaries would not be the ordinary retail investor but institutional investors.
- Using funds made available from disinvestment to bridge the fiscal deficit is an unhealthy and a short term practice. It is said that it is equivalent of selling 'family silver' to meet short term monetary requirements. Borrowing which is the currently used practice for bridging fiscal deficit, should continue to be used since while borrowing, the government has to make interest payments in the future against a one-time borrowing from the market, in the case of disinvestment, future streams of income from dividends are forgone against a one-time receipt from the sale of stakes.
- Effective tax rate for the CPSEs taken together in 2006-07 was 30.78%, while the average effective tax rate for private sector companies in the same year was 19.5% only (as per the Statement on Revenue Forgone, Receipts Budget, 2008-09). Criticism stems from the fact that while not only a major tax revenue source will be lost, the private sector which ideally should be paying an equivalent tax rate is exempted due to tax concessions.
- Employees of PSUs would lose jobs. Past privatisations have shown that these fears are totally unfounded. Some of the companies started the process of restructuring and accepted some voluntary retirement applications but no retrenchments were made. These companies gave VRS to the employees, at scales, which were normally higher than the Government VRS. Shareholders Agreement with private companies normally have a provision that employees interest would be protected by ensuring VRS, which is higher or equal to the Government VRS, if there is a need for restructuring in the number of employees. More so, such exercises were done during the public sector regime also. It has been reported that the response to VRS offered to employees before disinvestment was also sometimes lukewarm as the employees expected a better package after privatisation by the strategic buyer, if and when VRS was offered to them. Very often additional recruitment also took place in privatised companies and the wages increased. To give an example, wages increased by an average of Rs. 1600 per employee in Modern Food Industries Limited in spite of the fact that the company had to approach BIFR within months of being privatised. Hindustan Levers took measures to financially restructure the company and bring it out of BIFR, at their own expense. Had Modern Foods remained a Government Company, the tax payer would have paid for financial restructuring of the company perhaps repeated by another

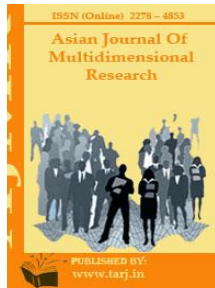
restructuring a couple of years later, as is usual in the public sector. In BALCO, wages had not been increased after April 1999, even though a revision was due. In spite of a loss of about Rs. 200 crore due to the strike which happened as a result of the privatisation exercise, an ex-gratia payment of Rs.5,000/- was paid to all employees and a long term wage agreement for a period of five years was entered into by the Management with the employees in October 2001, which guaranteed benefits of 20% of basic pay to each employee, besides increase in a number of allowances.

- Complete Privatisation may result in public monopolies becoming private monopolies, which would then exploit their position to increase costs of various services and earn higher profits. It needs to be ensured that Privatisation leads to greater competition in all cases.
- Complete Privatisation results in a situation where political compulsions may make companies being sold cheap to preferred parties The process followed for Privatisation needs to be very fair and transparent to ensure a situation such as this does not arise.
- A majority stake sale done to another CPSE results in no real change in ownership, and is thus just hogwash. This is fair to some extent, though it must be realized that some of the CPSEs are very well run, competitive and profit making. Thus, a sale of a loss making CPSE to a well performing CPSE can be a proposition well worth considering.
- Public Offer being the chosen approach for Disinvestments does not yield the best realisation on the assets and is a far too time consuming process. Auctioning to financial institutions (QIBs) should be the preferred modus operandi since it gives the best realisation on the assets, and has minimal transaction cost.

While the realisation on assets might be higher in case of an auctioning process, it must be remembered that the Government is not a private enterprise and hence should not be looking at short-term gains. It should look at the greater good and sell these stakes by public offers to increase retail participation in the capital markets as well as to increase the depth and width of the capital markets. In any case, the loss is minimal as very small stakes are being sold. The real gains for the government lie in the appreciation post-listing. Let us look at the PSU IPOs since 2004 with a trading period of over 1 year. The value of the government holding, courtesy the market, has gone up nearly 3 times from Rs. 238124 crore on the issue date to Rs.454515.79 crore.

ROAD AHEAD

With the equity markets having come off their historic loss in March 2009, there are certain signs of recovery. However, this should not be of any concern to the Government as PSUs, being high quality paper, would always find ready investors if the pricing is reasonable. PSU disinvestment of 10% as per the Government's announced intentions, at attractive prices to retail investors, could ensure a strong message to the investment community about the Government's resolve to continue with reforms.



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WILDERS-HEAVEN'S MY DESTINATION: ZEAL FOR ERADICATING EVIL

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ABSTRACT

Thornton Wilder's is a great name in the field of American Literature he won three Pulitzer prizes for his works. Heaven's My Destination is a different kind of Novel for Wilder. It was his fourth novel and second after the wildly popular The Bridge of San's Luis Ray. It is very episodic Novel. The purpose of the present paper is an in-depth analysis of themes and techniques employed by the Wilder in Heaven's My Destination. It was published in December 1934 in England; the first American Edition followed at the beginning of the New Year. According to author the title comes from "Doggerel verse which children of the Middle West were accustomed to write in their school books. George Brush is the hero in the Novel and Brush holds firmly to Mahatma Gandhi's theory of Ahinsa , the idea that passive resistance to once enemy will conquer him by effecting a change in his social attitudes.

KEYWORDS: *Accustomed, Fundamentalist, Satirical, Prevailed, Destination, Traumatized, Amalgamation, Hypocrisy.*

INTRODUCTION

Thornton Wilder's humanistic approach pervades the themes ,setting and style of his works. It is this quality which distinguishes Wilder from his literary contemporaries. His work can be recognized by its lively style sincere sentiments and intense feeling.

As a novelist, wider successfully conjures powerful images with a handful of material .Heaven's My Destination has its genesis at the MacDowell Colony the summer of 1932 under the title the Ideas and Aventures of Jethro Bentley is the funnies book Thornton Wilders ever wrote. It is a

sympathetic picture of middle class Midwestern America in the twenties a Pilgrim's Progress burlesque of awkward virtue and a commentary on fundamentalist pieties.

In December 1934 Heaven's my Destination was published in England it was the first American edition followed at the beginning of the new year. According to Wilder the title comes from Doggerel verse which children of the middle west were accustomed to write in their school books. He printed the verse in full along with the explanation in the title page, supplying names from the novel:

George Brush is my name;
America's my nation;
Ludington's my dwelling-place
And Heaven's my destination.

Thornton's interest in the sources of the writer's inspiration reflected a personal concern. A few months before Gertrude return to Chicago, his fourth novel has been published- a book that was greatly different from the three that preceded it. Unlike the Cabala, The Bridge of San Luis Rey and The Woman of Andros, Heaven's My Destination was comical often satirical, more like a folk ballad than an allegorical tale. Thornton Wilder admitted that it was his most autobiographical work so far , "I came from very strict Calvinistic father. " he said , "Was brought up partly among the missionaries of China and went to that splendid college at Oberlin at a time when the classrooms and student life carried a good deal of the pious didacticism which would now be called narrow Protestantism. And that book is, as it were an effort to come to terms with those influences."1

Heavens My Destination is not the answer of Michael Gold's plea for a novel on working class necessities. It does not give that icy feeling of sudden impoverishment much depression fiction projects; for only one example, John Steinbeck's The Grapes of Wrath offers a more profoundly unsettling picture of economic distress. In this Paris Review interview of 1956 Thornton Wilder commented frankly on the forces other than those present in the sunken economy which moved him to write the novel. His twenty three year old hero, George Brush, resembles him self as young man in his hard headed Calvinism and What is more attended in a College in which that severe mode of belief prevailed among the student body, as it did at Oberlin. The novel, then , is his attempt to " Come to Terms" with the influences active upon him in youth.2 He has observed privately that brush is drown not only from his own life ,but from the personalities of his father and brother and that lightly covering these is his memory of yet another seeker after the light, Gene Tunney.3

The chief character, George Brush, is also a kind of Elmer Gantry in reverse; and it is possible that Wilder intended the book to be in part and answer to Sinclair Lewis. Like Gantry, Brush gets his early religious training in a Baptist College in the Middle West has an early sexual experiences with a girl from a small town, and runs into difficulty with believers and non believers alike. But unlike Gantry he is the sincere believer himself and where Gantry profits from his hypocrisy ,Brush suffers for his true belief.

Brush's enthusiastic fervor is tested time and again through his encounters with burglars, tarts, drunkards, farm girls, bankers, Lawyers and Psychologically traumatized. Brush try to establish that he did not go through four years of college and a difficult religious conversion to have ideas like other peoples.⁴ Brush works hard to form relationship only to let each of them go once he hears an opinion from the person in question contrary to a conviction of his own. He is said to be , "Good as Gold."⁵ And with justification since he prevents a suicide give money away almost continuously makes a home for an orphan and sends a young woman through College- all without the expectation of a return.

Mid Western Baptist, Moral Reformer and Books Sales Man, Brush represent an amalgamation in there most innocuous and comical forms of the fundamentalist, the humanitarian and that archetype of the materialistic society, the sales man . He symbolizes that one critic called "America in its awkward age"⁶- an America attempting naively to reconcile its, disparate spiritual and materialistic qualities. Brush's innocence is the naiveté not only of the fundamentalist who rejects the theory of evolution and insist up on a literal interpretation of the Bible but also of the humanitarian who, ignorant of evil, is betrayed by both his own lower impulses and those of others to commit acts he regards as sinful.

Far as Brush religious and humanitarian principles are from the " facts of life", they are humane he exasperates people almost beyond endurance but he also helps some of them, even after they have mistreated him. He promises to take responsibility for the child of a dying man who has almost cruelly abused him for instance and saves another from self destruction at the risk of his own life.

It is true that Wilder has put much into Brush's character of which he approves, along with the dismaying stubbornness . Brush quarrels, no matter what form they take are conflicts between spirituality and materialism. With few expectations the persons who come up against his armoured innocence are still clinging to the values of the boom years, that period in American life which from the vantage point of the 1930s same to have undercut all normal principles.

His second arrest in the novel results from another comic situation but ends in deeply felt incident. At this time, in order to act up on another of his beliefs, he assists a hold up man in robbing an elderly woman shop keeper. Brush holds firmly to Mahatma Gandhi's theory of Ahinsa , the idea that passive resistance to once enemy will conquer him by effecting a change in his social attitudes. Knowing that Mrs. Efrim the shop keeper, hides her money under a bolt of cloth, he points it out to the young hoodlum, who has expressed fury over finding no more than two dollars and a quarter in the till. Like the scene in the bank this episode leads to laughter, despite the distress of the woman and the gun of the thief. But its meaning is grave; again Brush is adopting a poison at odds with normality. Through sheer luck he captures the gun and there with gains control of the situation but despite his victory, he is not satisfied to turn the thief over to the police the dictates of Ahinsa require him to give the thief money after all and to send him free.

In one instance three schools rowdies insult their vivacious elderly teachers, Miss Simmons . Their rude and in polite behavior enrages Brush in this endeavor to make the apologize. Brush physically assaults one of them. But after hitting him, he regrets it immensely. The Minister of

the school Church who was paying rich tributes to Brush tries to explain to him. “But-but, Mr. Brush! The man was rude to Miss Simmons. I understand that what he said was almost and insult.”⁷ Brush’s answer to this justification echoes Mahatma Gandhi’s philosophy of non violence and Ahinsa. He says, “It is a hard thing to think clearly about ... I guess we ought to have let him insult her. You see Mr. Forrest, the theory is this : If bad people are treated kindly by the people they insult, why then they start thinking about it and then they become ashamed. That’s the theory. That’s Gandhi’s Theory.”⁸ This is brilliant summation of Gandhi’s philosophy of non violence. It is fascinating indeed that “of all the forms of genius goodness has the longest awkward age.”

Brush’s growth towards maturity is slow but his obsession with self improvement offers hope that this goodness will eventually be balanced by intelligence. He learns in the course of his travels, for example, that belief in evolution may not be immoral. At the end of the book he goes through a “Crisis” that leads him into temporary disbelief, but after his faith is renewed by an expression of confidence in him by another man of faith – a dying Catholic priest whom Brush never meets- he continues with the same activities he pursued at the beginning except that now he meets a waitress who is reading Darwin and arranges to put her through College. Purged of some of their worst elements of ignorance and narrowness, his faith and morals are more secure as the story ends; and he is considerably more prepared for the “business of living” than before.

Brush’s fundamentalism without disturbing the theme. For those less doctrinaire readers who had enjoyed the settings Wilders had previously shown them, the depression landscape had no allure. Any how the novel seems to be a bold venture to analyze all those inapplicable aspects of life which baffle modern man. The pattern become significant because it faces the absurdity of the human condition in the spirit of a comedy. It is an exercise in introspection. The mother superior of a convent in Ohio paid a fine tribute to the work when she said that it was an allegory of the stages of spiritual life.

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FOOD SECURITY THROUGH PUBLIC DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM IN INDIA: EVOLUTION, EFFICACY AND NEED FOR REFORMS

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INTRODUCTION

Evolution of public distribution of grains in India had its origin in the 'rationing' system introduced by the British during the World War II. In view of the fact that the rationing system and its successor, the public distribution system (PDS) has played an important role in attaining higher levels of the household food security and completely eliminating the threats of famines from the face of the country, it will be in the fitness of things that its evolution, working and efficacy are examined in some details.

It was really the generation of World War's own compulsions that forced the then British Government to introduce the first structured public distribution of cereals in India through the rationing system-sale of a fixed quantity of ration (rice or wheat) to entitled families (ration card holders) in specified cities/towns. The system was started in 1939 in Bombay and subsequently extended to other cities and towns. By the end of 1943, 13 cities had been brought under the coverage of rationing and by 1946, as many as 771 cities/towns were covered. Some rural areas, suffering from chronic shortage were also covered. The Department of Food under the Government of India was created in 1942, which helped in food matters getting the serious attention of the government. When the War ended, India, like many other countries, decided to abolish the rationing system. This was in 1943. However, on attaining Independence, India was forced to reintroduce it in 1950 in the face of renewed inflationary pressures in the economy immediately after independence "which were accentuated by the already prevailing high global prices of foodgrains at the end of the War, which were around four times higher than the prewar prices". (Bhatia, 1985)

Public distribution of foodgrains was retained as a deliberate social policy by India, when it embarked on the path of a planned economic development in 1951. It was, in fact, an important

component of the policy of growth with justice. In the first five year plan, the system, which was essentially urban based till then was extended to all such rural areas which suffered from chronic food shortages. It was also decided to have two variations of the system, Statutory Rationing Areas, where foodgrains availability was supposed to be only through the Ration Shops and Non-Statutory Rationing Areas, where such shops would only supplement the open market availability. The system, however, continued to remain an essentially urban oriented activity. In fact, towards the end of the first five year plan (1956), the system was losing its relevance due to comfortable foodgrains availability. The net (gross minus 12.5 per cent for seed, feed and wastage) retail level availability of foodgrains had jumped from 54.0 million tonnes in 1953 to 63.3 million tonnes in 1954 and remained at 63 plus million tonnes up to end of the first five year plan. This situation even prompted the government to abandon procurement of foodgrains and remove all controls on the private trading in foodgrains. However, true to its cyclic nature, the production dropped to 58.3 million tonnes in 1958, when the second five year plan had just started and forced the government to not only restart the procurement of cereals and put control on trading of foodgrains but re-examine the need for public distribution system (PDS). It was decided to re-introduce PDS. Other essential commodities like sugar, cooking coal, kerosene oil were added to the commodity basket of PDS. There was also a rapid increase in the Ration Shops (now being increasingly called the fair price shops-FPSs) and their number went up from 18000 in 1957 to 51000 in 1961. Moreover, quantity of foodgrains distributed through PDS started getting increased with PL-480 availability. Thus, by the end of the Second Five Year Plan, PDS had changed from the typical rationing system to a social safety system, making available foodgrains at a 'fair price' so that access of households to foodgrain could be improved and such distribution could keep a check on the speculative tendencies in the market. The concept of buffer stocks was also incorporated in the overall food policy, although no buffer worth the name was required to be created in view of easy and continuous availability of PL-480 grains.

Creation of Food Corporation of India and Agricultural Prices Commission in 1965 consolidated the position of PDS. Government was now committed to announce a minimum support price for wheat and paddy and procure of quantities that could not fetch even such minimum prices in the market. The resultant stocks were to be utilized for maintaining distribution through the PDS and a portion of these were used to create and maintain buffer stocks. In fact, if stocks happened to be inadequate for maintaining a certain level of distribution through PDS, government had to resort to imports to honour its charge to PDS consumers. All through the ups and downs of Indian agriculture, PDS was continued as a deliberate social policy of the government with the objectives of:

- i) Providing foodgrains and other essential items to vulnerable sections of the society at reasonable (subsidised) prices;
- ii) to have a moderating influence on the open market prices of cereals, the distribution of which constitutes a fairly big share of the total marketable surplus; and
- iii) to attempt socialisation in the matter of distribution of essential commodities.

The PDS seeks to provide to the beneficiaries two cereals, rice and wheat and four essential commodities viz. sugar, edible oil, soft coke and kerosene oil. However, state governments, which actually manage the system at the ground level, are exhorted to add other essential commodities like pulses, salt, candles, matchboxes, ordinary clothes, school text books/copies

and the like. Supply of additional items through PDS is especially relevant in interior areas, which are away from markets and where one or two traditional shopkeepers, who also double up for money-lenders, have the market monopoly. A number of state governments have set up Civil Supplies or Essential Commodities Corporations to buy such additional items directly from the manufacturers and use the existing structure of PDS to arrange for the sale at lower than market rates.

Making available the six essential commodities (rice, wheat, sugar, edible oil, soft coke and kerosene oil) to the state government is the responsibility of the central government. Taking commodities other than cereals (rice and wheat) first, the arrangement for such supply is as under:

Sugar:	Central government, under the provisions of the Essential Commodities Act, fixes a levy percentage and accordingly every sugar factory has to deliver that percentage of production to the government. Presently, the levy is 40 per cent. Central government allots to the state governments every month share of the sugar out of the overall levy quantity on the basis of 425 gins/capita on 1991 population. State govts then arrange to lift it from the nominated factories and arrange to sell it through the PDS. Sugar factories deliver the sugar at the cost fixed by the central government which in turn is based on the minimum support price payable by the factories to the sugarcane farmers. The non-levy or free sale sugar can be sold by the factories in the open market at whatever price they like.
Edible Oil:	The distribution of edible oil through PDS has now become an occasional phenomenon. Whenever production of oilseeds dips and prices of edible oils rise steeply making it too expensive for poor people, central government imports oils like Palmoelin or Rapeseed through its trading agencies and allots it among state governments who sell it through PDS. Depending on its international prices and the domestic prices, it may be sold at subsidised or at no loss no profit basis.
Soft Coke:	Soft coke is allotted to state governments from out of the stocks held by the public sector coal companies. As this is a cheap cooking medium for very poor households, it is sold at substantially subsidised rates. As and when areas are covered by distribution of LPG gas, in cylinders or piped, the allocation of soft coke to states is reduced.
Kerosene Oil:	Kerosene oil is used both as a lighting material and a cooking medium by poor households-as cooking mostly in urban areas and as lighting material mostly in interior rural areas. The supply to the state governments, on the basis of allocations made by the central government, is arranged by the public sector oil companies either from domestic production or by imports. It is also sold at subsidised prices.

Rice and Wheat:	As far as rice and wheat are concerned, it is the Food Corporation of India which builds, holds & distributes them. The stocks of these commodities are built almost entirely through domestic procurement. As detailed elsewhere, imports are now occasional and in small quantities. These stocks are utilized both for allocations to the state governments for distribution through PDS and also for maintaining a national buffer. In good years of production, procurement levels are normally high, distribution is less and there is a buildup of buffer stocks. In years of poor production, the distribution is more due to higher demand and better lifting by States/Union Territories and the buffer stocks get drawn down.
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It can safely be surmised that two or more successive years of good production will ease the open market prices, leaving no incentive for farmers and traders to hold back stocks and thereby result in good procurement.. This situation will also reduce off take and buffer stocks will be built up. On the other hand, two or more successive years of poor production will harden open market prices, give rise to speculative tendencies, reduce procurement, increase the demand on PDS resulting in heavy off take and lowering of stocks.

REVIEW OF PDS IN INDIA

With a network of more than 400,000 Fair Price Shops (FPS), the Public Distribution System (PDS) in India is perhaps the largest distribution machinery of its type in the world. PDS is said to distribute each year commodities worth more than Rs 15,000 crore to about 16 crore families. This huge network can play a more meaningful role if only the system is able to translate into micro level a macro level self-sufficiency by ensuring availability of food grains for the poor households.

Access of the poor to food is a priority objective for two reasons: Firstly, though the growth of food grain production in 1989-99 was lower than the increase in population during the same decade, procurement of grains was indeed going up, which is suggestive of a decline in people's consumption or in the purchasing power of the poor. This may have happened because of structural imbalances in the economy: rising capital intensity, lack of land reforms, failure of poverty alleviation programmes, growing disparity between towns and villages, and the like. To this may be added production problems in less endowed regions, which have led to a dangerous situation of huge pile-up inside Food Corporation of India's (FCI) godowns and widespread incidence of hunger outside. It is just as important to correct these policy imbalances as to increase food production. Secondly, if consumption of the poor does not increase there would be serious demand constraints on agriculture and could make the growth target of 4.5% per annum unachievable.

IMPLEMENTATION OF TPDS

As it stood earlier, PDS was criticised on a wide front: its failure to serve the population Below Poverty Line (BPL), for its perceived urban bias, negligible coverage in States with a high density of rural poor and lack of transparent and accountable arrangements for delivery. Given that backdrop, the Government acted to streamline PDS during the Ninth Five Year Plan period

by issuing special cards to BPL families and selling to them foodgrains through PDS outlets at specially subsidised prices (with effect from June, 1997).

Under the new Targeted Public Distribution System (TPDS) each poor family is entitled to 10 kilograms of food grains per month (20 kg wef April 2000) at specially subsidised prices. This is likely to benefit about six crore poor families, to whom a quantity of about 72 lakh tonnes of food grains per year is earmarked. The identification of the beneficiaries is done by the States, based on state-wise poverty estimates of the Planning Commission. The thrust is to limit the benefit to the truly poor and vulnerable sections: landless agricultural labourers, marginal farmers, rural artisans/craftsmen, potters, tappers, weavers, blacksmiths, and carpenters in the rural areas; similarly those covered by TPDS in urban areas are slum dwellers and people earning livelihood on a daily basis in the informal sector like the porters and rickshaw pullers and hand cart pullers, fruit and flower sellers on the pavements, etc.

The allocation of food grains to States is based on consumption in the past, that is, the average annual off-take during 1986-87 to 1995-96. Food grains out of this average-lifting -- in excess of the BPL needs at the rate of 10 kg per family per month -- are provided to the States as 'transitory allocation' and a quantity of 103 lakh tonnes is earmarked for this annually. This transitory allocation is intended to continue the benefit of subsidised grains to population above poverty line (APL) to whom an abrupt withdrawal of PDS facility was not considered desirable. The 'transitory' allocation is issued at prices which are subsidised but higher than prices fixed for the BPL quota.

Following the TPDS introduction, representations were received from several States / Union Territories (UTs) that the new allocation was much lower than the earlier level of allocations particularly during 1996-97. As a result of this and keeping in view the guidelines for implementation of TPDS, additional allocations -- over and above TPDS quota -- were made to States /UTs at economic cost from June, 1997 to November, 1997. At a Conference in September 1997, Chief Ministers reviewed the TPDS implementation and the states demanded that the additional allocations be made at APL rates. Accordingly, the additional quantities are being allocated at APL rates from December 1997 subject to availability of food grains in the Central pool and constraints of food subsidy.

Huge as it may seem on paper, all is not well with the Public Distribution System. A large subsidy each year keeps the system going. A close look at the Table would show that the level of food subsidies as a proportion of total Government expenditure has gone up from about 2.5 percent or below at the beginning of the 1990s to about 3 percent towards the end of the decade. One of the issues in the PDS operation has been how to contain the food subsidy within reasonable levels.

The PDS has been functioning for more than four decades now, if we leave aside its predecessor, the rationing system. Its greatest achievement lies in preventing any more famines in India. As recently as during the 1987 drought, considered worst in the century, the PDS helped the country overcome it with dignity and effectiveness. "The result of diet and nutrition survey during the 1987 drought showed that widespread hunger and its consequences experienced earlier in 1960, & 1970 were arrested in 1987". (Nutrition assessment & Analysis NIN, March 1992). Of course, build up of a buffer in preceding years provided the wherewithals to PDS as well as food for work type of programmes. Its major drawback, however, has been its lack of effective contribution towards household food security. In fact, it remains one of the weaker components

of the food policy trioka of procurement, distribution and stocking. The other two components have fully exhibited their worth. But for carefully worked out support prices with a structure to guarantee these, the farmer would not have been induced to produce more and more foodgrains.

In fact, without FCI and other procuring agencies ready at thousands of purchase centres to step in and purchase grain if the producer was not getting higher price than the Government announced procurement price, the private trade could never have handled the huge quantities that come to market at harvest time and prices would have crashed, making all the efforts and investment of farmer go waste. As for the buffer stocks, it was the stock built in the preceding years (which had reached an all time high of 27 million tonnes on 1.7.1986), which came handy and enabled the country to meet the challenge thrown up by the great drought of 1986-87, a challenge which was met successfully without seeking any food aid from any quarter. No desperate purchases were required and import of some wheat and rice could be deferred to 1988-89 when the country could import on its own terms.

The PDS also, no doubt, played a great role by making available rice and wheat at the fixed prices to consumers in all nooks and corners of the country, thereby preventing the spectre of famine in any part of the country. This distribution network also supplied grains for the "food for work" type programmes taken up on a large scale to fight the drought. The shortcomings noticed in the functioning of PDS as it is structured presently, range from it being urban biased and pro-rich to its ineffectiveness in reaching the poor. The system has, however, come to stay, notwithstanding its shortcomings, because millions of India's poor derive direct or indirect benefits from the very existence of this system.

The World Bank in their report of 1991 has observed that "poverty consideration will compel India to sustain publicly sponsored foodgrain procurement, storage and distribution efforts. These programmes are even more important in a period of economic downturn and adjustment, to ensure an adequate safety net". As regards urban bias, a study has shown that "in case of all commodities except coal, more than 50 per cent of the total quantity purchased under PDS is in the rural areas... PDS is rural based at all-India level for rice, coarse cereals, sugar and cloth. These items constitute more than 60 per cent of the total PDS purchases. Hence, it appears that PDS is not urban biased but pro-rural" (Mahendra Dev & Suryanarayana, 1991). As regards its being pro-rich, the same study finds that "more or less all the population [income] groups depend uniformly to the same extent on the PDS with respect to all commodities in rural areas, even though there were slight variations", (Dev & Suryanarayana, 1991). Thus, even though PDS appears to be even-handed for all income groups, this very finding points to its failure in achieving its basic goal of helping the poor.

It is also said that PDS is not cost effective, its operations are too costly and the ratio between procurement and transportation is too high pointing to 'wasteful' movements. It is also mentioned that storage losses are very high. However, if one was to analyse the various costs of FCI, it will be seen that almost 80% of the costs of FCI are non-controllable and FCI just cannot do anything if these rise. Example of such costs are minimum support price/ procurement price which have increased by almost 20% per annum in the past four years; interest rates for bank credit; rail and road transportation cost etc. Thus, hardly 20% of the costs are amenable to cost reduction by FCI and efforts need to be intensified in increasing labour productivity i.e., handling costs; rationalisation of movement plans to avoid criss-cross movement; reduction in transit and storage losses etc.

Another valid criticism of the PDS is its marginal impact, as far as income transfer to poor households is concerned, with too many or everyone being eligible to draw foodgrains from PDS, the per capita transfer of income is very small. In an study based on National Sample Survey's 42nd round (NSSO, 1990), it has been found that "the value of the subsidy is so little even for those households who make all their purchases of cereals from rationshops. For the bottom 20% of the rural population, the subsidy is no more than Rs. 2.08 per capita per 30 days. With the average family size of 6, the subsidy per family is almost Rs. 12.50 per month. In other words, it is useful to note here, one person day of additional employment per family per month would provide the same income support as provided by the cereals distributed under PDS" (Parikh, 1993).

Most of the above shortcomings flow from the universal nature of the present PDS, with benefit having been thinly spread over all the beneficiaries, be they rich or poor. "While a number of studies have suggested proper targeting of PDS, none of them have discussed the costs and political feasibility of targeting. The administrative costs of targeting have been reported to be high in some developing countries. Many studies have also reported a high percentage of leakages in the event of targeting". (Radhakrishnan & Rao, 1993). The main weakness in PDS i.e. not reaching poor effectively stems from the universality of the PDS coverage. Every household, irrespective of its income, can have an entitlement card and draw foodgrains against it. This in turn leads to low scales per household and first come first served system of delivery. These two combine to allow leakages and diversions on the one hand and "no commitment" syndrome on the part of the poor households on the other. If PDS could be targeted to the poor, a larger proportion of the household's requirement could be met by enhancing the scale and it would also be able to generate a commitment on the part of card holders on the system. Beneficiaries could then be organised and educated. They would then monitor the supplies and sales themselves to ensure that supplies reach the fair price shop in proper quantity and quality and are sold to genuine beneficiaries. The entitled households would also then demand their quota from the FPS owner and would not be turned away by the shopkeeper by saying that whatever quantity had come has been sold away or that the bad quality grains were supplied (in some cases replaced by unscrupulous vested interest) and beneficiary would find such stocks not worth purchasing at that price. Targeting of PDS to the really needy is, therefore, immediately required and an effective PDS maintained till such time the country has poor, needy households.

DIVERSION OF PDS COMMODITIES

In response to complaints, a study was conducted by the Tata Economic Consultancy Services to know how much of PDS supplies were diverted from the system. At the national level, it was found, there was a diversion of 36% of wheat supplies, 31% of rice and 23% sugar. Statistically at 90%-confidence level, the actual diversion of wheat would fall in the range of 32-40%, rice in 27-35% and sugar 20-26%. Table-2 shows the extent of diversion in various States and Union Territories.

It is significant to note that the diversion is estimated less in the case of sugar as compared to rice and wheat. The PDS is better organized in towns where sugar is consumed while its infrastructure is weak in rural areas, especially in poorer Northern, Eastern and North Eastern States.

CHANGES IN LAW

A key legislation, Essential Commodities Act (E C Act), was enacted during a time when the country was faced with severe food shortages and scarcity. Restrictions under the Act, which were relevant 30 years back, could hamper productive/ commercial activity in the market in an era of self-sufficiency/surplus in food grain output and in other primary commodities.

There are several licences and permits to be obtained from the authorities under the E C Act. Apart from this a large number of registers are to be maintained and returns filed periodically. Inspections are carried out to ensure compliance. All these have pushed operational costs to traders. Some examples of such controls are given below:

Gujarat limits stock-holding in pulses to 25 quintals for licence holders and to just nine quintals for others. The Government of Maharashtra has set a maximum storage period of 15 days for wholesale dealers. In Kerala, stocking of sugar is limited to 250 bags. In Andhra Pradesh, the stockholding in pulses and oils can be up to one month's stock of raw material and half a month's stock of finished goods. In Uttar Pradesh, wholesale dealers have a stockholding limit of 1,000 quintals. In Punjab, a limit of 250 quintals is applied on rice stored while West Bengal has similar storage limits for rice (750 quintals) and wheat (400 quintals) for wholesale dealers. In Assam the wholesale dealer can store up to 10 quintals without licence.

Some Orders/Notifications under the E C Act restrict movement of goods from surplus States to deficit States. State Governments issue Movement Control Orders to enforce the restrictions. The Government may specify that transportation of certain commodities can be undertaken only after obtaining a general permit or a special transport permit. Most of these orders and notifications come into force at harvesting time and are published in the official gazette, beyond the ordinary reach of the public.

In Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, farmers are not allowed to do direct sales outside the State. Permits are required for such sales. In Hyderabad, a permit from Managing Director of the Civil Supplies Corporation is required while in other cases in A.P the District Collector or Civil Supplies Officer of the district issues the permit. . In Tanjore district of Tamil Nadu, the State Government imposes restriction on movement of paddy out of the district. Maharashtra, similarly, controls movement of cotton.

Such inter-state movement restrictions tend to depress prices and are seen as 'anti-farmer,' especially when Government and agencies like Food Corporation of India do not have adequate storage capacity available. Free movement will benefit consumers in deficit regions such as Kerala, besides securing a good price to farmers in producing States without burdening the exchequer via subsidy route.

Orders like Cold Storage and Fruit Products Orders specify storage rent to be determined by the authorities and the licensee is liable to punishment if he does not rent out space to Government agencies or cooperatives.

Controls/restrictions under E C Act are seen as a disincentive to production and distribution of essential commodities. Traders reportedly operate at high margins and share a part of these with inspectors. With the increased production in essential commodities, it is recommended that all agricultural produce and its products be deleted from the definition of "essential commodities" under Section 2(a) of E C Act and all Control Orders relating to or affecting agricultural

produce/products be rescinded. Action in this direction may be initiated for wheat and sugar to begin with, it is suggested. Also, State intervention may now be directed to make the markets friendly to the poor.

In new initiatives, several State Governments have initiated their own food procurement operations. More such initiatives are likely in the future. It is conceivable that some of Central agency FCI's go-downs (with staff) are transferred to the State Governments. In this context the task of maintaining buffer stocks will become a responsibility of Central and State Governments. There is also a possibility that FCI play a more active role in undertaking open market operations within a prescribed price band. It can release stocks in the open market when shortages are prevalent and prices are high. The FCI could also become an active player in the international food grains market.

Most storage go-downs with FCI are small-scale, low -quality structures; sometimes, grains are also stored in the open (known as covered and plinth storage -- CAP) leading to heavy storage losses. On other issues, the present extraction rates for wheat and rice are about 10 % to 30 % below the international standards due to reservation of agro-processing units for small sector who uses inefficient technologies.

Private transporters get a low priority on railway movement forcing them to rely on more expensive truck transport. As regards the Minimum Support Price, there is a need strictly to adhere to what the Commission for Agricultural Costs and Prices recommends rather than fix procurement prices much in excess of estimated costs of production.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF EXISTING PDS

The author had conducted a survey of the actual operation of the PDS in the two Himalayan hill districts of Uttar Pradesh state in the Northern India (Nawani, N.P., Unpub, Sept. 1993). PDS beneficiaries (i.e. head of the household) as well as Fair Price Shop (FPS) owners were selected on random basis although in case of FPSs, effort was made to select FPS, on the basis of distance from the motorable road. In all, 16 FPSs and 128 households were taken up for detailed survey on the basis of two different sets of questionnaires. Attempt was also made to select households from amongst various income groups i.e. under each FPS, two households each from out of farmers, salaried/businessman, part-farmers and labourers/unemployed. Research methodology adopted consisted of detailed survey of households and FPS owners as also personal discussions with selected households, people at large and local officials. Such talks and on the spot discussions were mainly held by the author himself although the two supervisors of Investigators in each of the two district also did this as they visited all villages selected for survey and they, in turn, had detailed discussions with the author. The survey threw up some suggestions for improvement in the functioning of PDS which without going into their details, are briefly mentioned below:

- i) Delivery of Stocks to FPSs should be on actual and not on sample weighing.
- ii) Retail price at FPSs should be uniform throughout the state/area after weight-averaging the transport cost for the FPS.
- iii) Regular supply of good quality grains has to be ensured.
- iv) Entitlement card's easy availability and improvement in its design and durability.

- v) FPS doorstep delivery of PDS commodities instead of delivery to FPS owners at FCI godowns.
- vi) Improvement in the viability of FPSs.
- vii) Enlarging the basket of PDS commodities to enhance its utility as also to improve economic viability of FPSs.
- viii) Streamlining of the supply chain by construction of small intermediary godowns between FCI's base godown and FPSs in the interior.
- ix) Introduction of a more effective Management Information System.

POLICY REFORMS REQUIRED IN PDS

Almost all food-managers, experts and even members of the political executive feel that targeting PDS to poor is a fundamental reform that cannot be deferred for too long. In the study report submitted by the author to the Minister for Civil Supplies (Nawani, N.P., Sept. 1993) not only the targetisation of PDS has been strongly recommended but the way it can be implemented, keeping the twin objectives in mind, that of making PDS an effective safety net for poor and keeping distribution within limits set by domestic procurement and subsidy budget. As an effective PDS will greatly enhance food security for poor households, it is proposed to deal with it in somewhat greater detail. However, before we go on to that, a brief description of some measures already initiated by the Prime Minister (When he was also holding the portfolio of the Minister for Civil Supplies, Consumer Affairs and Public Distribution) in 1992 will be in order.

REVAMPING OF PDS

With the change of the political executive at the national level in 1991, the present Prime Minister accorded very high priority to the PDS and for quite some time himself looked after the Ministry. It was felt that the really vulnerable areas and people were not getting the desired benefits of PDS due to their disadvantageous geographic location, weak PDS infrastructure and low purchasing power. It was, therefore, decided that PDS should be reoriented for ensuring effective reach to the remotest and the most disadvantaged areas of the country which also had the concentration of poor. Accordingly, around 1750 blocks, composed of tribal, hilly, drought prone and 'decertified areas, were identified and included in crash programme designated "Revamped PDS" or for short "RPDS". The plan of action included:

- i) A number of new FPS to be opened so that physical access of beneficiaries is improved;
- ii) Special campaign to be mounted by the state governments to cancel the bogus entitlement cards and to issue new cards to households found to be without them;
- iii) To progressively bring more and more FPS under the system of FPS doorstep delivery of PDS commodities;
- iv) Set up vigilance committees of local people with substantial representation of women for each FPS at the village level and also at higher levels;
- v) Improve the supply chain by constructing or hiring small intermediary godowns; and
- vi) Introduce additional commodities through FPS, in these areas.

"An analysis of the implementation of RPDS has shown that during 1992-93, per capita allocation in RPDS areas was higher than other areas and whereas offtake (actual distribution) against allocation was only 73 per cent in other areas it was 91% in RPDS areas. States were also moving towards the norm of 20 kg./family/month. The positive trend that emerges from the analysis is that the PDS, which was predominantly urban till the mid 1980s has now been effectively targeted for the traditionally deficit areas covered by RPDS." (Min. of Civil Supplies etc., 1993).

TARGETING PDS TO ONLY POOR HOUSEHOLDS

Poverty and associated hunger is a curse and every civilized society endeavours to alleviate extreme manifestations of poverty in their own way. Every country tries to do it-be it an economic giant and torch-bearer of the free markets like USA or a small happy go lucky Jamaica. The underlying policy approach is, however, more or less same and is basically built on 'providing direct assistance to poor households' so that their access to essentials of life like food is improved. The policy could be implemented through an income transfer mechanism like Food Stamps or cash doles (as in USA etc.) or a dual price system (e.g., through a PDS as in India etc.). These mechanism or their variations, cost money and this has to come from the food subsidy budgets of the country.

In India, a country of around 900 million people, of which around one third lived in poverty as per 1986-87 estimates, any programme seeking to achieve such a goal will require vast sums of subsidy and it, therefore, becomes imperative that it is utilised in the most cost effective manner so that it helps poor households to attain adequate levels of food security in the true sense. An important question that arises is whether, in the present scenario, when availability of subsidy is greatly constrained by overall fiscal deficit, can we continue to fritter away whatever amount of food subsidy we can mobilise? Since we simply cannot do this, we just cannot continue with a PDS which consumes none-too-small Rs 30000 million subsidy annually, but allows it to be available to anybody who wishes to draw on it, irrespective of whether he is poor or rich.

Besides, the inherent weakness of a universal PDS, as organised now, allows quite a bit of diversion and leakage. Part of the subsidy is, therefore, going to the non-poor and even to the FPS dealers, handling contractors and some state functionaries involved in unscrupulous siphoning off and replacement of commodities. Such wastage of this precious and limited subsidy cannot be allowed any longer, and therefore, there is no alternative but to direct the subsidy to the poor and nobody else. Once this is accepted, the mechanism for achieving such focus can be chosen, depending on the situation prevailing in the country. We will also have to decide whether to create an altogether new mechanism or build upon the four decades old foundation provided by the PDS.

It will also be necessary to ensure that the size of the population to be covered should be such that they all can be effectively accommodated under the newly created safety net, the largeness of the net being limited by the physical (government stocks of foodgrains) and financial (amount available for food subsidy) resources of the country. The present PDS can hardly be described as a safety net. Each and every Indian and also some ghost card holders, presently constitute the unorganized crowd that jostles under the ungainly net, nobody knowing who is able to receive the shelter under it or who, requiring such shelter badly, is being kept out or pushed out. As explained earlier, in this vast country, with millions of poor, we cannot dispense with the net

altogether; there is therefore, no option but to mend the net, erect it afresh with only the needy households under it.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- There is need to amend law to ban controls and restrictions on trade between States. There should be free movement of all kinds of commodities including agricultural produce.
- While it would be expedient to continue with support price for agricultural produce like wheat, paddy, cotton etc, the need to abolish or phase out levy or monopoly purchase should be considered. Levy acts as a tax on the processors which is then passed on to the producers. Government should buy rice for its public distribution system through an open tender system.
- Remove licensing controls on Roller Flour Mills and other food processing industry. De-reserve food processing units, especially rapeseed and groundnut processing units, from Small Scale Industry (SSI) list.
- Impose tariff on import of wheat and encourage roller flour mills to buy from the farmers.
- Even during 1999-2000 when food stocks were at its all-time peak, restrictions were imposed on export of rice. Export needs to be encouraged; broken rice could be imported for the TPDS. FCI should be allowed to intervene in the food grains market within a predetermined price band to moderate prices and facilitate management of surplus food stocks.
- Scrap Essential Commodities Act; or at least take wheat, rice and sugar out of its purview.
- Completely decontrol sugar and take it out of PDS.
- Limiting public distribution of essential items to targeted groups; abolishing PDS for APL while retaining TPDS.
- Lifting of the ban on Futures Trading of agricultural commodities. This will help in containing the wide fluctuations in commodity prices, besides cutting down the cost of marketing by hedging the risk.
- Abolish Milk and Milk Products Order (MMPO), which restricts private sector investment in milk processing.

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DYNAMICS OF PLANNED DEVELOPMENT AND WOMEN ISSUES

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ABSTRACT

The issues relating to women and rising concern about women empowerment has been at the centre stage in developmental process in the 21st century. In order to convert constitutional commitments into reality, planned development has played a momentous role towards empowering the women and ameliorating their status. Since its inception, a paradigmatic shift has been witnessed from 'welfare perspective' during the First Five Year Plan (1951- 56) to 'gender and development' approach in developmental planning for women during the Eleventh Five Year Plan (2001-2012) and the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017). These five year plans were conceptualised to strategically carry out the development process by focussing on the areas that needed to be dealt with special concern in order to reach out to the aspirations and ideals of the people in a country by translating them into practical action. Devising of developmental policies and programmes has irrefutably made a difference to the socio-economic status of women in the country, both in women-specific and women-related sectors, through various five-year plans. Those involved in the planning process are rightly wary of the fact that women are the deprived lot in our country because of multifarious deprivations primarily owing to socio-cultural, institutional, economic and financial discriminations. Assessment of the social environment is very crucial, especially in judging the position of women in a given society keeping in view the discriminations and spiralling number of cases of violence against women-both overt and covert. A gender perspective in promoting growth with equity, justice and inclusion of all citizens in development can prove to be critical towards attaining the primary objective of current development plans in a realistic manner. A life-cycle approach to women's development requires an environment that provides overall security to girls and women, from conception to death. The paper seeks to analyse the contribution of strategic development in addressing the women issues.

KEYWORDS: *Five Year Plans.*

INTRODUCTION

Gender mainstreaming has become the catchphrase in the developmental process. Planned development has helped in concretising the Constitutional commitments in a meaningful manner towards empowering the women. As a process of planned development inaugurated in 1951, a series of five-year plans were launched. These five-year plans are blueprint of a country's development and were conceptualised in response to the prevailing and evolving ideology of development. These were further influenced by the findings of various review committees and commissions as well as by the pronouncements and declarations of various international forums and conferences where the country was an active participant. Each Five Year Plan serves as an evaluation of the past actions and provides direction for the future. It seeks to fulfil the aspirations and expectations of the people by crystallising them into practical action. Nonetheless, a paradigmatic shift has been evidenced from 'welfare perspective' during the First Five Year Plan (1951- 56) to 'gender and development' approach in developmental planning for women in the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017).

WELFARIST APPROACH

The main concern during the First Five Year Plan (1951-56)¹ was the subordinate status of women in the society. The women's issues were perceived as primarily 'social issues and were viewed with great hesitation and caution by those involved in planning. Issues identified by the National Planning Committee's Sub-Committee on Women ("Women in a planned Economy" 1941) were not considered by the official planners till a decade later.² Instead women were projected as beings in need of education, health and welfare services only.

The policy makers did not perceive women as an economically productive human resource in the sphere of small and village industries sector, handicraft or handlooms or even agriculture where there is concentration of women employment. However, the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB)³ set up on recommendation of the planners in 1953 identified the problem of absence of any governmental machinery at most levels for welfare related activities and undertook to promote a number of welfare measures through voluntary organizations, encouraging women's organizations to take up such activities in partnership with government. Promotion of organizations of women at various levels, especially at the grassroots, was at the heart of this strategy. Mahila Mandals were promoted as delivery mechanisms for essential services of education, health especially maternal and child health etc. both by the CSWB and the Community Development Programme through the first and the second Five Year Plans. This combination of institution building and human resource development was also expected to prepare women to participate in the political and developmental processes. The issues relating to women in the matter of education, health or employment were submerged in the respective sectoral discussions which was a 'welfarist' approach based on a uni-dimensional perception of women's role as mothers or wives rather as individuals to "self-development and self-expression".

The Second Five Year Plan (1956-61)⁴ reiterated comprehensive social welfare programme which would include besides other things – social legislation, welfare of women and children, family welfare and youth welfare. Some priority was accorded to women's education after the

Report of the National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59). Planners, however failed to address the major problems of poverty, illiteracy, non-enrollment, drop out etc. that affected the prioritising of issues.

The Third Five Year Plan⁵ (1961-66) continued the thrust of its predecessor and as a sequel to the earlier two plans. It also emphasized on the welfare aspect of the women. During the Fourth Five Year Plan⁶ (1969-74), no exclusive scheme was adopted specially for women. Though the focus started shifting from welfare to social sectors i.e. education and health and human resource development, there was still no focus on women's economic situation or their role in productive sectors, like agriculture, animal husbandry etc. where most of them worked.⁷ Gradually, there was a change in policy from viewing women as targets of welfare policies to recognising them as critical groups of development.

INTEGRATION OF WELFARE AND DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

From the Fifth Plan (1974-79)⁸, the emphasis definitely moved to development because it was felt that India could not develop if 50% of its population i.e. women, were unable to develop to their full potential. Therefore, the new approach aimed at integration of welfare schemes with development services and stress was laid along with education and health, on beneficiary oriented schemes of economic benefit and employment for women.

A Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI) was set-up in 1971 to evaluate the progress of Five Year Plans which came as blow to the dynamics of development that had adversely affected a large section of women and created new disparities and imbalances. The pre-independence planning document had addressed women's economic, civil and social rights. However, despite the provisions of the Directive Principles of State Policy, economic rights and needs were not really built into the first five plans. The growing emphasis on population control highlighted women's reproductive, rather than their productive roles, influencing 'populationist' approach to women's development needs.⁹ This evoked the consciousness that women should not be treated as the targets of the welfare policies but as critical inputs for national development. The committee, as a prelude to the International Women's Year 1975 and the first UN World Conference on Women, was mandated to report on the various dimensions of women's development; was a historic document which brought out women's marginalisation in the society, exploitation in the economy, denial of access to power, exclusion from decision making and most importantly brutalisation within and outside households.¹⁰

The Committee noted the unfortunate 'invisibility' of women in the major sectors of Indian economy. This process of marginalisation of the large majority of women in the economy and their consequent neglect and devaluation by the society and the State, were demonstrations of gender class and urban bias. Declining sex ratio as a composite indicator of the worsening situation of the majority of women was also noted with concern. The increasing investment on education, health and the opening of opportunities for public employment had benefited a small minority, widening the gap between this minority and the majority of women. Even amongst the privileged minority, the promise of gender equality was threatened by escalation of social practices like dowry, continued inequality in personal laws (including Hindu Law which had been 'reformed' after independence) non-enforcement of existing laws, which sought to offer some protection to women (e.g. labour laws or criminal law), and the 'invisibility' of women's needs, concerns and perspectives in the planning process.¹¹

CHANGING THE COURSE OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING - SHIFT FROM WELFARE TO DEVELOPMENT

The Sixth Five Year Plan¹² (1980-85) represents a major watershed in development planning so far as women are concerned. It was the first full 'Five Year Plan' after the CSWI Report submitted in 1974. It incorporated for the first time in India's planning history an exclusive chapter on women's development highlighting the various areas needing focused attention in social and economic development. This Chapter acknowledged the continued low status of women as a result of inadequate opportunities of independent employment and income, referred to demographic trends (higher mortality, lower economic participation, literacy, sex-ratio etc.) as issues of serious concern and went on to define a multipronged but inter-dependent strategy for women's development which by its very nature would be dependent on the total development process. Emphasis on the 'family centered' poverty alleviation strategy was qualified by the statement that 'economic independence' would accelerate improvement of women's status.¹³

For the first time, there was shift from welfare to development mode. The plan adopted a multi-disciplinary approach for women with thrust on three sectors – health, education and employment. It reviewed the status of women in general and noted that despite legal and constitutional guarantees, women had lagged behind men in almost all sectors. The major thrust of the Sixth Plan in the field of welfare of women is their economic upliftment through greater opportunities for salaried, self and wage employment. Strengthening of voluntary organizations of women at the grassroots was advocated" for creating a proper climate for the introduction of social legislation as well as for its effective implementation and the provision of legal aid.¹⁴

At the end of the International Decade for Women, the document of the Forward Looking strategies for the Advancement of Women gave new impetus to women's issues. The government revitalised the machinery at the national level by setting up a separate Department of Women and Child Development under the Ministry of Human Resources Development. The National Perspective Plan for Women (1988) was drawn up to facilitate mainstreaming of women's issues in major policies and programmes.

With the twin emphasis on employment and productivity in the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990)¹⁵ approach paper highlighted the strategy of a direct attack on the problems of poverty, unemployment and regional imbalance with "accelerated development of human resources". There was greater emphasis on the provision of gainful employment to the unemployed – particularly women and youth. The strategy of organizing women around socio-economic activities was reiterated, for the twin objectives of making their projects economically viable and adding to their social strength for overall development of their status. It emphasized efforts to extend facilities for income generating activities and to enable women to participate actively in socio-economic development.

FROM DEVELOPMENT TO EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

Under the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-1997)¹⁶ the subject women's development got clubbed again under the Chapter on Social Welfare. But priority was given to development of women, with focus clearly on employment, education and nutrition etc. with welfare being just a part of the larger picture. Since the stress was on economic emancipation of women, a lot of attention

was given to the employment strategy for women which was to be integrated with all sectoral planning.

The plan made an attempt to shift the approach from 'development' to 'empowerment' of women. Gender sensitization throughout educational structure was a big achievement. The Department of Women and Child Development prepared a Plan of Action for women for 1989 – 2000 and set up Shram Shakti Commission for evaluating the functioning of women in the informal sector and for suggesting steps for ameliorating their condition.¹⁷ An equally important change was to view women as equal partners in development and not merely as beneficiaries of various schemes.

Different ministries were instructed to try to allocate resources in a manner that benefited women. Integrated projects for women's development were proposed to be formulated and operationalised. In the poverty alleviation programme like Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), Jawahar Rozgar Yojana (JRY), Training of Rural Youth for Self Employment (TRYSEM), targets were set for women beneficiaries, an open acknowledgement of the policy of earmarking resources and funds on a fair proportionate basis. The Eighth Plan introduced a policy of 33% reservation for women in the local self governing bodies. This development for improvement of the status of women was further provided impetus by amending the Constitution of India. 73rd and 74th Amendments to the Constitution provided for not less than one-third reservation of seats for women among elected members and functionaries of the Panchayat System.

The Ninth Five Year Plan¹⁸ (1997-2002) is another milestone in women's development. There was a paradigmatic shift in planning process from development to empowerment. For the first time in the history of planning in India 'gender' has been mentioned, a component plan has been included, empowerment of women has been mentioned as one of the nine objectives of the National Plan and has carved out strategies to achieve the same.

In pursuit of empowering women as agents of socio-economic change, the National Policy on Empowerment of Women was adopted in April, 2001. On this basis, the National Plan of Action was implemented including the following strategies:

1. To create an enabling environment for women to exercise their rights both within and outside their homes.
2. To reserve one-third of seats for women in the Lok Sabha and State Legislative Assemblies.
3. To adopt a special strategy for Women Component Plan to ensure that at least 30 per cent of funds and benefits flow to women from all development sectors.
4. To organize women in self-help groups as a mark of the beginning of empowering them.
5. To accord high priority and ensure easy access to maternal and child health services.
6. To initiate steps for eliminating gender bias in all educational programmes; further to institute plans for free education of girls up to college levels including professional levels.
7. To equip women with necessary skills in modern upcoming trades which would make them economically independent and self-reliant.

8. To increase women's access to credit through setting up of Development Bank for women entrepreneurs in small and tiny sectors.

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007)¹⁹ represents another step in the evolution of development planning in India. In the context of adopting human development as the ultimate goal of all our developmental efforts, empowerment of women and development of children gains priority on the country's development agenda. The plan covers women and children under one chapter. The plan lays stress on empowerment of women, as an independent target group. The incessant endeavours of the women's movement have invigorated the legislative process and enacted women – related legislations during the Tenth Plan. The Hindu Succession Act, 1956 was amended and the Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005 was enacted and the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006 replaced the earlier law on child marriages during this period.

However, the Mid-term Appraisal²⁰ of the Tenth Plan noted that despite concerns about gender equity reflected in the monitorable targets of the Plan little could be achieved about empowering women. The feminisation of poverty and the exploitation of women in low paid, hazardous and insecure jobs in the unorganised sector and in the export processing or special economic zones were identified as the crucial areas of concern besides low sex-ratio, high IMR, increasing violence against women etc. The mid-term appraisal of women and child development has found glaring gaps and inconsistencies on the ground in the light of the promises made in the Tenth Plan and the National Common Minimum Programme (NCMP).

The Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007- 2012)²¹ envisions inclusive growth as a key objective. The vision of the Eleventh Five Year Plan is to end the multifaceted exclusions and discriminations faced by women and children; to ensure that every woman and child in the country is able to develop to her/his full potential and share the benefits of economic growth and prosperity. In this Plan, for the first time, women were recognised not just as equal citizens but as agents of economic and social growth. The approach to gender equity is based on the recognition that interventions in favour of women must be multi-pronged and they must (i) provide women with basic entitlements (ii) address the reality of globalisation and its impact on women by prioritising economic empowerment (iii) ensure an environment free from all forms of violence against women – physical, economic, social, psychological (iv) ensure the participation and adequate representation of women at the highest policy levels, particularly in Parliament and Assemblies and (v) strengthen existing institutional mechanisms and create new ones for gender mainstreaming and effective policy implementation. The challenges of gender equity and the roadmap for the Eleventh Five Year Plan can be clubbed under a five-fold agenda (i) Ensuring economic empowerment (ii) Engineering social empowerment (iii) Enabling political empowerment (iv) Effective implementation of women-related legislations (v) Creating institutional mechanisms for gender mainstreaming and strengthening delivery mechanisms. The roadmap for this has already been laid in the National Policy on Women 2001 and the National Plan of Action for Children 2005. The Eleventh Plan laid down six monitorable targets:

- Raise the sex ratio for age group 0–6 from 927 in 2001 to 935 by 2011–12 and to 950 by 2016–17.
- Ensure that at least 33% of the direct and indirect beneficiaries of all government schemes are women and girl children.

- Reduce IMR from 57 to 28 and MMR from 3.01 to one per 1000 live births.
- Reduce malnutrition among children of age group 0–3 to half its present level.
- Reduce anaemia among women and girls by 50% by the end of the Eleventh Plan.
- Reduce dropout rate for primary and secondary schooling by 10% for both girls as well as boys.

The Eleventh Plan (2007-12) sought to build on the gains achieved in the Tenth Plan and shift the economy to a path of faster and more inclusive growth. The Mid-Term Appraisal of the Eleventh Plan reviewed the experience in the first three years of the Plan and sought to identify sectors where corrective steps might be needed to ensure that growth is broad-based and inclusive. The report specifically reviewed the progress made in five critical areas: Aggregate and sectoral growth; Inclusiveness and poverty reduction; Infrastructure development; Plan financing; Governance Focusing on the vulnerable sections of the population-Scheduled Castes (SCs), Scheduled Tribes (STs), Other Backward Classes (OBCs), women, and minorities, the report assesses the programmes aimed at providing access to health, education, and other essential services, as well as livelihood support to the poor.²²

Like the previous Five Year Plans, the Twelfth Five Year Plan²³ (2012-2017) too has a larger vision, policies, priorities and strategies and advocates for 'inclusive growth' in development planning. In this backdrop the Government of India has introduced a plethora of legislations and programmes/schemes to address the gender inequities prevailing in our society. However, despite successive years of planning, the policies have failed to translate into better outcomes for women and girls. This is reflected in several indicators such as sex ratio, maternal mortality rate and drop out rates of girls among others.

Breaking an intergenerational cycle of multiple deprivations faced by girls and women is critical for more inclusive growth.²⁴ The Twelfth Plan strategy for Women and Children seeks to address multifaceted vulnerability and deprivation faced by them. The ending of gender based inequities, discrimination and violence is an overriding priority in the Twelfth Plan. Ending gender based violence against girls and women including improvement in the adverse and steeply declining child sex ratio, is therefore, recognized as an overarching monitorable target of the Twelfth Plan for Women and Children.

The 12th Plan aims at providing protective, nurturing and safe environment for women to facilitate their entry into public spaces. The key strategies for women's agency in the Twelfth Plan have been identified as:

- (i) Economic Empowerment;
- (ii) Social and Physical Infrastructure;
- (iii) Enabling Legislations;
- (iv) Women's Participation in Governance;
- (v) Inclusiveness of all categories of vulnerable women,
- (vi) Engendering National Policies/Programmes.

These strategies bring out the crucial challenges posed by traditional determinants of women's agency and empowerment such as asset ownership, skill development, and financial inclusion, along with new and emerging challenges posed by urbanisation, climate change, energy insecurity, and the role of the media and so on. Strategies for the inclusion of vulnerable women such as those belonging to the Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST) and minorities; single women, differently abled women; migrant and trafficked women have also been

identified. Specific initiatives for empowering women and engendering development in the Twelfth Plan have been outlined.

There are increasing concerns regarding the gap between male and female infant mortality rate 49 for girls as compared to 46 for boys. Advancing the rights of the girl child and ensuring gender equality is a critical development challenge.

The recommendations for the 12th Five Year Plan centre around four main conceptual issues intended at addressing the underlying and root causes. These are: (i) Protection and advancement of rights of the Girl Child; (ii) Gender Equality; (iii) Empowerment and enhancement of Self Esteem; and (iv) Institutional arrangements.²⁵

Twelfth Plan Calls for Multi-sectoral Action for Children and Women and the respective ministries would be entrusted to oversee various strategies, policies and schemes targeting various critical areas of concern. The 12 Five Year Plan, implemented across the country during 2012-13 to 2016-17, offers a significant opportunity to the government in our country for radically improving the approach towards public provisioning for socioeconomic development. However, in order to make any drastic improvement, the government needs to recognize a number of critical issues pertaining to planning and budgeting in the country and make a concerted effort to address those in the current Plan. The formulation of the 12th Five Year Plan has given the Planning Commission, Union Government and State Governments a major opportunity to recognize and address the fundamental gaps in the overall paradigm of development planning in our country, design of specific Plan interventions and their implementation.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a gender perspective in promoting growth with equity, justice and inclusion of all citizens in development can prove to be critical towards attaining the primary objective of current development plans in a realistic manner. A strong ‘equity-enhancing’ and ‘inequality-reducing’ thrust to the education plan is an imperative, particularly in view of the emphasis on ‘inclusive growth.’ The intersecting nature of inequality and exclusion due to the combination of gender, caste, community, poverty and regional disparities is crucial to understand the reality of the experience of poverty and in particular for gendered understanding. An engendered Plan must ensure an enabling environment in which women’s contribution to the economy can be tapped and enhanced in a substantial and holistic way. A life-cycle approach to women’s development requires this environment — from conception to death — an environment that provides physical, emotional, economic and political and community security to girls and women. There is a dire need to address the multi-dimensional deprivations as a spill over effect of inherent social, economic, institutional, political discriminations that a woman has to face throughout her life.

Out of a large number of schemes reported in the Gender Budgeting Statement, very few of them actually take into account the specific gender-based disadvantages confronted by women. It is therefore submitted that in making gender-responsive budgets or any policy, the foremost is to recognize the specific gender-based disadvantages faced by women in that particular sector, which is mostly disregarded. Development nowadays has been identified with the domain of globalisation. Women issues are in the centre stage both at national and global fora. Nonetheless, the ground realities have not changed much owing to the existing lacunae in the formulation and

execution of the policies. Developmental policies and programmes have certainly made a difference to the socio-economic status of women in the country, both in women-specific and women-related sectors, through various five-year plans. Practically we are going one step forward and two steps backward as we are confronted by a paradoxical situation, where we evidence advancement on several fronts while regression on some.

As we traverse from the very first Five Year Plan till the current Plan, a gradual change in the linkages between perception and action becomes relevant in the context of women related issues and development planning. The shift is evident from 'women in development' that called for greater attention to women in development policy and practice, to 'women and development' with emphasis on integrated approach and now the focus is on 'gender and development' as it is considered that 'women approach alone would not be sufficient to achieve development in the true sense. Subjecting the women to the 'other' status would rather be antithetical to the development process. The magnitude and complexity of women related issues refute any single agency's efforts in bringing about change. Concerted efforts of all sections of society and government in promoting its endeavours and the political will at all levels would go a long way in ameliorating the status of women.

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HIGHER EDUCATION IN PUNJAB

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions situated at Punjab are operating under adverse conditions like overcrowding, lack of infrastructural facilities, financial cuts, lack of autonomy, absence of professional management and stakeholders support. No attempt is made for developing competitiveness, strategic alliances, human resource capacity, international cooperation, cultural awareness and education exports. Though stakeholders understand that benefits of GATS include academic qualitative improvement, strengthening of research, innovation in curriculum, diversity of programs and revenue generation, it is feared may lead to commercialization, brain drain and loss of cultural identity. The paper study statistics collected through secondary Governmental sources.

KEYWORDS: *Higher Education in Punjab, Enrolment, District-wise study, quality in Higher Education*

INTRODUCTION

HIGHER EDUCATION IN PUNJAB

Punjab- the land of five rivers has been the cradle of Indian civilization and Culture since ancient times. It was in this land of Punjab that the Vedas, the two Epics- the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, Puranas, Upanishads, Aryanyakas and Brahmanas, etc were compiled. Taxila and Shakala-modern Sialkot were the great centres of education. Students from far places came to acquire knowledge and proficiency in different disciplines in the famous university of Taxila. It was here that the different branches of education followed and developed. Before the advent of the Aryans in India, the art of the Indus Valley people had already developed to a remarkable degree. In the early vedic period the Aryans did not evidence any special interest in education but during the later vedic Period it gained momentum with the making of beautiful idols and buildings. The birth of Buddhism came as a blessing in disguise as the art received great impetus and developed at a fast pace. During the Mauryan Period the different types of arts had attained a high water mark of glory from all angles. The Mauryan and the Kushana periods saw the development of art particularly in the North-Western Province and the Punjab.

Presently, Punjab has one Central University (i.e. Central University of Punjab, Civil Station, Bathinda): eight State Universities, (i.e. Baba Farid university of Health and Medical Science, Guru Nanak Dev University, Amritsar, Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Ludhiana, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, Punjab Technical University, Jalandhar, Punjab University, Chandigarh, Punjabi University, Patiala, The Rajiv Gandhi National University of Law, Patiala). Two Deemed Universities (i.e. Sant Longowal Institute of Engineering and Technology (SLIET) Longowal, District Sangrur, Thaper Institute of Engineering and Technology Thaper Technology Campus, Bhadson Road, Patiala). Four Educational Regulatory Authorities (i.e. Mahatma Gandhi State Institute of Public Administration, Punjab, Punjab School Education Board, Punjab State Board of Technical Education and Industrial Training, Small Industries Service Institute, Ludhiana, Technical Educational and Industrial Training Department, Punjab). Thapar University, Patiala (earlier an engineering college) acquired the status of a Deemed University during the year 2000. Now, it is a full-fledged university and managed by the famous Thapar Group of Industries (India) in the field of technical education. Two new Universities Guru Angad Dev Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Ludhiana (created by taking over the department of Veterinary and Animal Sciences of Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana) and Rajiv Gandhi National University of Law, Patiala were established in 2006 and are still at stages of infancy. Further, Sant Longowal Institute of Engineering and Technology (SLIET), Longowal (District Sangrur) has acquired the status of deemed-to- be-university in 2007. All the six universities excluding the SLIET were established under the state legislative statutory acts passed from time to time. Apart from these there are eight private Universities (i.e. Lovely Professional University, Kapurthala, Sri Guru Granth Sahib World University, Fatehgarh Sahib. Adesh University, Bathinda, *Chandigarh University, Gharua, Chitkara University, Rajpura, DAV University, Jalandhar, Desh Bhagat University, Mandi Gobindgarh, Guru Kanshi University, Bhatinda*. Further, there are 55 Govt. Colleges, 136 Private-Aided Colleges and 188 Private Colleges affiliated to State Universities. These universities mostly provide graduate/postgraduate level professional education courses and research as per the requirements of the state, national and global economies. Almost all these universities are functioning as the autonomous bodies.

In the Guru Nanak Dev University, colleges located in urban areas constituted the majority; in the case of Panjab University, it is the rural colleges that form the majority whereas Punjabi University stands with equal share of rural and urban colleges. Moreover, efforts made by government to promote higher general education in Punjab were appreciable in pre-reforms period, when many new government colleges were added. However, after that the state funds on higher education have been curtailed (Ghuman, Singh and Brar, 2009; Gill, Singh and Brar, 2010, Page-97). However, it is the aided private colleges which swayed the higher education scenario in the state both in terms of number of colleges and enrollment of students, and, now, unaided private colleges have begun to show their presence, largely due to the progressive cuts in allocation of state funds since the 1990s (Ghuman, Singh and Brar, 97).

In fact, high growth in higher education institutions in the state have followed a national pattern of imparting higher education in the liberal, technical and Professional subjects (Mitter, Singh and Brar, 77) in Punjab, at the time of its reorganization on the basis of language in 1966, there were just three universities and 84 affiliated colleges providing general higher education in the state (Ghuman, Singh and Brar, 78).

In terms of number of students enrolled in polytechnic institutions, a significant growth rate is registered. Number of girls and boys enrolled increased by 5151% and 3930% respectively during last four decades. Still gender disparity is evident as enrollment of boys is five times more than enrollment of girls.

TABLE-1					
Number of Students enrolled in Vocational courses in Polytechnic Institutes					
Year	Polytechnic Institutes				
	Boys	Growth Rate (%)	Girls	Growth Rate (%)	Total
1971	1470	--	--	--	1470
1980	3295	124.1	179	--	3474
1990	4176	26.7	495	176.5	4671
2000	6090	45.8	2559	417.0	8649
2005	5576	-8.4	2080	-18.7	7653
2006	12065	116.4	5102	145.3	17167
2007	12216	1.3	5276	3.4	17492
2008	11669	-4.5	4151	-21.3	15820
2009	15780	35.2	5489	32.2	21269
2010	32120	103.5	6777	23.5	38897
2011	59248	84.46	9400	38.70	68648

During last four decades, enrollment of boys and girls in technical and industrial school increased by 75% and 38% respectively. Gender disparity is evident as enrollment of boys is 2.15 times more than enrollment of girls.

TABLE- 2					
Number of Students enrolled in Technical, Industrial, Art and Craft school					
Year	Technical, Industrial, Art and Craft school				
	Boys	Growth Rate (%)	Girls	Growth Rate (%)	Total
1971	6939		1172		8111
1980	13051	88.1	5735	389.3	18786
1990	11993	-8.1	5180	-9.7	17173
2000	14487	20.8	6533	26.1	21020
2005	7995	-44.8	3714	-43.2	11709
2006	8113	1.5	3722	0.2	11835

2007	8312	2.5	3979	6.9	12291
2008	9608	15.6	4531	13.9	14139
2009	8819	-8.2	3599	-20.6	12418
2010	10435	18.3	3969	10.3	14404
2011	12144	16.37	5645	42.23	17789

During last four decades, number of boys and girls enrolled in B.A and B.A(Hons) increased by 67% and 304 % respectively. This significant increase in enrollment of girls proves that B.A stream most popular among girls and their parents.

TABLE- 3**Number of Boys and Girls enrolled in B.A./ B.A. (Hons)**

Year	B.A./B.A. (Hons)				
	Boys	Growth (%)	Girls	Growth (%)	Total
1971	34220	---	16480	--	50700
1980	33436	-2.3	27635	67.7	61071
1990	26590	-20.5	33867	22.6	60457
1991	29630	11.4	38899	14.9	68529
1992	30457	2.8	41252	6.0	71709
1993	42838	40.7	52197	26.5	95035
2000	56218	31.2	67037	28.4	123255
2005	60757	8.1	72099	7.6	132856
2006	61600	1.4	72435	0.5	134035
2007	52913	-14.1	75072	3.6	127985
2008	51349	-3.0	68276	-9.1	119625
2009	49348	-3.9	69017	1.1	118365
2010	52323	6.0	71363	3.4	123686
2011	57178	9.28	66636	-6.62	123814

Source: Director of public Instructions (Punjab)

During last four decades, number of boy and girls enrolled in B.Sc. and B.Sc. (Hons) increased by -28% and 103 % respectively. Negative growth rate in enrollment of boys suggest that they are moving from traditional science stream to engineering and other professional courses. However, same trend is not witnessed in case of girls.

TABLE- 4

Number of Boys and Girls enrolled in B.Sc./ B.Sc.(Hons)					
Year/	B.Sc./B.Sc. (Hons)				
	Boys	Growth (%)	Girls	Growth (%)	Total
1971	10467		2316		12783
1980	7780	-25.7	3395	46.6	11175
1990	5175	-33.5	4457	31.3	9632
1991	5045	-2.5	5112	14.7	10157
1992	4669	-7.5	5218	2.1	9887
1993	5928	27.0	6121	17.3	12049
2000	7207	21.6	8380	36.9	15587
2005	8062	11.9	13227	57.8	21289
2006	7123	-11.6	13353	1.0	20476
2007	9048	27.0	16932	26.8	25980
2008	6397	-29.3	13857	-18.2	20254
2009	6146	-3.9	13849	-0.1	19995
2010	6549	6.6	14852	7.2	21401
2011	7527	14.93	18422	19.37	25949

Source: Director of Public Instructions (Punjab)

During last four decades, number of boys and girls enrolled in B.Com. and B.Com. (Hons) increased by 904% and 805400 % respectively. In 1971, B.Com. course was infancy which has matured over period of time. The course is popular among both boys and girls. However, strength of girls is more than boys.

TABLE- 5					
Number of Boys and Girls enrolled in B.Com. / B.Com.(Hons)					
Year/	B.Com./B.Com.(Hons)				
	Boys	Growth(%)	Girls	Growth(%)	Total
1971	1365		2		1367
1980	5162	278.2	324	16100.0	5486
1990	5965	15.6	2714	737.7	8669
1991	6612	10.8	3345	23.2	9957
1992	6953	5.2	3929	17.5	10882
1993	8448	21.5	4804	22.3	13252
2000	11536	36.6	100	-97.9	21563
2005	9913	-14.1	7782	7661.0	17695
2006	9869	-0.4	7720	-0.8	17589
2007	11126	12.7	11017	42.7	22143
2008	10773	-3.2	10739	-2.5	21512

2009	11830	9.8	11251	4.8	23081
2010	12884	8.9	12758	13.4	25642
2011	13710	6.41	16110	26.27	29820

Source: Director of Public Instructions (Punjab)

During last four decades, number of boys and girls enrolled in B.E. /B.Sc. (Eng)/B.Arch/B.Tech course increased by 2707% and 272520 % respectively. Earlier engineering courses were relatively unpopular in Punjab. Now, such high percentage of growth rate of girls' enrollment is proof of the fact that even girls are opting for engineering stream.

Year/	B.E./B.Sc. (Eng)/B.Arch./B.Tech.				
	Boys	Growth (%)	Girls	Growth(%)	Total
1971	1378		5		1383
1980	1676	21.6	31	520.0	1707
1990	1943	15.9	168	441.9	2111
1991	2048	5.4	197	17.3	2245
1992	2498	22.0	312	58.4	2810
1993	2831	13.3	359	15.1	3190
2000	10787	281.0	2444	580.8	13231
2005	17587	63.0	5095	108.5	22682
2006	20232	15.0	5891	15.6	26123
2007	22994	13.7	6629	12.5	29623
2008	30300	31.8	8438	27.3	38738
2009	35000	15.5	11905	41.1	46905
2010	35305	0.9	11783	-1.0	47088
2011	38678	9.55	13631	15.68	52309

Source: Director of Public Instructions (Punjab)

Years	Universities/ Colleges	Students Enrolment	Growth (%)	Number of Teacher			
				University	Growth (%)	Colleges	Growth (%)
1980	3/162	78796		483		4709	
1990	3/171	80780	2.5	622	28.8	6054	28.6
2000	5/204	163239	102.1	839	34.9	7225	19.3
2007	5/232	186188	14.1	951	13.3	7425	2.8
2008	5/233	171486	-7.9	951	0.0	7776	4.7

2009	7/234	153796	-10.3	940	-1.2	7314	-5.9
2010	6/234	182069	18.4	927	-1.4	7664	4.8

During last three decades, number of institutions, students' enrollment and number of teachers has increased by 45.5%, 131% and 63% respectively. It is evident that pressure of increasing enrollment on institutions and teachers has increased over a period of time due to relatively high growth rate of students' enrollment.

TABLE- 8**District- wise number of students' enrollment in B.A., B.Sc., B.Com.**

	B.A./B.A. Hons.			B.Sc./B.Sc Hons.			B.Com./B.Com. Hons.		
	1993	2007	2010	1993	2007	2010	1993	2007	2010
Gurdaspur	8354	8252	7803	1943		2220	544	1268	1952
Amritsar	9305	13709	8420	1534		3624	832	4606	3364
Taran taran	*	1589	1665	*	*	353	*	245	207
Kapurthala	6121	6055	5974	245		993	331	1187	1200
Jalandhar	17592	10926	9767	2085		3614	1676	3709	3892
SBS nagar	*	3918	4042	*	*	291	*	236	297
Hoshiarpur	7219	10374	10100	844		1181	464	1080	1416
Rupnagar	2636	3343	3477	308		758	289	352	451
SAS nagar	*	1266	1074	*	*	20	*	346	411
Ludhiana	16587	18128	18782	2161		3406	1636	5170	6673
Ferozpur	3956	7250	8364	492		1036	262	338	406
Faridkot	6021	2236	2164	602		227	438	105	141
Muktshar	*	4371	4911	*	*	429	*	75	219
Moga	*	5246	4640	*	*	258	*	123	200
Bathinda	2551	5656	5286	372		820	498	600	950
Mansa	1159	2476	2559	-		35	127	78	337
Sangrur	5213	7128	8315	386		375	471	294	691
Barnala	*	1646	1520	*	*	163	*	68	149
Patiala	7292	12457	13044	1026		1451	788	2029	2449
Fatehgarh sahib	1029	1959	1776	51		147	92	234	237
Total	95035	127985	123683	12049		21401	8448	22143	25642

In terms of Under-graduate courses, educationally rich districts are Ludhiana, Amritsar, Jalandhar and Patiala. Educationally backward districts are Faridkot, Barnala, Tarantaran and SBS Nagar.

District- wise number of Universities and Colleges						
District	1993		2007		2010	
	University	Colleges	University	Colleges	University	Colleges
Gurdaspur	-	9	0	19	0	19
Amritsar	1	10	1	14	1	13
Taran taran	-	-	0	7	0	6
Kapurthala	-	9	0	19	0	19
Jalandhar	-	13	1	23	1	23
SBS nagar	-	-	0	9	0	8
Hoshiarpur	-	13	0	19	0	19
Rupnagar	-	6	0	8	0	8
SAS nagar	-	-	0	2	0	2
Ludhiana	1	14	1	35	1	35
Ferozpur	-	7	0	12	0	12
Faridkot	-	11	1	2	1	2
Muktshar	-	-	0	8	0	8
Moga	-	-	0	10	0	10
Bathinda	-	4	0	10	0	12
Mansa	-	3	0	4	0	4
Sangrur	-	9	0	13	0	15
Barnala	-	-	0	2	0	2
Patiala	1	10	1	11	0	11
Fatehgarh sahib	-	1	0	5	0	6

Table shows that in 1993 there were three universities in Amritsar, Ludhiana and Patiala district and between 2007-10 one each was also opened up in Jalandhar and Faridkot. In 2007 the number of colleges in Punjab incremented to 232 and among them Ludhiana districts had 15% colleges, while 5-10% of colleges were in the districts like Gurdaspur, Amritsar, Kapurthala, Jalandhar, Hoshiarpur, Sangrur and Ferozpur districts had 5-10% colleges. In terms of district-wise number of universities and colleges, Ludhiana, Jalandhar, Gurdaspur and Kapurthala are

educationally rich districts whereas Faridkot, Mansa, Barnala and SAS Nagar are educationally backward districts.

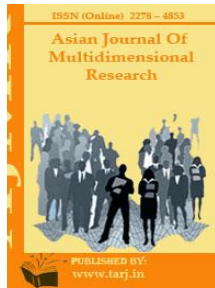
SUMMARY

Though Punjab performs quite well on the economic front, its performance on the educational front is comparatively shocking. Though Punjab has greater number of universities than Himachal Pradesh, it significantly behind Himachal in terms of percentage of enrollment in higher education and sex ratio. But both the states fare quite badly with respect to the enrollment of the SC/ST/OBC candidates and minorities. The state of affairs in Punjab is very critical as majority of the higher education institutions belong to the private sector. The state run institutions are again on back foot in Punjab as they do not get enough budgetary support from the government while Himachal Pradesh is way ahead from Punjab in terms of budgetary support. Himachal Pradesh has to work mainly in the sector of professional training while Punjab needs a total overhaul of the higher education policy and to set its priorities on the right track.

Punjab ranks first in per capita income, is the tenth among Indian States in terms of literacy, is a socio-economic inconsistency. Faced with a severe resource crunch, the state government has recently been extending wide space for the entry of the private sector into higher education, more so in the professional field. As much as 71 % for college/university education, and 66 % for professional institutions budget goes towards disbursement of salaries. The paradoxical situation exists in higher education sector as on one hand, there is low GER and on other hand, the seats are vacant. For example, there were 40,000 seats sanctioned in State's engineering colleges for 35,000 students who cleared 10+2 exam every year in non-medical stream. At B.Tech. and M. Tech level, 19305 out of 39960, 1657 out of 3836 were vacant during session 2011-12 respectively. The composition of colleges in terms of ownership is dominated by Private Unaided Colleges (72.8%) followed by Government (20.3%). Further, 49.5% of students are enrolled in Private Unaided colleges in the State. Most of the engineering colleges are run by the private sector and medical colleges by government. The study of district-wise percentage of educational institutes reveals that maximum percentage of colleges out of total number of colleges in State is located at Ludiana (15.13%), and Jalandhar (10.08%). The minimum percentage of colleges out of total number of colleges in State is located at Faridkot (1.26%), Mansa(1.68%) , Fatehgarh Sahib (2.52%) and Tarantaran(2.52%).In terms of Gender, gender disparity is indicated as 65.3% are male students and 34.7% are female students. Further, Male-female ratio in faculty and non-teaching staff is 61:39 and 77:23 respectively.Scheduled Caste students account for about one-tenth of all students in colleges/universities, whereas the Scheduled Caste population around one-third of the total.

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POWER, POLITICS AND AUTHORITY: STRUGGLE OF ROYAL WOMEN IN SULTANATE PERIOD

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ABSTRACT

In Sultanate period, women were expelled from Power, Politics, Authority and Administration because of male centric structure of society. In this way, this period is considered as a dark age from women's point of view. In fact, the Sultans and other noble classes disapproved of the idea of liberalising their women as they fear women would defame their social status, prestige and reputation in society. Despite all the challenges, they continued to gain political power throughout the Sultanate period. They even achieved success occasionally but it was a temporary phenomena and they would be removed from administrative and honourable posts due to the resistance from the men. The purpose of this research paper is to throw some light on all those women who interfered in some way or the other in the politics of the Sultanate period. I have used primary and secondary sources in this research paper.

KEYWORDS: *Sultanate, Power, Politics, Resistance, Social Status, Throne, Nobility, Interfere.*

INTRODUCTION

The Sultanate political structure and the ruling elite did not encourage women to participate in politics but due to the ambitions of women they kept interfering in politics in one way or the other throughout this period. Their intervention can be divided into two categories. In the first category comes those women who were doing political interference from behind the curtains and the second is made up of those women who were directly involved in politics.

The earliest reference of a woman who participated in political activities in the Sultanate period is of khudavand-i-Jahan Shah Turkan. She was a Turkish female slave who rose to the status of chief queen of Sultan Iltutmish by dint of merit and charm. During the reign of Sultan Iltutmish she patronised and gave gifts and grants to the Maliks, Amirs and other religious and political persons. This made her popular in the social circles as well as in the political. It was with their active support and cooperation that she succeeded in lying aside the bill of Sultan Iltutmish and winning the throne for her son Ruknuddin Firoz. Sultan Ruknuddin Firoz, a pleasure loving

person, was a very wrong choice in that situation as he was incompetent in handling this. This led Shah Turkan to interfere in the day to day administration of the Sultanate. She concentrated all power in her hands and even issued royal orders (Farman) in her name. This brought her in conflict with the son of Sultan Iltutmish, Qutubuddin, a promising young Prince of talents and merit. It was at her instigation that prince Qutabuddin was blinded and finally put to death in order to suppress any opposition from his side against Sultan Ruknuddin Firoz. This further antagonised not only the state officer but also the provincial governors of the Sultanate who broke out in revolt against the tyrannical and oppressive reign. Malik Ghiyasuddin Mahamud, the governor of Awadh, Malik Izzuddin Muhammad Salari, the governor of Multan and Malik Alauddin, the governor of Lahore presented a united opposition to the Sultan. Each wanted to throw the Sultana. In order to secure her position she had to deal with Razia, the eldest daughter of Sultan Iltutmish. Razia depended on the crisis by inkling the masses of Delhi against the oppressive measures of Shah Turkan. She later sought to imprison Razia to curb her activities. Unfortunately her conspiracy against the princess failed miserably. With the support of some nobles and the army she dethroned Ruknuddin after an unsuccessful reign and occupied the throne.

The next woman who played a significant role in politics during Sultanate period is Razia. The accession of Razia to the throne in the year 1236 AD heralds a new era in the history of Delhi Sultanate. It asserts the claims of a woman to the office which was earlier considered to be the monopoly of males. Razia was elevated to the throne only because of her merits and talents. Her major achievement laid not in quelling the opposition or curbing the disruptive forces but in creating an atmosphere of peace and tranquility. She toned up the administration and provided a new height to the Turkish empire.

It was in the midst of chaos and confusion that Razia asserted her claims to the throne. The Delhi Sultanate was facing internal as well as external crisis. The power of the nobility reached to its height after the creation of the core of 'Forties' by Sultan Iltutmish. The financial condition of the Sultanate was deplorable as Sultan Ruknuddin Firoj had drained out the state treasury by his extravagance. The main source of Razia's strength laid in the support extended to her by the army, the office and the people of Delhi. She adopted a populist attitude and asked the people to depose her if she did not full fill their expectations. The provincial governors who constituted an important group in the Turkish governing class felt that they had been ignored and humiliated and placed themselves in opposition to the new ruler. A leadership of Nizam-ul-mulk Junaidi (the famous Wazir of Iltutmish) emerged and Razia was besieged in Delhi. A rebel coalition of influential nobles was formed under this leadership. But she emerged victorious from the contest and soon afterwards from Lukhnauti to Debal (Sindh) all the Maliks and Amirs manifested their obedience and submission.

Razia's attempt to reorganise administration and assume a direct control of affairs provoked serious opposition. In this respect she firstly appointed nobles of her confidence in important offices. Another important consideration which Razia appears to have in her mind while making these appointments was to avoid concentration of power in the hands of a particular section of Nobility. Razia wanted to create a class in Nobility who was completely loyal to her. For this task she included some other classes along with the old Turkish slaves so she could rely on them in any political crisis. For this purpose Jamaluddin Yakut, the Abyssinian slave received special

consideration as he was appointed on the important post of Amir-i-Akhur which according to tradition was enjoyed by Turk nobles.

The next step of Razia was to establish peace and order within the Sultanate. She diverted her attention towards Ranthambore, a region which was a constant source of troubles since the days of Sultan Iltutmish. She sent a military campaign there. Razia then turned to bring some revolutionary changes in her mode of living thereby setting a new pattern of kingship. Like the male Sultans she kept her title as Sultan and not Sultana. She left the veil and started ruling on the throne in the open court. She completely changed the theory of kingship of Iltutmish. The Turk Noble class wanted to make her a puppet just because she was a woman, but they started getting troubled by her actions. Then they finally revolted and conspired against her.

The first rebel was Kabir Khan the governor of the Ekta of Lahore. Razia suppressed this rebellion of the Northwest. On her return to Delhi she was confronted with the more serious rebellion. It was organised by Ikthiyaruddin Altunia, the governor of Tabarhind who had been secretly promised support by Aitigin, a powerful Noble holding the office of the chief chamberlain. Mizuddin Bahram, a son of Iltutmish was placed on the throne but all powers were wasted in Aitigin who became regent (naib). But the situation changed within a few weeks. The new Sultan had Aitigin murdered and Altunia realising that he would not get any reward for his rebellion made an alliance with Razia who was in his custody. They married and marched at the head of a force towards Delhi. On their way they were defeated by Bahram and while on retreat, they were deserted by their soldiers and murdered by robbers. So Razia was cruelly betrayed and murdered.

Razia exhibited skill and competence in handling day to day administration; she was well versed in the art of warfare. She led contingents of troops to battlefields and exhibited science of valour and skill. Realising the significance of well organised army she was particular in recruiting men of courage in the army. The Khokhars and Jats of the Punjab too were recruited as soldiers in the army. The office of Naib-i-Lashkar in the army received prominence but after her death it lost its significance. Razia was very particular about the welfare of the soldiers. She often gave liberal gifts to the soldiers in order to keep them happy and contented. She dispensed justice without discrimination. Along with Qazi, Razia issued silver coins at Lakhnauti. This was her maiden contribution in the realm of numismatics.

Indeed Razia was a talented and intelligent lady. She seems to have taken keen interest in education also. She was fond of music and gave musician royal patronage. She herself composed verses under the nomenclature of Shirin. Razia could recite Quran and all other prayers in the proper manner. She patronised men of letters. Minhaj was entrusted with the task of supervision of Madarsa-i-Nasiriya which became a centre of learning in her reign. Minhajuddin described her as a "great sovereign, sagacious, just, beneficent, the patron of the learned, a dispenser of justice, the cherisher of her subjects and of war like talent and endowed with all the admirable attributes and qualification necessary for king". Razia stands as the only example of a woman who wielded royal power during the sultanate period.

During the Khalji period Malika-i-Jahan the wife of Sultan Jalaluddin Khalji, wielded authority as wife, mother and mother-in-law. She enjoyed complete influence over her husband. Not only this, among the Nobility Malika-i-Jahan commanded a respectable status. It was at her persuasion that the nobles proposed that Sultan should accept the title Al-Mujahid Fi Sabilillah but later on the Sultan himself declined to accept it. There was no love between Malika-i-Jahan

and her son in law Alauddin Khalji, the latter's domestic life became miserable chiefly due to her mother in law as she played an important role in straining Sultan Alauddin's relations not only with his wife but also with his father in law Sultan Jalaluddin Khalji. She poisoned the Sultan's ears against Alauddin and also convinced him of his intriguing and ambitious nature who aimed at carving out an independent principality for himself.

Malika-i-Jahan made things worse for Sultan Alauddin Khalji when she incited her daughter to ignore her husband. She was responsible for creating misunderstanding between Alauddin and his wife. So Alauddin's earnest desire was to settle down at a far off place so that he could remain away both from his wife and his mother in law. Malika-i-Jahan played the most treacherous role of a mother in politics especially after the death of Sultan Jalaluddin Khan. Laying aside the claims of Arkali Khan for thrown who was then at Multan. She supported Qadr Khan and enthroned him with the title of Ruknuddin Ibrahim. This act caused dissatisfaction amongst the nobles which were opposed to Qadr Khan. They preferred a mature, experienced and a brave heir like Arkali Khan but she concentrated all powers in her hands and practically ruled in the name of her son. She heard petitions and issued decrees. To gain support of section of nobility Malika-i-Jahan provided them with important offices and assigned territories to them. Sultan Ruknuddin Ibrahim became a puppet in her hands who too was incompetent to handle the situation. Not only did the nobles oppose the royal authority but her son Arkali Khan too watched his mother's action with dread and stayed back at Multan. The nobles whom she had attempted to win over to her side changed their camp and extended their support to Alauddin Khalji. Hard pressed from all corners Malika-i-Jahan was left with no alternative but to ask help from her elder son Arkali Khan. She accepted her mistake in elevating Qadr Khan to the throne and asked to be pardoned for her foolish acts. The situation had gone beyond his control and it was not possible to check Alauddin's actions. Sultan Ruknuddin Ahmed Chap and Malika-i-Jahan fled towards Multan but were captured and brought back to Delhi. Haji Dabir presented an interesting reason for the tension in Sultan Alauddin Khalji's life. According to him Sultan's love for another girl Mahru marred his domestic peace. The anecdote relates that once Sultan Alauddin and Mahru were relaxing in the garden Sultan Jalaluddin's daughter passed from that way and made some sarcastic remark which provoked Sultan Alauddin. In a fit of anger he attacked her with his sword and she received little injuries. Mahru who had been the root cause of all these misunderstandings later earned the title of Malika-i-Jahan. Malika-i-Jahan played important role in Prince Khizr Khan's marriage with Alp Khan's daughter and after that she allowed him to marry with Dewal Rani. She also insisted Sultan Alauddin to arrange the marriage of Shadi Khan with Alp Khan's daughter because by such matrimonial alliance she aimed at strengthening Alp Khan's status in the court.

The Tughlaq dynasty witnessed the political influence of Makhdum -i-Jahan and Khudaband zada, the mother and sister of Sultan Muhammad bin Tughlaq respectively. Makhdum -i-Jahan ,the wife of Sultan Ghiyasuddin Tughluq enjoyed considerable influence in political sphere . She received envoys and royal guests at court. Amongst them one was Ibnbatuta, the Moorish traveller. In the absence of Sultan she welcomed him and hosted a lavish party. She received gifts and present from the guests. Being a woman of charitable disposition she maintained a number of hospices (inns) for the comfort of the travellers.

Sultan Muhammad bin Tuglaq's death plunged Delhi Sultanate into great confusion. It was further aggravated when the Sultan's sister khudabandjada intervent into the matters of

succession. Being in the royal lineage she forwarded the claims of her son Dabur Malik to the throne against Firoj Shah. In this critical situation the nobles made it clear to her that there was a need of a competent person who could save the Sultanate from disruption. For this purpose Dabur Malik seemed too immature in comparison to Firoz Shah. In order to avoid a civil war Malik Saifuddin, an influential noble of the court made efforts to pacify Khuda bandh jyada's stubborn attitude. He succeeded in his attempts and she withdrew her agitation. Thus she could not procure the throne for her son. But Firoz Shah assigned him the office of Nayab Barbak. Firoz Shah maintained cordial relationship with his aunt Khuda ban zada. So on his visit to her house he fell on his knees. After becoming Sultan Firoz Shah he made it a point to pay a visit to Khuda ban zada's house every Friday after evening prayer. During these visits Sultan Firoz and Khuda Band zada sat on the same carpet and discussed issues of political importance. Khuda band zada had never abandoned the idea of placing her son upon the throne. She was just looking after the right moment and she along with her husband organised a conspiracy for Sultan's removal from the throne. For this purpose the armed guards were asked to stay in the nearby place and at Khuda Band zada's signals they were to attack the Sultan. Firoz Shah was completely unaware of this whole plot. As usual he went to visit her house but the timely gesture of Dabur Malik upset the plan and Firoz Shah escaped unhurt. Even though her attempt to kill Firoz Shah ended in failure the Sultan continued to treat Khuda band zada with consideration and granted her a fixed allowance. Her husband khusro Malik was deposed while Dabur Malik was ordered to visit the Sultan every month.

During the Lodhi period a number of women influenced the political affairs of the time. The first lady who participated in politics was Shams Khatun, the chief wife of Sultan Bahlol Lodi. She commanded a place of honour in the Sultan's harem. And the Sultan loved her and always tried to full fill her desires. During Sultan Bahlol's struggle with Mohammad shah Sharqi of Jaunpur, his brother in law Qutb khan was taken as captive. Sultan Bahlol sought for peace treaty and after entering into terms with Sultan Mohammed Sharqi returned back to Delhi. On reaching Dankaour he received a letter from his wife Shams Khatun and told not to relax until and unless her brother was freed from the clutches of Sultan Mohammed sharqi. These words provoked Sultan Bahlol and he stepped back towards Jaunpur to meet Sultan Mohammed Sharqi with greater force. Now his prime objective was to free Qutb Khan, his brother in law from captivity. Thus it was the intervention of Shams Khatun which lead Sultan Bahlol to March once against Jaunpur.

Bibi Amba ,the daughter of Hindu goldsmith and the wife of Sultan Bahalol played a significant role in the political life. She was an accomplished woman known for her charm and pleasant manner. She took part in politics by pressing the claim of her son to the throne after the death of Sultan Bahlol Lodi. She opposed Isha Khan Lodi and pleaded the nobles to extend their support in favour of her son Nizam Khan . This hurt the nobles and Khan-i-Jahan Farmuli especially objected to such a harsh treatment towards the Sultan's widow. Not only this subdued Bibi Amba's opponents but also made the nobles extent full support to her enthroning Nizam Khan Sultan under the title of Sultan Sikandar Lodi.

The influence of women in political sphere during the Sultanate period varied according to their personality, ambition, family connections, political situation and the character of Sultan. As Sultan's wife, mother or sister they often played an important role in matter of succession, war and peace.

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