

AJMR

ISSN (Online) : 2278 - 4853

Asian Journal of Multidimensional Research



Published by :
www.tarj.in

Editor-in-Chief : Dr. Esha Jain

Impact Factor : SJIF 2017 = 4.443

Frequency : Monthly

Country : India

Language : English

Start Year : 2012

Published by : www.tarj.in

Indexed/ Listed at : Ulrich's Periodicals
Directory, ProQuest, U.S.A.

E-mail id: tarjjournals@gmail.com

VISION

The vision of the journals is to provide an academic platform to scholars all over the world to publish their novel, original, empirical and high quality research work. It propose to encourage research relating to latest trends and practices in international business, finance, banking, service marketing, human resource management, corporate governance, social responsibility and emerging paradigms in allied areas of management. It intends to reach the researcher's with plethora of knowledge to generate a pool of research content and propose problem solving models to address the current and emerging issues at the national and international level. Further, it aims to share and disseminate the empirical research findings with academia, industry, policy makers, and consultants with an approach to incorporate the research recommendations for the benefit of one and all.



| SR. NO. | PARTICULAR | PAGE NO. |
|---------|---|----------|
| 1. | EFFECTS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION ON INDIAN SOCIETY IN KAMALA MARKANDAYA'S NECTAR IN A SIEVE Seman Devi | 5-8 |
| 2. | VILLAGE ADMINISTRATION SYSTEM OF CHOLA EMPIRE: AN OVERVIEW Prof. Vishnu Bhagwan, Dr. Pardeep Kumar | 9-14 |
| 3. | MEASURING PRE-OWNED CAR PURCHASE MOTIVATION: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN INDIAN PERSPECTIVE Sukanta Maji, Dr. Gautam Bandyopadhyay | 15-29 |
| 4. | CLIMATE CHANGE VIS-A-VIS GLOBAL GOVERNANCE Prof. Vishnu Bhagwan, Dr. Sandeep Kumar | 30-38 |
| 5. | SOCIO-CULTURAL VISTAS IN NGUGI WA THIONG'O'S THE RIVER BETWEEN AND WEEP NOT, CHILD Dr Satinder Singh Kundu | 39-43 |
| 6. | SURVEILLANCE AND THE ISSUE OF PRIVACY IN THE DIGITAL ERA Arif Hussain Nadaf | 44-52 |
| 7. | JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM IN INDIA Sonia Panwar | 53-66 |
| 8. | FARMERS' SUICIDE: PROBLEMS AND REMEDIES Dr. Mohinder Singh, Dr. Amit Kumar | 67-81 |

| | | |
|-----|--|---------|
| 9. | FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES TRENDS IN TAMIL NADU Dr. G. Jayachandhran, N. Prasanna Priya, A. Thirumalai Selvi, A. Stella Nancy | 82-118 |
| 10. | A STUDY OF BURN-OUT IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS Dr. Rita Saini | 119-123 |
| 11. | JUDICIAL ACTIVISM: FORTIFYING SOCIAL JUSTICE Sonia Panwar | 124-134 |
| 12. | CONSUMER PREFERENCES WHILE SELECTING A CAB SERVICE: A CASE STUDY OF OLA AND UBER IN NCR DELHI Dr Sukhvir Singh, Mrs Preetinder Kaur, Mr Inderpreet Singh | 135-145 |
| 13. | RAJIV GANDHI SCHEME FOR EMPOWERMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRLS (SABLA): A STUDY Ms. Payal Lamba | 146-152 |
| 14. | ECOFEMINIST APPROACHES OF INDIAN WOMEN NOVELISTS Dr. Ashima Gakhar | 153-158 |
| 15. | THE MYSTERY OF STATE SPONSORED VIOLENCE IN THE SELECT WORKS OF HANNAH ARDENT Monika Sethi | 159-164 |
| 16. | LIBERTINE AND GRACEFUL WOMEN: A GLIMPSE INTO MANUSMṚTIḤAND ITS COMPANION-TEXTS Dr. Alka Tyagi | 165-169 |



EFFECTS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION ON INDIAN SOCIETY IN KAMALA MARKANDAYA'S NECTAR IN A SIEVE

Seman Devi*

Email id: Semandevi61@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to portray the effects of industrialization and modern technology and the problems of the people in this transitional period through Kamala Markandaya's Nectar in a Sieve, published in 1954. It shows how Indian society is changing from feudalism to capitalism. The problems like lose of agrarian land, lose of peaceful environment, miserable condition of pearants, exploitation by the industrialists are also described. The villagers are struggling hard to survive. The industrial revolution contributed to the progress as well as dehumanization and moral degeneration of man. The owner can replace the workers whenever they demands for proper wages. Two of Rukmani's sons are not happy with their wages. So they try to initiate strike. It fails and they are exiled. Women have to adopt the profession of prostitute. Ira, daughter of Rukmani, also attracts towards this profession to fulfil the hunger of her belly. She has no source of of income as she was abondened by her husband due to her barrenness. A few people of Indian society get its profits but a large number of villagers suffer due to it. Due to the industrialization people of India are provided jobs but it is not suitable for everyone. After the establishment of tannery, the sons of Rukmani and Nathen get job in tannery but they are exploited and tortured. They suffer in town and city. Tannery can be compared with monster that swallows their happiness and peace of life. It is the rout cause of Rukmani's pathetic condition.

KEYWORDS: *Industrialization, Transitional, Feudalism, Capitalism, Revolution, Dehumanization.*

INTRODUCTION

Nector in a Sieve was the first novel by Kamala Markandaya. After independence number of changes were taken place in Indian society due to modernization. India is an agrarian country but now it was becoming modern. Industries were establishing in rural as well as in urban areas. On the one hand, these industries opened up the opportunities of employment but on the other hand, it created problems in the lives of rustic people on their land was occupied by industries. The novel described this transition of society through the lives of Nathan and Rukmani how they lead their lives working on the fields of Zamindar and how the establishment of tannery changes their lifestyle. Industrialization is encroaching on the rural area so the farmers are forced to move to cities and work in factories. This novel can be reas as a story of Indian transition. Tannert is the symbol of modernity.

Nector in a Sieve is a first person narrative told by Rukmani, the protagonist, who is a daughter of village headman and married at the age of 12 to Nathan, a tenent farmer. They love each other very much and lead a peaceful life until tannery is established in the village. Rukmani bears six children, five boys and a girl, with each birth, however, the family has a little less to eat. The year they arrange a good marriage for Era, mansoon rains destroy their crops. Rukmani sacrifices her savings to buy food for the family. They are unable to pay rent of the land. But when the tennary is established their lives become miserable as their land was occupied by tannery. Throughout the novel, Rukmani is faced with struggle after struggle with no indication that her circumstances will improve. Rukmani endures quietly, holding on to the hope things will soon be better but the situation worsen.

As the tannery is introduced in the village, the lives of villagers are disturbed. They are forced to work on the project of the construction of the tannery. Before introduction of tannery, the villagers led peaceful life. Their main occupation was agriculture but now they are landless. Land owners of the village sell their land for a profitable price due to which the lives of landers pearants become hard. They receive no concession in paying their dues to the landowners and are left with nothing. Rukmani's life changes into that of hunder and suffering. Just see:

" The draught contined until we lost control of the time. Day after day the pitiless run blazed down, scorching whatever still struggled to grow and baking the earth hard until at last it, spite and irregular fissures goped in the land. Plants died and the grasses rotted, cattle and sheep crept to the river that was no more and perished there for lack of water, lizard and squirrels lay prone and gasping in the blistering sunlight."

(Makandaya, P 79)

Rukmani is deeply resistant to its effects on the village and its people. She asserts that tannery is destructive to their peaceful way of life, causes prices to increase and other probles. But soon she becomes used to it because it is out of control. She says:

"It is true, one gets used to anything. I had used to the noise and the smell of the tannery, they no longer effected me. I had seen the slow, calm beauty of our village wilt in the blast from town, andI grieve no more ... Only sometimes when I was weak lay dormant, I found myself rebellious, protesting, rejecting, and no longer calm."

The land is sold to tannery by the zamidars. The farmers become landless due to industrialization. They have no source of income. When Ruku and Nathen lost their land Ruku says:

" This home my husband had built for me with his own hands in the time he was waiting for me, brought me to it with a pride which used to be better living, has so very nearly crused in it we had laid together, and our children had been born. This is but with all its memories was to be taken from us, for it stood on land that belonged to another, and the land itself by which we lived. It is cruel thing, I thought. They do not know what they do to us.

(Markandaya,P. 137)

The noise of tannery greatly effects the village and its environment. According to Ruke," Even the birds have forgotten to sing, or else their calls are lost to us (M,P.29). Peaceful life of villagers is disturbed. The construction of tannery strats under the supervision of overseers and whitemen. When it is constructed a large numbers of workers and officers are settled in the village due to which the atmosphere of the village is changed. The village is divided into two parts. On one hand, a colony of large buildings concreted with bricks and cements. On the other hand, a colony of villagers who live in small huts which are made of mud. Economical system of the village is also effected. There was barter system in the village. But now village has converted into a town. There is a big market now. The prices of daily commodities rise up. Small domestic industries are ruined. Now big shops are established here. The grounds of the village are occupied by large building. The air becomes polluted due to the smell of tannery. Rukmani feels the immediate effect of tannery. She bearails that:

"A one time, there had been kingfishers here, flashing between the young shoots for our fish, and paddy birds, and sometimes, in the shallower reached of river, flamingos, striding with undainly precision among the water reeds, with plumage of a glory not of this earth. Now birds came no more for the tannery lay close

(Markandays, P.69)

In Nectar in a Sieve exploitative nature of industrialization is described. The farmers have been exploiting for a long time by zamindars, landowners etc. The owner of the industries also exploit workers, it is another kind of exploitation. Workers are not provided proper wages and facilities in the tannery. Their working hours are not fixed. Their income is so small, it is hard to survive. The owner can replace the workers whenever they demands for proper wages. Two of Rukmani's sons are not happy with their wages. So they try to initiate strike. It fails and they are exiled. It becomes the symbol of industrial exploitation. Rukmani's sons are exploited so they express their anger over the exploitation but keeps mum when Nathen expresses his helplessness for not having any law against it. Shiv K. Kumar compares tannery with a serpent, he says:

"Rukmani, the devoted wife of tenent famer, living in the soul of quietude of her little village, suddenly finds within this garden of Eden a serpent in the form of tannery that begins to rear it ugly head, devouring green open spaces, pollute the clean, wholesome atmosphere and tempting simple gullible peasants into greed, ambitions and immorality."

(Kumar, 205)

Due to the loss of agrarian land, villagers have to adopt different means of income. They have to work in industries. India is an agrarian country but the introduction of tannery makes a period of transition. Now it provides ample opportunities of employment to the villagers. Young boys of the village are not interested in traditional way of earning. They want to work in tannery to earn easy money. The oppose their ancetters, way of living and earning. Arjun, Thambi and Raja are not interested in their ancestral profession, they want to join tannery. On the other hand,

Rukmani does not like tannery. She expresses her remorse when her sons decide to work in tannery. She says, "You are young, besides, you are not to the caste of tanner, what will our relation say? (P.53). And Arjun replies, "I do not know, I do not care. The important thing is to eat (P.53). Establishment of tannery also affects the life of women in the village. Women have to adopt the profession of prostitute. Ira, daughter of Rukmani, also attracts towards this profession to fulfil the hunger of her belly. She has no source of income as she was abandoned by her husband due to her barrenness.

Rukmani's family is ruined due to industrialization. Their land has been sold. They have nothing to eat Era has turned prostitute. Rukmani's son is killed in the tannery as he was charged with theft. Tannery becomes monster for Rukmani's family. As monster swallows everything. Tannery has also swallowed the happiness of Rukmani's family. There is no hope in their lives. In the end, they have to leave the village. Rukmani was always against tannery, as it disturbs the peace of the village and grasps their land. Rukmani's views about tannery are:

"Somehow I had always left the tannery would eventually be our undoing. I had known it since the day carts had come with thie loads of bricks and noisy dusty men..... It has changed the face of our village beyond our recognition and altered the lives of its inhabitants in myriad ways.....My sons had left because it frowned on them. One of them had been destroyed by its ruthlessness.

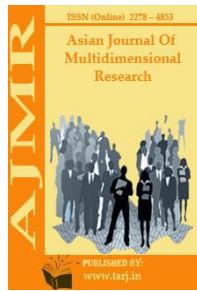
(Markandya, P.16)

Nector in Sieve, in fact portrays the hardships and tragedy faced by peasants, workers of industries and the downtrowdens. The loss of natural beauty and human ethics is the result of industrialization. Industrialization is important for development of a country; it is the result of western knowledge and culture. But in India, as the writer describes, it ruins the age-old village structure. On the one hand industrialization is the symbol of modernization, development, progressive view. But on the other hand, it becomes a course of dehumanization. A few people of Indian society get its profits but a large number of villagers suffer due to it. Due to the industrialization people of India are provided jobs but it is not suitable for everyone. After the establishment of tannery, the sons of Rukmani and Nathen get job in tannery but they are exploited and tortured. It occupies the land of peasants due to which they leave the village but they do not know any skill except tillig land. They suffer in town and city. Tannery can be compared with monster that swallows their happiness and peace of life. It is the rout cause of Rukmani's pathetic condition. Her family is disintegrated. Due to tannery, Rukmani losses her sons and daughter who adopts the the profession of prostitute to save her younger brother Murugan, the third son of Rukmani, finds unable himself to get job in tannery decides to move to city where his life become miserable. It also destroys the lives of other villagers. Janaki's family has to quit village in order to earn livelihood somewhere else. Kunti also becomes a victim of its desctructive forces. To sum up, in *Nector in a Sieve* Kamala Markandaya explores the evils of industrialization and modernization. The novel depicts the changes that modernization brings in the lives of Indian people.

WORKS CITED

Markandaya, Kamala. 1954. "Nector in a Sieve". New York: Signed Books.

Shiv K.Kumar." Tradition and Change in the novels of Kamala Markandaya." Katatiyal journal of English Studies 3.1 (1978)



VILLAGE ADMINISTRATION SYSTEM OF CHOLA EMPIRE: AN OVERVIEW

Prof. Vishnu Bhagwan *; Dr. Pardeep Kumar**

*Dean,
Faculty of Social Sciences,
Cdu, Sirsa, INDIA.

**Assistant Professor,
Deptt. Of History & Archaeology,
Cdu, Sirsa, INDIA.
Email id: dr.coolkunger@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The king was the supreme commander and a benevolent dictator. A powerful bureaucracy assisted the king in the tasks of administration and in executing his orders. The town was known as nagaram and it was under the administration of a council called nagarattar. Government, Revenue, Provincial, Military - study Material lecturing Notes assignment reference wiki description explanation in own residence. The most important Mandalams placed under the charges of the Viceroys who were generally the Princes of the royal blood or of noble families. The qualifications to become a ward member were Ownership of at least one-fourth veli of land. Every village was a self-governing unit. A number of such villages constituted a Korram or Kottam in different parts of the country. Taniyur was a large village big enough to be a Kurram by itself. "The Mahasabha possessed the propriety rights over communal lands and controlled the private lands within its jurisdiction. The Chola village assembly was the absolute proprietor of the village lands. The administrative system became famous during the Chola period. An important feature of the Chola administration was village autonomy. People of the village looked after the administration through their own elected representatives.

KEYWORDS: *Bureaucracy, Self-Governing, Representatives, jurisdiction*

INTRODUCTION:-

The Chola dynasty during the imperial period (850 – 1200 CE) was marked for its uniqueness and idiosyncrasy. Cholas were the first empire who tried to bring the entire South India under a common rule and largely succeeded in their efforts. Although the form and protocols of that government cannot compare to a contemporary form of government, the history of the Chola Empire belongs to a joyous age in their history and the government and the people achieved great things. The king was the supreme commander and a benevolent dictator. His share in the administration consisted of issuing oral commands to responsible officers when representations made to him. All orders recorded in detail in the inscriptions, usually on the walls of temples.

The Cholas had an excellent system of administration. The emperor was at the top of the administration. The extent and resources of the Chola Empire increased the power and prestige of monarchy. The big cities like Tanjore and Gangaikondacholapuram, the large royal courts and extensive grants to the temples reveal the authority of the king. They undertook royal tours to increase the efficiency of the administration. There was elaborate administrative machinery comprising various officials called *perundanam* and *sirudanam* Council of Ministers.¹ There is no definite evidence of the existence of a council to ministers or of other officers connected to the central government, though the name of individual ministers found in the inscriptions. A powerful bureaucracy assisted the king in the tasks of administration and in executing his orders. The lack of a legislature or a legislative system in the modern sense, the fairness of king's orders dependent on the goodness of the man and in his belief in *Dharma* – sense of fairness and justice. The ancient society did not expect anything more than general security from the government. Even matters of disputes went to the officers of the court only as the last.²

The main purpose of the administration is the collection of land revenue. It's called as *puravuvarithinaikkalam*. Mostly land carefully surveyed and classified for assessment of revenue. The *ur nattam*, so called the residential portion of the village. These and other lands such as the lands belonging to temples were exempted from tax. Besides land revenue, there were tolls and customs on goods taken from one place to another, various kinds of professional taxes, dues levied on ceremonial occasions like marriages and judicial fines. During the hard times, there were remission of taxes and *Kulottunga*. The main items of government expenditure were the king and his court, army and navy, roads, irrigation tanks and canals.³

CHOLA ADMINISTRATION

The king was alone responsible for efficient administration of the Chola Empire, since there was no central Assembly of the Vedic character. The body of executive officers was in the immediate and constant attendance of the king. A group of officers represented each department. They were possibly personal staff rather than regular council of ministers. Rather they worked as liaison officers between the king and the bureaucracy. The absolutism of the monarchy tempered both by a ministerial council and by an organized administrative staff, the heads of the departments being also in close contact with the king. Royal towns also contributed to the efficiency of the Chola administration and the officers paid by land assignments, honored and encouraged by titles. The Chola Empire known as *Rajyam* or *Rastrayam* has divided into a number of provinces or *Mandalam*.

The Chola Empire was divided into *mandalams* and each *mandalam* into *valanadus* and *nadus*. In each *nadu* there were a number of autonomous villages. The royal princes or officers were in charge of *mandalams*. The *valanadu* was under *periyannattar* and *nadu* under *nattar*. The town was

known as nagaram and it was under the administration of a council called nagarattar. Government, Revenue, Provincial, Military - study Material lecturing Notes assignment reference wiki description explanation in own residence. The age limits was above thirty years and below seventy years of age and the Knowledge of Vedas. However, certain norms of disqualification were also mention in the inscriptions. They were those who had been members of the committees for the past three years. Those who had failed to submit accounts as committee members. From the persons duly nominated, one was to choose for each ward by kudavolai system for a year. The names of eligible person written on palm-leaves and put into a pot. A young boy or girl would take out thirty names each for one ward.⁴

In fact, they were divided into six variyams such as samvatsaravariyam, erivariyam, thotta variyam, pancha variyam, pon variyam and puravuvuri variyam to take up six different functions of the village administration. The committee members were called variyapperumakkal. They usually met in the temple or under a tree and passed resolutions. The number of committees and ward members varied from village to village. The Chola administration system was very well organized. The administration of Chola dynasty was essentially monarchical in character where the king was at the helm of the administration and all executive legislative and military powers rested with him. A council of ministers and other high officials were there to advice the king for administration of Chola Empire. Even the princes of Chola dynasty were to associate with the ruling king and were actively employed in war and peace. Since the Chola empire was a big one there were many administrative divisions for the efficient working of the government. The Chola Administration system did not had any central assembly either to assist the kings of Chola Dynasty in making policy or to help in day to day administration of the state like the Maurya administration.⁵

The most important Mandalams placed under the charges of the Viceroys who were generally the Princes of the royal blood or of noble families. We came to know that Rajaraja, the great, divided his empire into about eight Mandalams. Chola Princes were in the charges of the provinces of Vengi and Madura. The Chola imperialists had annexed some of the provinces formed of such principalities as. Besides there were the territories of the vassal princes, who paid tribute and rendered service to the Crown in times of needs. The provinces or Mandalams subdivided into number of divisions known as Kottams or Valanadus. The next administrative subdivisions of Cholas were the districts (Nadus), each of which again consisted of a number of autonomous villages, unions or groups of villages, playing a vital part in the Chola administration system.⁶ Though there was corporate activity in the economic and religious life and in the territorial divisions like Nadus and Nagarams or towns, there is ample evidence to show that these divisions had their own popular assemblies during the period of Chola ascendancy, which exhibited the greatest and most comprehensive group activity. First we hear of the assembly of the people of the whole Mandalam in connection with the remission of certain taxes on land under its jurisdiction. Next, the inscriptions refer to the 'Nattar' assembly of the people of a Nadu or district, and 'Nagarattar' or assembly of the mercantile groups which went by the generic name 'Nagaram'. These two terms perhaps corresponded to the Janapada and Paura respectively. Unfortunately the details or their constitution and working are unknown. Besides local administration was greatly facilitated by the existence of guilds or 'Srenis', 'Pugas' and such other autonomous corporate organizations in which persons followed the same craft or calling binding themselves together.⁷

Administrative divisions in villages

The system of village autonomy with sabhas and their committees developed through the ages and reached its culmination during the Chola rule. Two inscriptions belonging to the period of Parantaka I found at Uttiramerur provide details of the formation and functions of village councils. These villages divided into thirty wards and each was to nominate its members to the village council. The qualifications to become a ward member were Ownership of at least one-fourth veli of land. Every village was a self-governing unit. A number of such villages constituted a *Korram* or *Kottam* in different parts of the country. *Taniyur* was a large village big enough to be a *Kurram* by itself. A number of *Kurrams* constituted a *Valanadu*. Several *Valanadus* made up one *Mandalam*, a province. At the height of the Chola empire there were eight or nine of these provinces including Sri Lanka. These divisions and names underwent constant changes throughout the Chola period. An inscription of the eighth century CE at Uttiramerur temple describes the constitution of the local council, eligibility and disqualifications for the candidates, the method selection, their duties and delimits their power. It appears that the administration of a common village *Ur* or *Oor* was different from that of a village given to Brahmins.⁸

The Chola village administration was very systematic and well developed. As regards the assemblies of the villages, the Chola inscriptions mention the assemblies called the 'Ur' and the 'Sabha' or 'Mahasabha' which were the gatherings of the adult male members of the Community. The 'Ur' was the gatherings of the local residents to discuss matters without any formal rule or procedure. But the Sabha or Mahasabha was the assembly of the Brahmin Settlement (Agrahara) and it is this type about which our information's are copious indeed from the inscriptions of the period. Nothing is definitely known about the composition of the 'Ur'. But this much we came to know that 'Ur' had an executive body, called "Abunganam" or "ganam" or "Miyalunganam." Instead Sabha or Mahasabha had a more complex machinery of local administration. Inscriptions found in Tondamandalam and Cholamandalam describe us the activities of the Mahasabhas. The assemblies are found concentrated in certain regions, the major concentration being around Kanchi and minor one encircling Madras.⁹ The two Uttiramerur records of Prantika I of 919 and 921 A.D. contain resolutions passed by the local "Mahasabha" on the constitution of the Variyams or executive committees, the second resolution improving on and superseding the first. According to the regulation of 921 A.D., each of the thirty wards of the village to nominate for selection of persons possessing the following qualifications. Ownership of more than 1/4th 'Veli' (about an acre and a half) of land, residence in a house built on One's own site, age between 35 and 70, the knowledge of the 'Vedic mantra-brahmanas'; in the alternative 1/8th Veli of land and knowledge of one Veda and a Bhasya. The followings among others were excluded; those who had been on any of the committee but had failed to submit the accounts, together with all their specific relations, those who had committed incest or other great sins as well as their relations; those who had stolen the property of others etc. From among the persons, thus nominated one was to be chosen for each of the 30 Kudumbus or Words by Kudavolai or pot lot for a year in the manner so prescribed. Of the thirty so selected, 12 who were advanced in age and learning and had served on the garden and tank committees, were assigned to the Samvatsaravariyam or annual committee, 12 to the 'totta-variyaam' or garden committee and 6 to the 'erivariyam' or tank committee. Two other committees equally selected.¹⁰

These were the 'Panchavira variyam' or a standing committee and the 'Ponvariyaam' (Gold committee). The number of the committees and its members varied from villages to villages and no payment was made for their services. The members of the committee called "Variyapperumakkal" and the Mahasabha called "Perunguri" and its members 'Perumakkal.'" Ordinarily the assembly met in the village temple and occasionally under a tree or in the bank of a pond. There is no reference of voting or quorum. General questions were discussed in the assembly and resolutions were passed are recorded. From the functions of these assemblies, we can judge the extent of the Chola village autonomy. "The Mahasabha possessed the propriety rights over communal lands and controlled the private lands within its jurisdiction. The Chola village assembly was the absolute proprietor of the village lands. When fresh dealings made the assembly became proprietor of those newly acquired lands. The assembly was to see that the cultivators were not harassed. The assembly could transfer its jurisdiction to other organizations.

11

The Mahasabha was also concerned with the reclamation of forest and water lands. It cooperated with the royal officials in estimating the procedure of the cultivated land and assessing the land revenue due from the village. It also collected the revenue, and had also the right to realize the revenue in cases of default by selling the lands in question by public auction. Disputes concerning lands and irrigation rights settled by it and in special cases, assemblies irrigation rights settled by it and in special cases, assembly's from the neighborhoods were requested to cooperate in arriving at a decision. It also enjoyed powers of taxation for purposes connected with the village, and of remission of such taxation for specific purposes. Instead of paying land revenue every year, a landowner could compound all his future dues to the local and central authority, by paying affixed sum to the assembly. Paid officials who detected crimes assisted the committee. The Judicial committee "Nayattar" of the assembly was to settle disputes and award punishment to the guilty. Capital punishment did not given in all cases. The Chola administration of justice was rather lenient. "Riding on an ass" was a punishment given even for some serious type of crimes. The maintenance of road and irrigation works including tanks, supervision of religions, medical and eleemosynary endowments by the Dharmavariyam and making provisions for learning etc.¹²

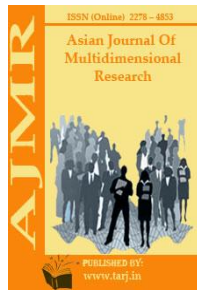
From its own limited resources were the duties of the Mahasabha. Accounts kept with meticulous care and regularly checked by the accountants. The Chola government carried out land survey operations periodically. They were correct to the lowest fraction, and a record of holdings maintained. In the earlier period, rods of 16 or 18 spans were used for purposes of survey, but subsequently the footprint of Kulattunga I became the unit of liner measure. The main source of income of Chola Kindgom was the land revenue, which was normally 1/6th of the gross produce. Variation from this rate, however, depended on the quality of land and water facilities. The remission was sometimes granted in case of food or famine. The royal dues were collected by the village assemblies and were paid either in cash or the kind or in both. The unit of grain was a "Kalam" or about three mounds and the current coin was the gold "Kasu." The Chola government used to tap almost every conceivable sources of revenue to fill its treasury. The chief expenditure was mainly for royal household, maintenance of civil and military administration, planning and laying out of the cities, construction of temples, roads, irrigation channels and other works of public utility.¹³

CONCLUSION

The administrative system became famous during the Chola period. An important feature of the Chola administration was village autonomy. People of the village looked after the administration through their own elected representatives. Elected representatives had to work in the Annual Committee, Garden Committee and Tank Bund Committee. These committees were called "Variyam". The representatives were called "Variya Perumakkal". The village administration was carried on effectively by *variyaams* who used to be the male members of the society. There were types of variyams. The justice was administered by Niyaya variyam while temples were looked after by the Dharma variyam. The control of the finance was given to the pon variyam. The responsibility of the village administration was entrusted to the village assembly called *Grama Sabha*, the lowest unit of the Chola administration. It was involved in the maintenance of roads, tanks, temples and public ponds. The village assembly was also in charge of payment of taxes due from the villages to the King's treasure.

REFERENCES

1. Nilakanta Sastri, K.A. (1955). *A History of South India*, OUP, New Delhi (Reprinted 2002). pp. 604
2. Ibid.
3. Nilakanta Sastri, K.A. (1935). *The Cōḷas*, University of Madras, Madras (Reprinted 1984). pp 316
4. Ibid.
5. Majumdar, R. C. (1987), *Ancient India*, Motilal Banarsidass Publications, pp. 132
6. Devare, Hema (2009), "*Cultural Implications of the Chola Maritime Fabric Trade with Southeast Asia*", Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, pp. 178
7. Ibid. pp.180
8. Sailendra Nath (1999), *Ancient Indian History and Civilization*, New Age International, pp.56
9. Stein Burton (1980), *Peasant state and society in medieval South India*, Oxford University Press
10. Prasad, G. Durga (1988), *History of the Andhras up to 1565 A. D.*, P. G. Publishers, pp.213
11. P. N.; Ravindran, T. K.; Subrahmanian, N. (2003), *History of South India: Ancient, Medieval and Modern*, S. Chand & Company Ltd, pp.234
12. Sen, Sailendra Nath (1999), *Ancient Indian History and Civilization*, New Age International, pp.122
13. Ibid.



MEASURING PRE-OWNED CAR PURCHASE MOTIVATION: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN INDIAN PERSPECTIVE

Sukanta Maji *; Dr.Gautam Bandyopadhyay**

*Research Scholar,
Department of Management Studies,
National Institute of Technology, Durgapur,
West Bengal, INDIA.
Email id: sukantamaji@gmail.com

**Associate Professor,
Department of Management Studies,
National Institute of Technology, Durgapur,
West Bengal, INDIA.
Email id: math_gb@yahoo.co.in

ABSTRACT

In view of rising interest in pre-owned cars among young consumers in emerging markets like India, this study is an effort to develop a pre-owned car purchase motivation scale in the Indian context. The aim of this article is to complete the preliminary stage of scale purification to attain advanced final stage goal to develop a conceptually integrated, valid and reliable scale. In-depth analysis of prior literature followed by qualitative study generated initial 78 items spread across 15 dimensions. A survey is conducted with 162 respondents. Two-stage exploratory factor analysis (EFA) followed by reliability analysis is performed for scale purification. To get an idea of the factors for the final survey the second round of EFA is performed. Resulted analysis extracted three relevant latent factors with high factor loadings and recommended reliability value. This study finally identified 21 relevant attributes for the final survey from initial 78 items considering dimensions.

KEYWORDS: *Exploratory Factor Analysis, Motivation Scale, Pre-Owned Car, Reliability Analysis, Scale Purification.*

INTRODUCTION

Merchandising and trading of second-hand products have been done in our society for hundreds of years (Damme&Vermoesen, 2009). The recent development of second-hand products market and consumers interest towards used items creates a curiosity among researchers. This curiosity raised the very simple yet very essential question what are the reasons behind the consumption of the used-products by all segment of consumers (Guiot& Roux, 2010). Apart from economic reason, various school of thoughts also proposed recreational and experiential stimulus offered by second-hand markets (Guiot& Roux, 2010; Chantelat and Vignal, 2002) are the important reason behind the used-products consumption.

Easy availability of numerous used items via various channels made second-hand market popular among consumers and now a day it has become part of our day to day life. Sometimes it fulfills the need of the new items even for those who don't have any economic motivation to use second-hand products (Williams and Windebank, 2000; Gregson and Crewe, 1997). Second-hand market has generated interest and enthusiasm among consumers (Roux & Guiot 2008), although this market relatively unexplored over the years.

The enormous growth of the Internet usage over the years, particularly via smartphones, provides users a user-friendly informative platform where they can quench their information thirst within a fraction of the time. The detail information regarding any kind of item that may be a used item they can get via internet. The use of internet over the years also revolutionized the whole business model of used items traded over the years. The internet has played the role of a catalyst which helped the used product market say for example used car market gain huge popularity among consumers in emerging markets like India. Recognizing the enormous growth of used products market and considering the inadequate amount of research done over the years gave us a wide area of opportunity to explore and study the consumer behaviour of the second-hand products.

In most of the modern countries GDP growth significantly dependent on the automobile industry's performance and it has become the key player in redefining the movement of individual and workforce since 1960 (Prieto&Caemmerer, 2013). With growing disposable income, buying a car is something easily accessible now a day. Several first-time young car buyers are not happy with entry-level cars. They are looking for mid-level or high-level car models with advanced features. Young consumers preferring feature-rich used-cars in compare to entry level new cars. This transformation in consumer behaviour can represent that purchasing a pre-owned car is no longer a social dishonour for young consumers. Consumers are buying cars and selling them after using for few years. The number of pre-owned cars arriving in the market is mounting. Good amount of used cars are introduced in the market. In recent years the market got saturated and the economic crisis spread across the whole industry, but interestingly the second-hand car market has grown in terms of business size and worth during this crisis (Yin et al. 2010).

Over the years the pre-owned or used car market operated in an unorganised manner. Despite the fast development of the organized used-car market in recent times, the majority market remains under the control of unorganised groups. Pre-owned car market is developing very fast pace as organised players are entering into the market almost all the car manufacturers have their own Pre-owned brand outlets cum service stations in multiple cities. Multiple brand Pre-owned car dealers are paying more attention to it by operating exclusive outlets in metropolitan and urban

cities in India. An enormous growth observed in the Pre-owned car market in last few years and it has to be reflected in future market strategies as well as in consumer overall experience. Organized players have made the used-car market more transparent, knowledgeable and friendly to the end consumers which in return created an overall environment of trust among prospective consumers and also created good feelings about used-car.

The development of transparent, trust enhancing and risk reduction strategies like the concept of Pre-owned certified used cars sold by the manufacturers and organised multi-brand pre-owned car outlets is a very significant and successful strategy in pre-owned car business model. Certified used cars helped dealers to enhance their margins, along with that, the manufacturers are also getting an added source of returns.

Numerous research studies have examined consumer behaviour in associated with new cars. The buying behaviour of the consumer often plays an important role for decision makers to analyse a car market and they often rely on the researches done so far in line with the new car market and sometimes they try to conceptualise the pre-owned car market act in the same manner. The pre-owned markets have come a long way, things have changed a lot. This business model has become more organised. The quality and dependability of the used-car has increased and the consumer attitude towards used-car market have changed a lot.

Very few research works have been done to study the consumer behaviour towards pre-owned car purchase motivation and related literature does not have any relevant measurement scale which can measure used-car purchase motivation. So the existing study is an attempt to purify and develop a measurement scale for Pre-owned car purchase motivation of consumers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Prior studies on Second-hand market

For centuries trading and acquisition of second-hand products was mostly defined to local markets. This kind of shopping perceived to be economical and appealing to the certain section of people (Williams and Windebank, 2000; Williams and Paddock, 2003; Roux and Guiot, 2008). Over the years, the forms of the acquisition have changed a lot. Various channels mostly second-hand stores and trading of used products via internet have expanded this form of exchanges (Roux and Guiot, 2008). Despite being old, previously possessed by somebody else and not being equal to a new product, still one cannot say that buying used products solely dependent upon price (Roux and Guiot, 2008). Research studies on used-product market, flea markets, and garage sales suggest that the second-hand purchase motivation is not solely an economic in nature (Roux and Guiot, 2008; Guiot and Roux, 2010).

The idea of buying 'Second-hand' product represents the items which are previously used and are of lower value compared to new products such as domestic belongings that may be in good condition or repairable or recyclable (Guiot and Roux, 2010; Cervellon et al., 2012; Roux and Korchia, 2006). According to Roux and Guiot (2008) it does not include antique items, work of arts or vintage items.

The Second-hand market provides an ample opportunity for the researchers to explore (Guiot and Roux, 2010; Turunen and Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Sihvonen and Turunen, 2016). Insignificant number of evidence of previous literature shows different forms of second hand buying like auctions and flea markets (e.g. Roux and Korchia, 2006; Guiot and Roux, 2010; Cervellon et al., 2012).

Study of previous research work shows that, though the concept is century old but the recent development of second-hand market followed by participation of organised players in used goods business is new and fresh. Consumer orientation towards the second-hand product has changed considerably (Roux and Guiot, 2008). This idea of old wine in a new bottle is growing remarkably. From previous works of literature, it was also observed that apart from some odd shopping's for economic motives, the second-hand shopping appears to be an amalgamation of economic and recreational motivation (Bardhi and Arnould, 2005; Stone et al., 1996; Roux and Guiot, 2008; Guiot and Roux, 2010).

Analysis of some literature typically highlighted on economic benefits gained from purchasing in second-hand stores and charity stores. The success of these stores fuelled by the weakened purchasing power of the certain section of the people mostly the middle class (Yavas and Riecken, 1981; Razzouk and Gourley, 1982; Horne, 1998; Gregson and Crewe, 2005). Gregson and Crewe (1997a) studied used product market in the background of second-hand shops, garage sales and flea markets decline the influence of economic motives and specify that economically weak class does not represent the majority of the total population.

Recent studies on second-hand channels and second-hand buyers purchase motivation (Stone et al., 1996; Bardhi and Arnould 2005) describes that this kind of purchasing frequently become a parallel option to consumers as like buying new products. It is also becoming an alternate option to consumers planning for shopping (Roux and Guiot, 2008).

Prior studies on Used-car market

According to Akerlof (1970) the used-car market is a lemon market. Akerlof (1970) in his 'lemons' model denied the existence of this market due to the asymmetry of information among stakeholders like consumers and dealers in the market. In his model Akerlof (1970) explained that the buyers of the used car, differentiate between lemons and quality cars due to lack of information. Thus the mix of lemons and quality cars sold at an average value in the market. This in return creates a perception of average quality of cars among consumers.

Bond (1982), in his experiment tested 'lemons' model by comparing the average quality of traded and non-traded trucks in the market. Bond (1982) used binomial logit model as a tool and consider the frequency of maintenance, mileage and age of the car as variables. Research result doesn't support 'lemons' model. Lacko (1986) compared the quality of the cars purchased from friends and via newspaper advertisement and found some sign of adverse selection. It was observed from the research that the car purchased from friends required less maintenance than the car purchased via newspaper advertisement.

Kim (1985) in his model raises the question of existence about lemons problem in the used-car market. Comparing Akerlof's (1970) model, Kim (1985) in his model permitted agents being a seller or a buyer, on the other hand, he considered the quality of used car as an endogenous variable.

Sultan (2008, 2010) studied the influence of Certified Pre-Owned (CPO) platforms on the lemons problem. Manufacturer CPO program includes inspection of multiple points, renovation, trouble rectification followed by warranties. Sultan (2010) also compared CPO and non-CPO cars and further said that CPO cars required less maintenance in compared to non-CPO cars of the same age. By extending Kim's (1985) construct Sultan (2010) proposes that CPO contracts can alleviate the lemons problem. To examine lemons problem Emons and Sheldon (2009) used

Swiss vehicle inspection data to examine lemons model. In their research, they divided the lemons problem in two separate sections ‘adverse selection’ and ‘information asymmetry’ and studied the different section separately. Research results presented that the cars purchased in the used-car market encountered more trouble than the cars not purchased in used car market. Thus it confirms the presence of adverse selection factor in the market. In the second section of the experimental results, Emons and Sheldon (2009) argued in favour of presence of asymmetric information factors. In their research, it was observed that the buyers of lemons try to resale their cars as they were unaware of the quality of the car. Emons and Sheldon (2009) concluded the existence of lemons problem in the used car market and consumers are vulnerable to both factors ‘adverse selection’ and ‘information asymmetry’.

According to Sultan (2009), used-car market has improved significantly in last two decades. Three areas have developed phenomenally as (a) automotive technologies have improved and cars become robust, (b) ease of accessibility to financial options for used-cars and (c) improvement in technique has enhanced the quality of used-car certification. These developments can remove the asymmetric information related troubles present in the used car market (Sultan, 2009).

OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Purchasing a used-car is not a new concept in India. Historically, it’s been practiced for years in local markets. Instead of having a long tradition a very few researchers have shown their interest in second-hand car market this in return creates a space for us to work. Considering the research gap the long-term objective of the existing study was to develop a reliable and valid used-car purchase motivation scale. But, the present study in the Indian context is restricted to (a) in-depth literature review, (b) research gap identification, (c) qualitative study (considering inputs from previous works of literature), (d) item formulation, finally (e) scale purification. The process recommended by Churchill (1979) was adopted for the research work.

METHODS

Item Generation

In the initial stage of research work, existing literature on the second-hand market particularly used-car market is reviewed to develop a pre-owned car purchase motivation scale that can help to understand why people purchase second-hand cars. To fulfil the research objective we have combined the items used by Roux & Guiot (2008) and Guiot & Roux, (2010). In their qualitative study, they conducted focus group followed by semi-directed detailed interviews among French second-hand consumers. Information saturation principle (Glaser and Strauss 1967) was employed to record the interviews.

Referring to the previous literature Roux & Guiot (2008) highlighted the two important areas of motivation, economical (Williams and Paddock 2003) and recreational (Gregson and Crewe 1997b; Stone, Horne, and Hibbert 1996) motivation. The desire to buy cheaper (a), looking for fair price (b), allocative side of price (c), and hunt for bargains (d) were defined as important economical motivational elements that encourage the second-hand shopping. Price discrimination between second-hand products and new products arouse thrift consumers to take price advantages (Anderson & Ginsburgh, 1994).

Referring prior works Roux & Guiot (2008) also emphasized that many consumers purchase second-hand products and explore second-hand shops as a result of hedonic and recreational

motivations. Roux & Guiot (2008) sub-divided recreational motivations into two parts. The originality of the product (e), nostalgic feeling (f), Congruence sought (g) and self-expression (h) are considered under product offering sub-dimension. Recreational motivations such as social interaction (i) where owner of the used product and prospective buyers interact, stimulation (j) and consumer treasure hunting behaviour (k) (Belk, Sherry, and Wallendorf 1988; Gregson and Crewe 1997b; Sherry 1990; Soiffer and Herrmann 1987; Stone, Horne, and Hibbert 1996) considered under second-hand channels sub-dimension.

Apart from economical and recreational motives mentioned in prior works of literature, Roux & Guiot (2008) also proposed three motives in their qualitative study as power motive, ethical and ecological motive and anti-ostentation motive. In power motive, Roux & Guiot (2008) proposed the concept of smart shopping (l) (Mano and Elliott, 1997) where consumers judiciously use the available options or where consumers adopt the good quality used products that owner of the product no longer required and want to sell. Therefore, second-hand shopping looks like a solution to avoid traditional retailing. As proposed by Roux & Guiot (2008) power motive also achieved through bargaining and consumer can regulate sellers by means of power over the seller (m). Roux & Guiot (2008) also highlighted the ethical and ecological (n) motive where comes the obligation for reusing usable products, control the wastage of resources, and escaping the pointless proliferation of products. Finally, in “anti-ostentation” (o) motivation proposed by Roux & Guiot (2008) includes the responsive and thoughtful refusal of everything associated through fashion or mass consumption along with inclination towards products what other ridicules.

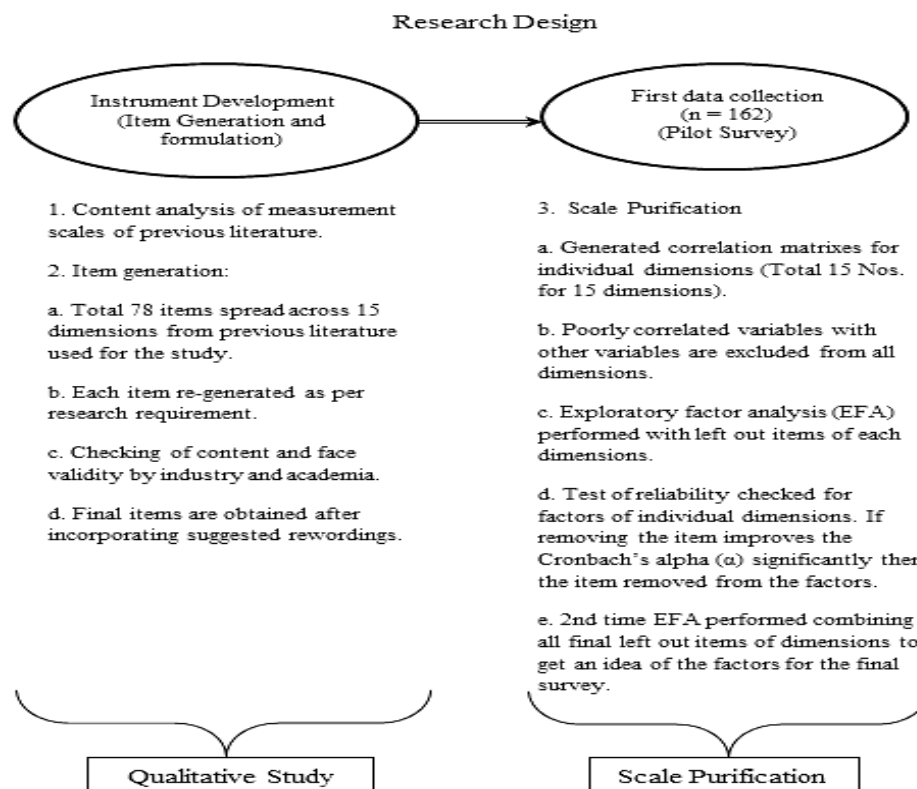


Figure No. 1 Research Design

In the present study, we have used 78 items spread across 15 dimensions proposed by Roux & Guiot (2008) and Guiot & Roux, (2010) in their qualitative study. Next, we have re-generated all 78 items considering all 15 dimensions proposed by Roux & Guiot (2008) with respect to consumer used-car purchase motivation. As Roux & Guiot (2008) conducted the study among French consumers so we have re-calibrated the items keeping Indian consumer and business environment in mind. To make items easy to understand and subsequently to get response correctly we have translated the items into local languages for example in Bengali. For content and face validity the framed items are then sent to four marketing professors based in India and four Used-car market industry experts based in India separately. Reviewed suggestions received from industry experts and professors are incorporated and the final items are obtained for the research work.

Sample Survey Mechanism

We have selected the city of Kolkata in the state of West Bengal, India as our research area because of numerous reasons. GDP and population wise Kolkata (previously known as Calcutta) is the 3rd largest mega city in India with estimated GDP of 150 Billion USD and estimated population of 14 million. As a result of these, the population becomes multicultural in nature, represents India. Kolkata is one of the fastest growing used car markets in term of market potential with a huge middleclass population base. With estimated 0.25 million registered cars Kolkata is among the top ten cities in terms of the number of car owners in India.

The on-site survey was conducted in two biggest Public Vehicles Department office surrounding areas popularly known as RTOs (Regional transport office) and at top five multi-brand used-car retail outlet surrounding areas based in Kolkata. To recruit the respondents with real purchase intention of buying used-car or real experience of buying used- car in recent times and willing to respond to the survey were selected for the research work. The one common limitation of this kind of research is the lack of motivation experienced by respondents (Liechty et al., 2005). This limitation was avoided by choosing the willing respondents and at the same time offering them the rewards to motivate them so that the true response can be recorded. In present study used 78 items articulated on a five-point likert scale and put into a self-administered questionnaire. A total of 162 usable questionnaires were returned by the respondents. However, this research work has been performed on a small sample to purify the scale so that final used-car purchase motivation scale could get even more practical and inclusive data.

SCALE PURIFICATION AND ANALYSIS

The first stage comprises of statistical filtration using multiple correlations among all the items of each dimension. The resultant correlations matrix is a thoughtful representation of interdependence between the items of each dimension. From this matrix, strongly correlated items can be identified. Considering the resultant multiple correlation matrix two basic things need to be observed, first, the items have to be inter correlated next they should not correlate too highly or too lowly with other items (Field, 2009: 648). If the items correlate too highly it would cause problems in identifying the unique contribution of items to a resultant factor (Field 2000: 444). If the items correlate too lowly with other items, the item probably does not measure the similar fundamental construct as the other items. According to Field, 2009 if lots of low correlations of any variable resulted from a matrix, consider excluding them (Field, 2009: 648). In this present research work, after generating the correlation matrix the items correlated with at least one item of the remaining other items of a dimension with correlated value 'r' less than -0.7

or more than 0.7 and with less than .05 probabilities (sig.) value were identified and remaining items doesn't fulfil the criteria and with lots of low correlations observed are eliminated. This process was repeated for all 15 nos. dimensions. Numerous dimensions accepted in the qualitative study were eliminated led to a loss of information through this process. Various dimensions like desire to buy cheaper (a), looking for fair price (b), allocative side of price (c), hunt for bargains (d), Congruence sought (g), self-expression (h), power over the seller (m) ethical and ecological (n), anti-ostentation (o) were eliminated. This initial refinement process generated 6 nos. dimensions with total 21 nos. items from initially accepted 15 nos. dimensions with total 78 nos. items.

Sample Analysis

A larger sample size is always preferable for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) because it works well with large sample size (Yong and Sean Pearce, 2013). Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) in their research work mentioned that if the resultant factor loading has definite numbers of high factor loading scores ($> .80$) then a sample size greater than 150 ($n > 150$) is acceptable for the factor analysis. A factor loading reflects the amount of contribution made by a variable to its factor, so high factor loading reflects the dimensions of factors are well represented by the variables (Yong and Sean Pearce, 2013). Comrey & Lee (1992) also proposed that the variables considered for factor analysis need to have a minimum of 5 to 10 observations collected. Various previous studies clearly identified and accepted the rule of thumb for factor analysis is that the number of observations must surplus 5 times the number of the variables considered for the research (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Stevens, 1996). Habing (2003), states that "you should have at least 50 observations and at least 5 times as many observations as variables" (p. 3). Field (2000) mentioned that a factor analysis should have "at least 10-15 subjects per variable" (p. 443). Field (2000) also mentioned that "the most important factors in determining reliable factor solutions was the absolute sample size and the absolute magnitude of factor loadings" (p.443). The frequent presence of higher factor loadings are on a factor determines the acceptance of smaller sample size. For the present research work, a total of 162 usable observations are returned by the respondents and the maximum number of items exists for a dimension is 5. Considering the previous literature the sample size ($n=162$) obtained is adequate to perform factor analysis.

Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy can determine whether the sample size is large enough to extract factors from the factor analysis (Field, 2009). The KMO is near 1 or value between .5 & 1.0 indicates that sample size is adequate and factors can probably be extracted (Malhotra, 2008). KMO "values between 0.5 and 0.7 are mediocre, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb" (Field, 2009: 647). For the present research work, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy test was performed with accepted 6 nos. of dimensions consider for 1st stage Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). KMO measure of sample adequacy for all 6 nos. of dimensions consider for EFA is greater than 0.7 (>0.740), which signifies that the sample size ($n=162$) considered for the present study is good enough to perform factor analysis (See Table no.:1).

There is an unbiased test which can determine that the items do not correlate too lowly. Bartlett's test of sphericity can check whether the suitable inter correlation exists in between items to perform factor analysis (Field 2000). Bartlett's test of sphericity: "tests the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix" (Field 2000: 457). If the correlation matrix is found to be an identity matrix, in that case no correlations would exist between the variables.

Bartlett's test of sphericity significant result means reject the null hypothesis H_0 and accept the alternate hypothesis (H_1) implies statistically significant inter correlation exists between the variables and anyhow items are going to correlate. In the present study Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed for all 6 nos. of dimensions (See Table no.:1) consider for EFA is highly significant ($p < 0.000$).

Table 1**Factor and Reliability analysis of 6 nos. accepted dimensions from qualitative study**

| Factor Analysis (Dimensions) | Sample Analysis | | | Factor Analysis | | | | | Reliability Analysis | | Consideration |
|--|------------------------------|------------|------------------------|-------------------|-------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|
| | Items | KMO | Bartlett's Test (Sig.) | Factors Extracted | Eigen value | Communalities | Variance Explained | Factor Loading | Cronbach's alpha (α) | α if Item Deleted | |
| Recommended Value | | ≥ 0.5 | ≤ 0.005 | ≥ 1 | ≥ 1 | ≥ 0.3 | $\geq 75\%$ | ≥ 0.50 | ≥ 0.7 | ≥ 0.7 | |
| Factor Analysis No.1 (Originality) | ORIG1 ORIG2 ORIG5 | 0.745 | .000 | 1 | 2.506 | 0.817 0.866 0.823 | 83.541 | 0.904 0.930 0.907 | 0.901 | 0.875 0.829 0.869 | Accepted Accepted Accepted |
| Factor Analysis No. 2 (Nostalgia) | NOST1 NOST3 NOST4 | 0.741 | .000 | 1 | 2.503 | 0.838 0.798 0.867 | 83.421 | 0.915 0.893 0.931 | 0.848 | 0.714 0.889 0.748 | Accepted Accepted Accepted |
| Factor Analysis No. 3 (Social Contact) | SOC1 SOC2 SOC3 SOC4 | 0.824 | .000 | 1 | 3.085 | 0.759 0.779 0.804 0.744 | 77.128 | 0.871 0.882 0.896 0.862 | 0.900 | 0.875 0.869 0.862 0.880 | Accepted Accepted Accepted Accepted |
| Factor Analysis No. 4 (Stimulation) | SIMU1 SIMU2 | 0.761 | .000 | 1 | 2.575 | 0.866 0.849 | 85.834 | 0.931 0.921 | 0.917 | 0.875 0.889 | Accepted Accepted |

| | SIMU4 | | | | | 0.860 | | 0.927 | | 0.880 | Accepted |
|--|-------|-------|------|---|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| Factor Analysis No. 5 (Treasure Hunting) | TH1 | 0.867 | .000 | 1 | 3.936 | 0.768 | 78.725 | 0.877 | 0.931 | 0.918 | Accepted |
| | TH2 | | | | | 0.832 | | 0.912 | | 0.909 | Accepted |
| | TH3 | | | | | 0.816 | | 0.903 | | 0.912 | Accepted |
| | TH4 | | | | | 0.817 | | 0.904 | | 0.911 | Accepted |
| | TH5 | | | | | 0.704 | | 0.839 | | 0.928 | Accepted |
| Factor Analysis No. 6 (Smart Shopping) | SMAR1 | 0.743 | .000 | 1 | 2.422 | 0.793 | 80.721 | 0.891 | 0.878 | 0.842 | Accepted |
| | SMAR2 | | | | | 0.826 | | 0.909 | | 0.805 | Accepted |
| | SMAR3 | | | | | 0.802 | | 0.896 | | 0.833 | Accepted |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis

The construct validity of a research questionnaire can be verified using factor analysis (Bornstedt, 1977; Rattray & Jones, 2007). In a construct valid questionnaire fundamental construct is well represented by items. Factors with the highest percentage of variance the variables portray are predictable represents the underlying constructs. To evaluate each of the remaining 6 filtered dimensions, distinct (See Table no.:1) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted using principal component extraction method with varimax rotation. Three basic criteria are set to elimination Items - (a) low (<0.50) factor loading, (b) high (>0.40) cross-loading, and (c) low (<0.30) commonalities (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2009). Using filtration criteria all the items of the 6 dimensions were scanned and all the items fulfill the desired criteria (See Table no.:1). Resultant 6 nos. factor analysis outputs for 6 dimensions extracted 1 factor each. All the extracted factors for individual 6 dimensions are with eigenvalues (>1) greater than 1 and cumulative variance (>75%) greater than 75% (See Table no.:1).

Table: 2
Second stage Factor and Reliability Analysis

| Factor Analysis | | | | | Reliability Analysis | | |
|--|----------|----------|----------|------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy: 0.948 | | | | | | | |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig. 0.000 | | | | | | | |
| Items | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Eigenvalue | Rotated SS % variance | Cronbach's alpha (α) | α if Item deleted |
| ORIG1 | 0.804 | | | 8.172 | 38.914 | 0.967 | 0.965 |
| ORIG2 | 0.839 | | | | | | 0.963 |
| ORIG5 | 0.836 | | | | | | 0.963 |
| NOST1 | 0.660 | | | | | | 0.965 |
| NOST3 | 0.708 | | | | | | 0.965 |
| NOST4 | 0.654 | | | | | | 0.965 |
| SIMU1 | 0.656 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| SIMU2 | 0.673 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| SIMU4 | 0.647 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| TH1 | 0.734 | | | | | | 0.965 |
| TH2 | 0.837 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| TH3 | 0.816 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| TH4 | 0.776 | | | | | | 0.963 |
| TH5 | 0.643 | | | | | | 0.964 |
| SOC1 | | 0.819 | | 4.600 | 21.906 | 0.900 | 0.875 |
| SOC2 | | 0.844 | | | | | 0.869 |
| SOC3 | | 0.773 | | | | | 0.862 |
| SOC4 | | 0.732 | | | | | 0.880 |
| SMAR1 | | | 0.864 | 2.782 | 13.247 | 0.878 | 0.842 |
| SMAR2 | | | 0.897 | | | | 0.805 |
| SMAR3 | | | 0.863 | | | | 0.833 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Reliability analysis

In a questionnaire based survey instrument, cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) commonly used as a research tool for the measure of the reliability. It measures the internal consistency of items. As presented (See Table no.:1) the reliability scores for extracted factors of 6 dimensions were stretched from 0.848 to 0.917 exceeding the recommended value ≥ 0.7 (Nunnally, 1994; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). According to Field (2009) identifying the distinct contribution of the items to the factor reliability is the final step of Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis. Reliability scores are presented for each item of the factor when that particular item is deleted (See Table no.:1). If the Cronbach's alpha value escalates significantly when a specific item is deleted, consider deleting the item. In this research work resulted table clearly shows that all the items contributed positively and for all the 21 items distributed across 6 dimensions reliability scores exceeding the recommended value ≥ 0.7 shows that all the items are important to the factor and can't be deleted and the Cronbach's alpha remain the same when the item deleted. It is

observed that the factor reliabilities have satisfied the recommended criteria signifying that the factor measures are reliable. The Table: 1 shows that all the 21 items are accepted for the second round of the factor analysis by fulfilling all the set prior filtration criteria.

Second stage factor Analysis

In the second stage obtained 21 items (See Table no.:1) from 6 different dimensions are considered together to perform the second round of factor analysis. The second round of factor analysis is performed to identify the latent factors within the combination of items Identified from the previous stage. To check the sample adequacy Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy test was performed on dataset of 21 items and it was observed (See Table no.:2) that the measured value (0.948) is greater than 0.9 which according to Field (2009) is superb, implies that the sample (n=162) considered for the factor analysis is adequate. In the next stage of the analysis Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed on 21 item set (See Table no.:2) and the result is highly significant ($p < 0.000$) implies statistically significant inter correlation exists between the items and it is good enough to perform factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed using principal component extraction method with varimax rotation. Resulted factor analysis extracted three (3) number of factors with eigenvalues (>1) greater than 1. Factors are composed of items with factor loading greater than 0.50 (Hair et. al 2009) and three factors cumulatively explained 74.067% of variance which is considered to be good (See Table no.:2). This analysis produces three understandable factor contained fourteen, four and three items respectively. To test the factor reliability cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) test was performed. Resulted reliability scores for extracted factors are 0.967 (factor1), 0.900 (factor 2), 0.878 (factor 3) respectively exceeding the recommended value ≥ 0.7 (Nunnally, 1994). Resulted table also shows the reliability scores of the factor if that particular item deleted (See Table no.:2). Results of all cases exceeding 0.8 imply all the items are important to the factor and can't be eliminated. Finally, 21 items are accepted after the second round of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and retained for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) but that is not within the scope of the paper.

CONCLUSIONS

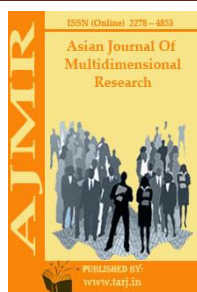
The long-term perspective of this present article is to develop a used-car purchase motivation measurement scale. So far the present research work helps us to identify the relevant items to achieve the ultimate objective of this paper by means of research gap identification followed by item formulation and scale purification. A pilot survey was conducted with a decent sample size of 162 respondents. The purification process started with the collected data comprises of two-stage factor analysis followed by reliability analysis. Purification process extracted us a manageable practical 21 items scale for the next stage from initial 78 items scale. The evaluated questionnaire appears reliable and construct valid and measures the underlying construct. The second round of factor analysis extracted three factors and the extracted factor seems relevant although the latent factor naming was not done in this article. The resulted reliability score (α) was much higher than recommended value and when one of the items deleted the Cronbach's alpha does not change much for all the factors shows the importance of the items to the factor. While in most of the cases the questionnaire is usually accepted if the Cronbach's alpha value is as high as 0.8 in our case all the α values are higher than 0.8. Although based on the factor analysis validity of the questionnaire can't be claimed (Ratray & Jones, 2007) but it can be clearly stated that the items measure the underlying construct.

REFERENCE

- Akerlof, G. (1970). The market for 'lemons': quality uncertainty and the market mechanism. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 84, 488–500.
- Anderson, S. P., & Ginsburgh, V. A. (1994). Price discrimination via second-hand markets. *European Economic Review*, 38(1), 23-44.
- Bardhi, F., & Arnould, E.J. (2005). Thrift shopping: combining utilitarian thrift and hedonic treat benefits. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4, 4, 223-233.
- Bond, E. W. (1982). A direct test of the Lemons model: the market for pickup trucks, *American Economic Review*, 72, 836–40.
- Bornstedt, G.W. (1977). Reliability and Validity in Attitude Measurement. In: G.F. Summers (Ed.), *Attitude Measurement* (pp. 80-99). Kershaw Publishing Company: London.
- Cervellon, M. C., Carey, L., and Harms, T. (2012). Something old, something used - Determinants of women's purchase of vintage fashion vs second-hand fashion. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, Vol. 40 No. 12, pp. 956-974.
- Chantelat, P., & Vignal, B. (2002). L'intermédiation du marché de l'occasion. Échangemarchand, confiance et interactions sociales. *Sociologie du Travail*, 44, 3, 315-336.
- Churchill, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XVI, 64–73.
- Comrey, L.A., & Lee, H.B. (1992). A first course in factor analysis (2nd ed.). Hillside, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297–333
- Damme, I. V., Vermoesen, R. (2009). Second-hand consumption as a way of life: public auctions in the surroundings of Alost in the late eighteenth century. *Continuity and Change*, Vol.24 (2), 275-305.
- Ding, M., Grewal, R., and Liechty, J. (2005). Incentive-aligned conjoint analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research* Vol. XLII 42(1):67–82
- Emons, W., & Sheldon, G. (2009). The market for used cars: new evidence of the lemons Phenomenon. *Applied Economics*, 41:22, 2867-2885, DOI: 10.1080/00036840802277332
- Field, A. (2000). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS for Windows*. Sage: London.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*. Sage: London.
- Gregson, N., & Crewe, L. (1997a). The bargain, the knowledge, and the spectacle: making sense of consumption in the space of the car-boot sale. *Environment and Planning: Society and Space*, 15, 1, 87-112.
- Gregson, N., & Crewe, L. (1997b). Performance and possession. Rethinking the act of purchase in the light of the car boot sale. *Journal of Material Culture*, 2, 2, 241-263.
- Gregson, N., & Crewe, L. (2005). *Second-hand cultures*, New York, Berg.

- Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation to sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (2), 265-275. Doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.103.2.265
- Guiot, D., & Roux, D. (2010). A second-hand shoppers' motivation scale: antecedents, consequences, and implications for retailers. *Journal of Retailing*, 86 (4), 355–371.
- Habing, B. (2003). Exploratory Factor Analysis. Website: <http://www.stat.sc.edu/~habing/courses/530EFA.pdf> (accessed 27 Feb 2018).
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Horne, S., (1998). Charity shops in the UK. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 26, 4, 155-161.
- Kim, Jae-Cheol. (1985). The Market for 'Lemons' Reconsidered: A Model of the Used Car Market with Asymmetric Information. *American Economic Review*, 75(4): pp. 836-843.
- Lacko, J. (1986). Product quality and information in the used car market, Staff Report, April 1986, Federal Trade Commission.
- Malhotra, N. K. (2008). *Marketing research- An Applied Orientation*, 5th Ed., Pearson Education.
- Mano, H., & Elliott, M.T. (1997). Smart shopping: the origins and consequences of price savings. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 1, 504-510.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Prieto, M., & Caemmerer, B. (2013). An Exploration of Factors Influencing Car Purchasing Decisions. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 41, 738-764.
- Rattray, J., & Jones, M.C. (2007). Essential Elements of Questionnaire Design and Development. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16, 234-243.
- Razzouk, N.Y., & Gourley, D., (1982). Swap meets: a profile of shoppers. *Arizona Business*, 29, 8-12.
- Roux, D. & Guiot, D. (2008). Measuring second-hand shopping motives, antecedents and consequences. *Recherche Applications en Marketing* [Online]. 23(4): 63-91.
- Roux, D., & Korchia, M. (2006). Am I what I wear? An exploratory study of symbolic meanings associated with second-hand clothing. *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 33, *Association for Consumer Research*, Duluth, MN: pp. 29-35.
- Sherry, J. F. (1990). A sociocultural analysis of a Midwestern American flea market. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17(1), 13-30.
- Sihvonen, J., & Turunen, L. L. M. (2016). As good as new - valuing fashion brands in the online second-hand markets. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 25 Issue: 3, pp.285-295
- Soiffer, S.M., & Herrmann, G.M. (1987). Visions of power: ideology and practice in the American garage sale, *Sociological Review*, 35, 1, 48-83.

- Stone, J., Horne, S. and Hibbert, S. (1996). Car boot sales: a study of shopping motives in an alternative retail format. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 24, 11, 4-15.
- Sultan, A. (2008). Lemons hypothesis reconsidered: an empirical analysis. *Economic Letters*, 99, 541-4.
- Sultan, A. (2009). Lemons and certified pre-owned cars in the used car market. *Applied Economics Letters*, 2010, 17, 45-50
- Sultan, A. (2010). A model of the used car market with lemons and leasing. *Applied Economics*, 42:28, 3619-3627, DOI: 10.1080/00036840802314556
- Turunen, L.L.M., & Leipämaa-Leskinen, H. (2015). Pre-loved luxury: identifying the meanings of second-hand luxury possessions. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 24 No. 1, pp. 57-65
- Williams, C., & Paddock, C., (2003). The meanings of informal and second-hand retail channels: some evidence from Leicester. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, Vol. 13 No. 3, pp. 317-336.
- Williams, C.C., & Windebank, J. (2000). Beyond formal retailing and consumer services: an examination of how households acquire goods and services. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 7, 3, 129-136.
- Yavas, U., & Riecken, W.G. (1981). Heavy, medium, light shoppers and nonshoppers of a used merchandise outlet. *Journal of Business Research*, 9, 3, 243-253.
- Yin, S., Ray, S., Gurnani, H. and Animesh, A. (2010). Durable products with multiple used goods markets: product upgrade and retail pricing implications. *Marketing Science*, Vol. 29 No. 3, pp. 540-560.
- Yong, A. G., & Sean, Pearce (2013). A Beginner's guide to factor analysis: Focusing on Exploratory Factor Analysis. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 9(2), pp. 79-94



CLIMATE CHANGE VIS-A-VIS GLOBAL GOVERNANCE

Prof. Vishnu Bhagwan*; Dr. Sandeep Kumar**

*Dean,
Faculty of Social Sciences,
Cdlu, Sirsa, INDIA.

**Assistant Professor,
Deptt. of Geography,
Cdlu, Sirsa, INDIA.

ABSTRACT

Climate change effects are most significant in tropical and subtropical regions, which are poor and where governance capacity is inadequate. The global environmental governance can build cost-effective strategies and institutional capacity in developing countries to respond to Climate change needs critically evaluate. The targets established at Kyoto were much more the result of an agreement amongst G8 leaders trying to “out green” one another than any rigorous analysis facts. For example, in the case of carbon capture and storage, setting target dates for a certain percentage of coal-based plants in a country/region to have carbon capture and storage implemented on-site. Public goods are others can still enjoy non-rivalries a natural resource enjoyed by one person—and non-excludable it is impossible to prevent someone consuming the good⁷. Nevertheless, public goods recognized as beneficial and therefore have value. This is because the investment “regime” is scattered among more than 2,500 bilateral investment treaties and a growing number of investment chapters in free trade agreements. Even more worrying, however, is the emergence of what has been termed a ‘post-truth’ world. The Attorney General of California, for instance, has reaffirmed his state’s commitment to reducing emissions, “irrespective of what goes on in Washington”. Moreover, it should be the “bellwether,” in cooperation with the IPCC, in notifying where emissions are going and what the likely concentrations impacts of that would be. It should also serve as the pressure point in clearly identifying what emission reductions would be expect at these different levels and report on the extent to those “targets” are being met.

KEYWORDS: *Implemented, Emissions, Identifying, Irrespective, Emission Reductions*

INTRODUCTION:-

Climate change is one of the most critical anthropogenic environmental impacts on experienced globally in recent decades. It can profoundly alter our economic future and livelihood. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change has confirmed that the earth's climate is getting warmer, with the likely increase in temperature ranging from 1.1⁰ C to 6.4⁰ C and the likely increase in sea level ranging from 0.18 m to 0.59 m.¹ Climate change will have dire consequences for developing countries, exacerbating poverty, disease and instability. According to the Department of Hydrology and Meteorology, the average temperature in Nepal is increasing at a rate of approximately 0.06⁰ C per year. It is estimate that over the next 30–50 years the temperature may rise by about 2.6⁰. Warming in the country since the 1970s has been three times as rapid as for the preceding 100 years. The 1990s saw the warmest decade in the 142 years since temperature records began. A rise in sea level can affect food security for people located in coastal areas due to a rise in average temperatures. The emission of greenhouse gases is the main reason for Climate change. Asia contributed 31 per cent of global emissions in 2006, and this is expect to rise to 42.1 per cent of global emissions in 2030. Much of the emissions have been due to forest clearing in Southeast Asian countries, which also destroyed considerable biodiversity and ecosystem services. Globalization since the 1980s and rapid industrialization have increased the emission of GHGs, thereby exacerbating CC. China's CO₂ emissions increased from 1,460 million tons in 1980 to 6,499 million tons in 2007, becoming the world's biggest emitter.²

The International Energy Agency estimates that China's CO₂ emissions will continue 68 H. Governance Approaches to Mitigation of an Adaptation to Climate Change in Asia. Climate change effects are most significant in tropical and subtropical regions, which are poor and where governance capacity is inadequate. It can seriously affect developing countries in Asia where populations are most vulnerable and least capable of easily adapting to Climate change. The distributional impacts of such policies are very important because of the limited ability to adapt or to mitigate. Intergenerational equity is an important issue in Climate change because GHG emissions at one time can exert a considerable influence on events some decades later. Global Climate change will affect resource availability, which can reduce human development and growth. Varying policies adopted in different countries to mitigate Climate change. In developing countries is Asia, however, the capacity for governance may be limited. Climate change transcends national boundaries, and hence global environmental governance mechanisms that go beyond state-led treaties have emerged. Governments are equal partners here along with non-governmental organizations activist groups, citizens and other entities.³

The opportunities exist in developing countries effectively use global environmental governance regimes to assist in the design of integrated responses to Climate change. The global environmental governance can build cost-effective strategies and institutional capacity in developing countries to respond to Climate change needs critically evaluate. The aim of this chapter is critically review relevant published literature in order to synthesize Climate change challenges for Asia. The review under covers literature up to 2010 to provide insights into the most recent developments of Climate change issues. The focus is mostly on the global governance of Climate change and the major initiatives failed to have a significant effect on it. Global environmental governance is a complex concept, which refers to the nature and

distribution of the institutionalized capacity to make decisions to manage global environmental problems such as Climate change. The United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972 was the precursor to Global environmental governance.⁴

Climate Change and Global Governance:-

Having ever more stringent reduction targets so as maintain fealty to the altar of correct thinking. The targets established at Kyoto were much more the result of an agreement amongst G8 leaders trying to “out green” one another than any rigorous analysis facts. There is a growing consensus that, at the very least, global greenhouse gas emissions will need to be reduced by at least 50 per cent by the middle of this century. Clearly, achieving such a goal will require the engagement of all major economies and, just as clearly, those same countries need some time and Opportunity to seriously figure out what they can do domestically; how regional or international coordination can help; and what the potential contributions of discrete sectors are in that formulation. The economies gave some time to address these questions *seriously* publics won't let them do otherwise and then revisit the possibility of a globally binding regime by the end of this decade, assuming countries are now much more informed and engaged on what they can actually accomplish. The UNFCCC should continue to play the critical environmental role as the home and protector of Article the ultimate objective of ensuring that anthropogenic interference to the global environment. It is also needs to continue reviewing countries' actions and should expand that activity to reviewing the effectiveness of regional and bilateral efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Moreover, it should be the “bellwether,” in cooperation with the IPCC, in notifying where emissions are going and what the likely concentrations impacts of that would be. It should also serve as the pressure point in clearly identifying what emission reductions would be expect at these different levels and report on the extent to those “targets” are being met.⁵

The effective regime clearly needs to be established on the mitigation side and here we could look at the possibility of establishing expert tables where industry, academics and governments can work together and seriously commit to ways in which they can cooperate to alter the course of development in climate-friendly and clean energy directions. This in no way should be considering as an “out” for addressing climate change as an urgent issue. We have an increasingly limited time to get this right—anywhere from 120 to 200 months to stabilize global GHG emissions if we want to avoid the risk of serious environmental and social damage. In that respect, while some may want to use the Asia-Pacific Partnership on Clean Development and Climate model as an example of how to proceed on the mitigation side, I am proposing some important differences⁴.

In fact, these sector groups need to agree on what their contributions to a global reduction should be. Initially, if sectors cannot come to agreement, simply use their current emissions profile in determining what would be an appropriate contribution. However, it might also be in other formats. For example, in the case of carbon capture and storage, setting target dates for a certain percentage of coal-based plants in a country/region to have carbon capture and storage implemented on-site. This means, of course, that any such initiative must have some real and significant money behind it, with clear programs of action⁵. Moreover, of course, it must have a broader constituency comprising all major economies, including the European Union. One requirement for such a regime would be a new maturity in Industry whereby, and this is particularly the case for the energy industry, it will need to depart from its parochial ways and truly seek solutions in its sectors that work for the common good. Industry must do more than either justify current practices or set about focusing on why their particular technology represents

the answer to all the world's woes. I know, but a critical one for industry's more serious and active participation to have any credibility.⁶

ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE:-

The Environmental governance is a concept in political ecology and environmental policy that advocates sustainability(sustainable development) as the supreme consideration for managing all human activities—political, social and economic. Governance includes government, business and civil society, and emphasizes whole system management. To capture this diverse range of elements, environmental governance often employs alternative systems of governance, for example watershed-based management. It views natural resources and the environment as global public goods, belonging to the category of goods that did not diminished when they shared. This means that everyone benefits from for example, a breathable atmosphere, stable climate and stable biodiversity. Public goods are others can still enjoy non-rivalries a natural resource enjoyed by one person—and non-excludable it is impossible to prevent someone consuming the good⁷. Nevertheless, public goods recognized as beneficial and therefore have value. The notion of a global public good thus emerges, with a slight distinction: it covers necessities that must not destroy by one person or state. The non-rivalries character of such goods calls for a management approach. That restricts public and private actors from damaging them. One approach is to attribute an economic value to the resource. As of 2013, environmental governance is far from meeting these imperatives. “Despite a great awareness of environmental questions from developed and developing countries, there is environmental degradation and the appearance of new environmental problems.⁷ This situation is cause by the parlous state of global environmental governance, wherein current global environmental governance is unable to address environmental issues due to many factors. These include fragmented governance within the United Nations, lack of involvement from financial institutions, proliferation of environmental agreements often conflict with trade measures. All these various problems disturb the proper functioning of global environmental governance. In fact, divisions among northern countries and the persistent gap between developed and developing countries also have to be taken into account to comprehend the institutional failures of the current global environmental governance.”⁸

GLOBAL GOVERNANCE:-

At the global level there are numerous important factors involved in environmental governance and "a range of institutions contribute to and help define the practice of global environmental governance. The idea of global environmental governance is to govern the environment at a global level through a range of nation states and non-state actors such as national governments, NGOs and other international organizations such as UNEP (United Nations Environment Programme). Global environmental governance is the answer to calls for new forms of governance because of the increasing complexity of the international agenda. It is perceive to be an effective form of multilateral management and essential to the international community in meeting goals of mitigation and the possible reversal of the impacts on the global environment.⁹

However, a precise definition of global environmental governance is still vague and there are many issues surrounding global governance. Elliot argues, “The congested institutional terrain still provides more of an appearance than a reality of comprehensive global governance. This meant that there are too many institutions within the global governance of the environment for it to be completely inclusive and coherent leaving it merely portraying the image of this to the

global public. Global environmental governance is about more than simply expanding networks of institutions and decision makers. “It is a political practice which simultaneously reflects, constitutes and masks global relations of power and powerlessness. State agendas exploit the use of global environmental governance to enhance their own agendas or wishes even if this is at the detriment of the vital element behind global environmental governance, which is the environment. Elliot states that global environmental governance “is neither normatively neutral nor materially benign. Newell, report notes by The Global Environmental Outlook noted that the systems of global environmental governance are becoming increasingly irrelevant or impotent due to patterns of globalization such as; imbalances in productivity and the distribution of goods and services, unsustainable progression of extremes of wealth and poverty and population and economic growth overtaking environmental gains. Newell states that, despite such acknowledgements, the “managing of global environmental change within International Relations continues to look to international regimes for the answers.”¹⁰

Development and Climate Change:-

A sustainable future regime also has closely tie to an aggressive development agenda for developing countries and least-developed countries consistent with the agreement or “bargain” struck in drafting Agenda 21, at the Rio Summit in 1992. The developing countries will shoulder important environmental responsibilities and in return, developed countries will take on serious commitments to help fund and support them in that process. It expected that member governments of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development would meet their commitments to provide. Other modalities for this deal have been the subject of debate ever since, but an important area of unexploited potential lies in global trade and investment. In the area of trade, the current Doha Development Agenda is in danger of coming to a standstill, in no small part because countries cannot agree on what constitute appropriate trade measures to foster development in developing and least developed countries.¹¹

This question is an important one to get right; these negotiations have more implications for development than any number of bilateral initiatives by official development agencies, even if they were to meet their 7 percent commitment. The Good deal on the Doha track could work to ease negotiations around a post-2012 climate change regime by creating the necessary good will. Fostering the requisite economic growth, restructuring make developing countries better able to contribute, and through targeted reforms and provisions specifically designed to help trade law and policy help combat climate change and contribute to the Deployment of clean energy systems and technologies. In the area of investment, there is no obvious institutional home for international efforts to foster the critically needed flows of clean energy investment in developing countries, and for helping to ensure that, they foster development. This is because the investment “regime” is scattered among more than 2,500 bilateral investment treaties and a growing number of investment chapters in free trade agreements. One possibility for international efforts in this area might be the Energy Charter Treaty 6 a pan-European and Asian treaty designed to foster increased energy investment and trade, which could house a new initiative explicitly based on the principles of clean energy investment. The issue of climate change effectively integrated into the mainstream activities of development agencies. The developing countries have not identified for the most part, climate change as an issue of concern to development agencies.¹²

A number of analyses have indicated that, while there have been some successful initiatives, particularly those related to supporting the G77 and China in their National Communications

under the UNFCCC and, to a lesser extent, helping them develop National Adaptation Strategies, these successes have not spread into “normal” technical assistance. In fact the strong linkages that did exist among the threat of climate change and poverty eradication and development still not appreciated at the field level. A challenge on the donor side is to engage finance and development planners effectively in the climate policy discussion. Whereas recipients have to acknowledge that, they need to identify climate change in their development planning activities more effectively. At the end of the day, the most critical component in developing a global regime on climate change with the full engagement of developing countries requires a much more effective basis and means of complementarity among official development assistance, foreign direct investment (FDI) and sustainable development. The official development assistance and private financial resources can play more effective complementary roles than is currently the case. The efforts of Breton Wood’s institutions, including the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, have been making progress, but more in terms of financial contributions and actions, needs to be done.¹³

The focus needs to be on “greening” the process of economic development, including providing clean energy to those without, improving forestry practices/slowing deforestation and putting in place sustainable urban transportation systems. If the CDM and other market-based initiatives successfully fund mitigation activities in developing countries, they will help ensure that limited official development assistance funds most effectively used where the private sector is not likely to be nearly as active, for example. But we should be careful not to be too simplistic or formulaic in our prescriptions—there is a clear need for official development assistance to support capacity-building activities related to the CDM, for example in helping developing countries set up National Designated Authorities or in helping them to develop national sustainable development criteria. The World Bank’s Carbon Fund and the initiatives of governments such as the Netherlands have been extremely useful in helping to ensure that the CDM is a major player in the international carbon market. That said, as the carbon market matures, particularly after 2012, one hopes that the WB and these national governments will play a less prominent role in developing a certified emission reductions market, leaving it to the private sector to be the major player in that market.¹⁴ Nor should we immediately dismiss prospects for private-sector participation in adaptation-related activities. Private-public partnerships, such as joint ventures between insurance and investment firms with the cooperation of multilateral development banks could go a long way towards funding adaptation-related activities. In addition, CDM carbon sink investments, for example, if properly designed, can provide sustainable mitigation and adaptation benefits. Traditional climate policy tends to isolate adaptation and mitigation and assumes that one chooses from a portfolio of independent adaptation and mitigation options. It argued that adaptation benefits are felt locally in time and space, whereas mitigation benefits (as opposed to the direct benefits of energy provision) are felt distant in time and on a global scale.¹⁵

Even if large methodological hurdles can be overcome allowing costs and benefits to be reliably estimated on vastly different temporal and spatial scales, mitigation and adaptation measures are only substitutable at the global level and relevant only to some nonexistent global decision-maker. However, such analysis provides no practical insight at the project or national/regional scale, where adaptation and mitigation decisions will actually be taken. The potential for project-level integration of adaptation and mitigation is also downplayed, and likely reflects the residual northern domination of the climate debate. Instead, it might be more beneficial and effective if we examined the potential for adaptation and mitigation synergies, particularly to the extent that

such activities support ecosystem-oriented poverty alleviation priorities, as counseled by the World Summit on Sustainable Development in its Plan of Implementation in 2002. Poverty is both a driver and an outcome of critical sustainable development-climate linkages, such as energy deprivation, desertification and deforestation. The ecosystem focus to poverty alleviation moves us beyond the rather platitudinous observation that the poor endowed with the least adaptive capacity and hence are most vulnerable to climate change, to practical intervention policy.¹⁶

The WB's initiatives on the Community Development Carbon Fund⁸ and the Bio carbon Fund⁹ represent innovative investments that provide a twinning of adaptation and mitigation opportunities. Recognizing the challenge of delivering GHG reductions in a competitive CDM market environment, these funds explicitly established to help small-scale projects from the local community become competitive in the global market. In focusing on adaptation opportunities, while also emphasizing GHG credit reduction opportunities, the Bank is helping to highlight the potential role of the private sector in natural resource management activities. The key implication is that coherent climate policy as it relates to developing countries must become much more closely aligned with and, indeed, one aspect of a sustainable development pathway committed to poverty alleviation. Climate change mitigation is a large co-benefit of this approach. The intersection of adaptation-mitigation benefits do not proposed as a panacea for climate policy. It is however, proposed as a logical and equitable prerequisite to engaging the South in an eventual comprehensive post-Kyoto mitigation regime. The extents to which the market can help bear the costs of climate change, including adaptation is the extent to which we are dependent on official development assistance to deliver on an issue that is but one of many, and vastly less important than most developing countries' immediate priorities for development and poverty eradication. With respect to developing countries, then, it is critical that attention paid to domestic implementation mechanisms and priorities. In particular, institutionalization of climate change issues in domestic government agencies would effectively create "champions" for mitigation and adaptation within governments of developing countries.¹⁷

This engagement is a crucial step, which would build a constituency for action and help give domestic and foreign businesses and NGOs reliable points of contact to engage governments on climate change. The more effective co-ordination between aid agencies and international financial institutions (IFIs) and enhanced coherence, in turn, with the FDI flows to developing countries. Finally, above all, for Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development countries, it means showing leadership at home. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development countries must demonstrate that they are taking significant actions at home to mitigate climate change and without compromising their economic objectives. Until developing countries can see that this is in fact the case, the prospects for bringing them aboard will always be limited. Nevertheless, what, at the end of the day, is the proper role of development aid and financial flow considerations in the post-2012 negotiations? First, we would strongly advise that Parties have a much more realistic understanding of how appropriate development takes root in developing countries. For example, in the area of technology transfer, it needs to recognize that most of these technologies are not in fact a public good, but the result of private-sector investments.¹⁸

Even if Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development countries strongly increase their ODA contributions, what will be making available for climate change is likely to be limited. This calls for innovative solutions whose surface is only beginning to scratch. For

example, the work of Lewis Milford of the Clean Energy Group, 10 in exploring the potential precedent of innovative approaches in the distribution of AIDS pharmaceutical products, is a valuable contribution to this discussion. Not entirely well founded, but it remains (guardedly) optimistic. I would fully expect that by 2025, we would be back to where we started in a sense—a multilateral system of internationally binding targets, but the important difference would be twofold. The emission targets meet and we would have a much broader community of major emitters engaged in those activities. Thus, today, countries need to breathe in, seriously look at what they can do and by when, and with that information confidently will be go forward in joining an internationally binding regime that will literally determine the mode of societies' development over this century and beyond.¹⁹

CONCLUSION:-

The biggest achievement of the Paris Agreement is perhaps political aspects. It reflects a global consensus that climate change is real and urgently needs to address by all states, industrialized and developing. This historical consensus was in danger of breaking down. The old divide between developing and developed states might re-emerge if major issues. The equity and access to finance remain unsettled. Even more worrying, however, is the emergence of what has been termed a 'post-truth' world. The populist leaders brazenly – and successfully – disregarding facts in favor of emotions, what are the ways forward for the Paris Agreement? Given the Agreement's rapid entry into force, the timeframe for rule development is unexpectedly short. Crucially, the Paris 'rulebook' needs operationalize differentiation, transparency and the Agreement will accommodate states' differing needs and capabilities. Progress made at COP-22 in Marrakech was largely procedural, leaving controversial substantive issues such as climate finance unresolved. Addressing inevitable climate impacts: The mitigation pledges made so far are insufficient to keep global warming under the 2°C let alone the 1.5°C threshold. Even if ambitions scaled up, the current trajectory of emissions already locked-in suggests that some severe climate change impacts will be unavoidable.

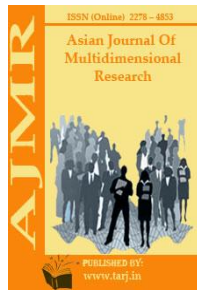
This highlights the importance of adaptation and loss and damage, with the latter set to remain a major sticking point in future negotiations. If not adequately addressed, loss and damage could further exacerbate the divide between developed and developing states. Building trust at the national level: While the Paris Agreement sets the overall framework for addressing climate change, the national level is where the 'dirty work' carried out. Political and legal accountability are essential to make domestic mechanisms strong, ambitious and responsive. In a 'post-truth' context, this is going to be ever more pertinent: if domestic governance is not accountable, ethical and transparent, public trust will continue to erode. Involving both winners and losers: A broad societal coalition to be needed to support the deep economic transformation necessary to keep global temperature rises below the 2°C threshold. Therefore, it is essential that national-level implementation processes engage both the likely winners and the potential losers of this transformation. Policies need to be both 'green' and 'just', including concrete measures addressing job losses in the fossil fuel sector.

The private sector was more active in Paris than at any previous COP with major corporations and financial institutions vowing to double down on their climate commitments. There is reason to believe that a number of US federal states and cities will also step up their efforts under President Trump. The Attorney General of California, for instance, has reaffirmed his state's commitment to reducing emissions, "irrespective of what goes on in Washington". Keeping up the political momentum: Donald Trump's campaign pledge to withdraw from the Paris

Agreement has created major uncertainty. However, unlike in 2001, when George W. Bush pulled out of the Kyoto Protocol, the major emerging economies now see climate change as a major barrier to their economic development.

REFERENCES

1. Castree, N. (2007) 'Neoliberal ecologies', McCarthy, Scott Prudham and Paul Robbins.
2. Haynes N and Robins: The neoliberalisation of nature: Governance, privatization, enclosure and valuation, Capitalism Nature Socialism.
3. McCarthy, J. (2004) 'privatizing conditions of production: trade agreements as neoliberal environmental governance.
4. Bakker, K. (2004) An uncooperative commodity: privatizing water in England and Wales, Oxford: Oxford University.
5. UNEP; International Environmental Governance and the Reform of the United Nations, XVI Meeting of the Forum of Environment Ministers of Latin America and the Caribbean; 2008.
6. Civil Society Statement on International Environmental Governance; Seventh special session of the UNEP Governing Council/GMEF; Cartagena, Colombia; February 2002.
7. Underdal, A (2010). *"Complexity and challenges of long term environmental governance"*.
8. Leach, M., Mearns, R and Scones, I. (1997), Challenges to community based sustainable development, in IDS Bulletin Vol 28.
9. Elliot, L. (1956), Global Environmental Governance, in Hughes, S. and Wilkinson, R. Global Governance: Critical Perspectives, London: Routledge.
10. Saija G., Salomon R. 2013. From coastal management to environmental management: The sustainable eco-tourism program for the mid-western coast of Sardinia (Italy).
11. Operational Committee No. 24 "Institutions and stakeholder representatively":Final report to the Prime Minister, senior Minister, Minister for the Ecology, Sustainable Development and Territorial Planning; 2008
12. Newell, P.(2008). The political economy of global environmental governance. Review of International Studies.
13. Meadowcroft, James (2002). *"Politics and scale: some implications for environmental governance"*.
14. Solomon, S., Manning, M (2007). "Understanding and Attributing Climate Change". *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)*.
15. Hulme, Mike (2016). Concept of Climate Change, in: The International Encyclopedia of Geography.
16. Miles, M. G.; Grainger, R. G.; Highwood, E. J. (2004). "The significance of volcanic eruption strength and frequency for climate".
17. Shaftel, Holly (ed.). "Arctic Sea Ice Minimum". *NASA Global Climate Change. Earth Science Communications Team at NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory*.
18. Bachelet, D.; Neilson, R.; Lenihan, J. M.; Drapek, R. J. (2001). *"Climate Change Effects on Vegetation Distribution and Carbon Budget in the United States"*. Aggarwal, A., Narain, S. and Sharma, A., 1999. *Global Environmental*.



SOCIO-CULTURAL VISTAS IN NGUGI WA THIONG'O'S THE RIVER BETWEEN AND WEEP NOT, CHILD

Dr Satinder Singh Kundu *

*Assist. Prof.of English,
C.R. Kisan College,
Jind (Hry), INDIA.
Email id: gogikundu@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Like vibrant and pragmatic Indian socio-cultural scenario along with its rich heritage, the socio cultural heritage of African society enfolds social, moral, ethical and intellectual values in its bosom for making human life livable in a balanced way .Being a prolific writer, Ngugi wa Thiong o explores the varied and unexplored spectrum of African culture through his creative and realistic artistic vision. He is known for his care and concern for common man, human values, for warmth, for love and understanding; his tender evocation of the land, his celebration of its fertility and the ecological notion of the link between human life and mother land. The adverse, deep and lasting effects of colonism on the psyche of local masses is narrated by Ngugi in a heart rendering manner.

KEYWORDS: *African Heritage --- Social Consciousness--- Colonialism--- Distribution Of Powers--- Religious Exploitation--- Cultural Transformation--- Crude Exploitation--- Dispossession --- Black Bourgeoisie*

INTRODUCTION:

African Literature forms a significant segment of twentieth century world literature. The importance of African Literature lies in its Africanness, which is retained in spite of its cosmopolitan origin. The dearth of written record of African Literature is balanced by Africa's rich inheritance of oral literature. The effect of the wisdom, pride and ethical tradition of ancient African societies is so deep and pervasive that despite the harrowing experiences of the colonial trauma there are many African writers including Chinua Achebe, Wole Soyinka, Amos Tutuola in general and Ngugi wa Thiong'o in particular in whose writings we come across the varied vistas of social and cultural life. Many of the modern novelists and playwrights either eulogize their glorious past or speak of the devastation, inflicted on the psyche of common man by the colonial powers in terms of protest, conflict, anguish, anger, neurosis, slavery, alienation and dispossession.

Ngugi wa Thiong'o, as a writer of social consciousness and cultural concerns, is known for his care and concern for common man, human values, for warmth, for love and understanding; his tender evocation of the land, his celebration of its fertility and the ecological notion of the link between human life and mother land; and his capacity to bring his characters and country alive through his mastery of language. When there exists an imbalance among all these Socio-Cultural Vistas sometimes it is due to the misunderstanding among the native Kenyans but mainly it is due to the colonial prowess in the colonial Kenya. It is the greatness of Ngugi's fictional world that it provides good example of the relationship that does exist between the novelist and his society. These general concerns with socio-cultural vistas result not only from a deliberate choice on the part of the novelist but also reflect the attitudes of the novelist adopted in the face of various socio-political situations at particular periods of Kenya's evolution. The important landmarks in this evolution are colonialism, the granting of formal independence and the neo-colonial stage.

The River Between depicts the impact of colonialism, mainly Christianity, on the Gikuyu traditional community. It dramatizes the clash of Christianity versus traditional religion and culture between the two World Wars in the form of conflicts between the inhabitants of two villages, one dominated by traditional culture, the other representing the Christian-influenced culture that has begun to replace the tradition. Placed in the middle of this conflict is Waiyaki, a missionary-educated local leader, who vainly tries to reconcile the two opposing sides through a symbiosis of Gukuyu tradition and Western education.

In this novel, Ngugi answers two basic questions: What are the roots of the African predicament? And what role can Africans with formal education play in a divided society? These questions recall the now-famous Achebean saying : "The man who does not know where the rain began to beat him cannot know where he began to dry himself." In Ngugi's historical vision, the rain began to beat the African with the arrival of missionaries, with the conversion of a handful of local inhabitants to foreign ways, and the consequent confusion and contradictions that resulted at both societal and individual levels.

Although the conflict between traditional and Christian-influenced cultures is shown to have been triggered by external forces, The River Between also hints at the latent conflict between the two ridges on which the villages stand. The ridges, ironically, are both separated and united by the Honia River:

When you stood in the valley, the two ridges ceased to be sleeping lions united by their common source of life. They became antagonists. You could tell this, not by anything tangible but by the way they faced each other, like two rivals ready to come to blows in a life and death struggle for the leadership of this isolated region.¹

This ambivalence between antagonism and unity manifests in the distribution of powers where the seat of political power is in Makuyu, “spiritual superiority and leadership had then been left” (TRB : 2) to Kameno. In the past, the Gikuyu from the two ridges managed to overcome their separation by symbolically re-enacting their unity in ceremonies of circumcision on the banks of the river Honia.

The novel starts at a time when Christianity has caused one village to abandon this practice, so that the Christian villagers on one bank of the river are now in conflict with the traditional practices on the other side. The entire communities of Kameno and Makuyu are thrown into utter confusion. The gulf between them is now so large that even the life-giving waters of river Honia become a sign of their physical and spiritual separation.

In order to lodge their protest against the religions exploitation when the Christianity is imposed on the African tribes by the Whiteman, Ngugi and Chinua Achebe, in the guise of mature characters, decide to learn the ways of the Britishers so that the foreigners may be removed from their lands. That is why, the chief priest Ezeulu in Achebe’s *Arrow of God*, breaks ground by sending his son, Oduche, to join the missionaries in the belief that this is a precautionary step suitable to a changing world, whereas in *The River Between*, Waiyaki’s father, Chege, sends him to the mission school to get the white man’s education, which will later prove useful in their fight against the white man’s encroachment : “Arise. Heed the prophecy. Go to the Mission place. Learn all the wisdom and all the secrets of the white man. But do not follow his vices. Be true to your people and the ancient rites” (TRB : 20). Though a little mechanistic in its concept of learning, Chege’s message recognizes that in order to combat an enemy effectively, one must know his or her tactics.

Waiyaki, obeying his father’s command, goes to the missionary school, acquires an education, and, by the time the division of the ridges is well under way, is appointed headmaster on his side of the river. But once he sets foot in the white man’s school, Waiyaki’s life is a series of dilemmas: he finds good points in the white man’s education and religion, yet he remains convinced that “a religion that took no count of people’s way of life, a religion that did not recognize spots of beauty and truths in their way of life, was useless” (TRB: 141).

The first wave of protest comes in the form of Muthoni’s cry of outburst against the suffocating and repressing family atmosphere of her father Joshua’s home when she complains to Waiyaki:

‘No one will understand. I say I am a Christian and my father and mother have followed the new faith. I have not run away from that. But I also want to be initiated into the ways of the tribe. How can I possibly remain as I am now? I knew that my father would not let me and so I came.’ Her voice seemed to change. Yet she was speaking in the same tone. Waiyaki, however, felt as if she had forgotten him, as if she was telling her story to the darkness. ‘I want to be a woman. Father and Mother are circumcised. But why are they stopping me, why do they deny me this? How could I be outside the tribe, when all the girls born with me at the same time have left me?’ (TRB :43-44)

Kamau and Kinuthia, the fellow teachers in the school office of Waiyaki, generally talk politics, religious, women, exploitation of the Kenyan by the Britishers, conflict and clash between the two ridges etc. Kinuthia normally remains calm but he suddenly gets excited about the ways of the white man:

“It is bad. It is bad.... I say the white man should go, go back to where he came from and leave us to till our land in peace.” (TRB : 62)

In *The River Between*, Joshua personifies that demand for total cultural transformation. His daughters, Muthoni and Nyambura, despite their longing to be circumcised, are the victims of Joshua's totalitarianism and stubborn pride. Both women die as a result of his failure to compromise. Mala Pandurang is right when she says,

The cultural paradigm of novels like Achebe's *Things Fall Apart* and Ngugi's *The River Between* was dominated by an intense cultural nationalism. The roots of this writing were grounded in the need to assert a strong cultural identity in view of the colonial negation of the African psyche.²

In *Weep Not, Child*, Ngugi explores the African tragedy from the standpoint of Njoroge, an African child, who lives in his little world of innocence and illusion at a time of growing national unrest. The two parts of the novel, 'Waning Light' and 'Darkness Falls,' deal respectively with Njoroge's unbounded optimism inspite of the worsening social climate, and with the despair that overwhelms him when his dreams are swept away on the outbreak of violence.

Like Waiyaki in *The River Between*, the protagonist, Njoroge, in the present novel pins his high hope on formal education and, even more, believes that hard work and righteousness are adequate solutions to the evils of inequality, injustice, exploitation and even the deplorable and miserable conditions of the poor. Due to poverty and exploitation, the Africans in general and the Kenyans in particular are bound to lead a hellish life as Ngugi wa Thiong'o describes:

The African shops were built in two rows which faced one another. The air was full of noise and, near the meat shops, there was a strong stench of burning flesh. Some young men spent all their time doing nothing but loitering in the shops. Some could work the whole day for a pound of meat. They were called the lazy boys and people in the village said that such men would later turn to stealing and crime. This thought always made people shudder because murder in cold-blood was a foul thing. A man who murdered was for ever a curse in heaven and earth. One could recognize such boys because they were to be seen hanging around teashops, meat shops and even in the Indian bazaar, waiting for any errand that might earn them a day's meal. At times they called themselves young Hitlers.³

The devil of colonial exploitation haunts Kenyans in all the vistas including social, cultural, political and economic as the blacks are paid less salary in comparison to Indians and Europeans. As Kiarie, a short man with a black beard and a friend of Boro, the member of the Mau Mau movement, exhorts the black people:

‘Shall we really get the same pay as Indians and Europeans?’ ‘Yes!’ Kiarie explained with a confident nod of his head. ‘All the black people will stop working. All business in the country will come to a standstill because all the country depends on our sweat. The Government and the settlers will call us back. But we shall say, No, no. Give us more money

first. Our sweat and blood are not so cheap. We too are human beings. We cannot live on fifteen shillings a month.... (WNC : 51)

Meanwhile, social tensions engendered by the widening class difference between the rising, land-owning, collaborating black bourgeoisie represented by Jacobo, and the dispossessed peasantry represented by Ngotho, (Njoroge's father) are exacerbated by an even more exploitative and repressive colonial even more exploitative and repressive colonial system represented by Howlands.

CONCLUSION:

As a prolific and creative writer cum thinker, Ngugi wa Thiong'o presents himself as a positive aesthetics who is committed for the improvement of human life, democracy, social justice, human dignity. Like Mulk Raj Anand, Ngugi wa Thiong'o goes to the side of underprivileged and downgrades, and wants to strengthen their conditions of life. Ngugi succeeds in reflecting in his works the major issues of his African society. He sets his novels against a constant backdrop of chaos, violence, and misery and presents a keener picture of his Third World background of crude exploitation, dispossession, and suffering; allows his characters to register with the sensitivity of a barometer, their protest against the socio-political discrimination in his Kenyan society. Thus, from the basically black and white culture conflict presented in The River Between, he moves to the turbulent moments before and during the Emergency with the struggle between the Mau Mau nationalists and the advocates of colonialism in Weep Not, Child.

REFERENCES

1. Ngugi wa Thiong'o, The River Between (Johannesburg: Heinemann, 1965) 1.(All the subsequent textual citations are from this edition and page numbers are given in the parentheses following the quotes with TRB)
2. Mala Pandurang, Postcolonial African Fiction: The Crisis of Consciousness (New Delhi: Pencraft International, 1997) 28.
3. Ngugi WA Thiong'o, Weep Not, Child (Harlow, Essex: Heinemann, 1987) 8-9. (All the subsequent textual citations are from this edition and page numbers are given in the parentheses following the quotes with WNC)



SURVEILLANCE AND THE ISSUE OF PRIVACY IN THE DIGITAL ERA

Arif Hussain Nadaf *

*Doctorate Scholar,
Centre for Culture, Media & Governance,
Jamia Millia Islamia,
New Delhi, INDIA.
Email id: arif137995@st.jmi.ac.in

ABSTRACT

The surveillance is considered as a vital tool of govern mentality which allows government agencies to have consistent watch over the activities and the identity of its citizens. The surveillance by governments can be traced back to first half of 20th century when world powers like the United States and Great Britain developed collaborative programmes to create mechanisms for systematic and clandestine surveillance of entire populations. The industrial revolution led to the development of sophisticated telecommunication networks that helped these countries to utilize communication channels to monitor and have surveillance of their citizens and their enemies. During the Cold war, America and Russia utilized their strategic and technological resources to monitor each other's activities through discreet surveillance programmes. The digital turn that took place with the beginning on the 21st century, revolutionized the concept of surveillance and governments today have switched over to advanced and more effective digital technologies to have greater access to the information about the interactions, activities, and identity of its citizens. In growing economies like India, the rapid growth in cellular and internet penetration has led to the extension of digital networks which facilitated millions of citizens to interact and communicate with each other. The maximum proliferation of digital networks and human interactions has enabled countries to deploy their security agencies, equipped with latest technologies to monitor their citizens through these digital networks. In growing context of advanced digital communication networks, there are debates going on over government surveillances of people over digital networks which are considered a gross violation of the citizen's 'right to privacy'. This paper discusses the government surveillance and the issue of privacy in today's digital era.

KEYWORDS: *Surveillance, Digital Networks, Global Surveillance, Privacy Rights, Snowden, NSA*

INTRODUCTION

‘No system of mass surveillance has existed in any society that we know of to this point that has not been abused’ — Edward Snowden, the Guardian, July 18, 2014

Mass surveillance is the discreet and planned observation of an entire society or a sub-group of the population by the government agencies to monitor the behavior or activities of the citizens, mostly on the pretext of security and administrative purposes. Today the surveillance has been mostly associated with clandestine phone tapping, violation of privacy by access to digital information and interactions of internet users etc. The government establishments across the world have been justifying the surveillance of its citizens as an administrative necessity for national security, to fight terrorism, to counter crime and maintain social order. The constitutional legality and the limit of the government access to information and digital interactions in the nation states vary and depend on the judicial laws and the form of government. With the advancement in the technology and greater control over information flow, the mass surveillance today stands as one of the most controversial issues in modern geo-politics.

The human rights activists and political analysts have criticized mass surveillance for being constitutionally illegal, violating privacy rights and restricting civil and political liberties of the citizens. In 2011 Wikileaks, a non-profit organization, published *‘The Spy Files’*, a series of documents that exposed the discreet global mass surveillance and made shocking disclosures about how the International intelligence agencies are investing in advanced surveillance technology to have access to private information about the common people (Sifry, 2011). The issue of mass surveillance became a global issue in 2013 when Edward Snowden, an ex-NSA (National Security Agency) contractor in the United States, made some shocking revelations about the mass government surveillance in Western countries that involve massive information access to government agencies by leading social media networks like *Facebook*, *Google* and *Twitter*. His surveillance disclosures about massive privacy violations involving billions of internet users across the globe by leading security agencies sent ripples across the international politics which triggered debates over government mass surveillance in the digital age.

The ‘digital revolution’ has restructured the way humans interact and engage with each other. Last few decades have witnessed the transformation of an ‘individual society’ into an ‘Information Society’ where digital technology is defining the people to people relationships. The digital communication networks *Facebook*, *Twitter* and *Google* are technically configured to mine enormous data about user’s online activity and interactions. The advanced software technologies enable the surveillance agencies to use digital footprints left by internet users like the webpage they visited, the IP address they accessed through their smartphone and personal computers. The social media has revolutionised the way people engage with each other, share information and express their opinion. The new digital public sphere that has emerged because of social media networks has encouraged greater human engagement on social platforms over the internet. The maximum proliferation of digital networks and human interactions has enabled countries to deploy their security agencies, equipped with latest technologies to monitor their citizens through these digital networks. The digital technologies have given greater control to governments over the information and the identity of their citizens. The government agencies across the world have been defending its legal right to have access to the citizen’s information for national security while as constitutional experts and human rights activists have been criticizing it for being a gross violation of citizen’s right to privacy. In advanced digital networks and growth of social media networks across the globe, the ‘surveillance-security’ debate

conundrum has been an evolving debate involving developed as well as developing countries across the globe. While as in Western countries like America, the current issue of surveillance is related to massive information leaks on the internet and social networks, in India too, the issue of privacy and government surveillance continues to remain a constitutionally controversial issue.

The constitution and the judicial system of India doesn't allow any kind of government surveillance; however, the intelligence and security agencies have been using British-era Indian Telegraph Act (1885) and the Information Technology Act (2000) to justify their protocol to have access to the communication networks and digital information about the citizens of India (Paranesh, 2013). The interception, monitoring and surveillance in the form of phone tapping etc need legal clearance and authorization from the Home Secretary or the Secretary in the Information department. The Aadhaar projected which was officially launched in 2009 established Unique Identification Authority of India (UIDAI) that provided for the digital (biometric) identification of the Indian citizens (Khanna et al., 2012). There have been debates led by human rights groups and civil society about the legality of the Aadhaar from the perspective of the privacy of the citizens. There has been a long-standing case going on in Supreme Court of India over the constitutional validity of government's access to citizen's private data through Aadhaar's UIDAI and the 'right to privacy' (Rajagopal, 2017). On August 2017, a nine-judge bench of the Supreme court declared that the citizen's right to privacy is an integral part of citizen's right to live and have liberty (Rajagopal, 2017). They further confirmed that the 'right to privacy' is protected under the fundamental freedoms provided in Part 3rd of the Indian constitution.

Information Surveillance: Theory and Literature:

The advancement in digital technology and electronic networks has revolutionised the modus operandi of surveillance and some of the noted scholars have contributed towards the theoretical understanding of the relationship between technology and information control. The concept of 'network society' developed by Manuel Castells (2011) provides an established theoretical basis for understanding the mechanisms of digital technology and the flow of information (human interactions) across electronic networks⁷. In his famous book "The Rise of network Society: *The Information Age: Economy, Society and Culture*" (2011), Castells argues that in contemporary digital societies, the key social structures and activities are organized around electronically processed information networks⁸. He further argues that in the modern digital environment, the digital social networks process and manage information using micro-electronic technologies.

The advancement in 'computing technologies, and the social, political, and economic practices that have been shaped by this development, is one of the most significant enablers of social media surveillance' (Brown, 2015, p.2). The issue of surveillance has become more vibrant and contested because of the advancement in information and technology. The modern digital networks provide greater space for government agencies to intercept and monitor the human interaction happening over digital networks, like Social media. The theoretical concept of surveillance has its roots in Marxist critical theory that warns government control over human activity and behaviour. The surveillance has been defined as one of the main institutional tool of governmentality in late modernity by Haggerty and Ericson (2000). The noted Japanese economist Toshimaru Ogura (2006) stated the five roles that surveillance performs in a capitalistic society:

1) Workplace surveillance, 2) population management, 3) control of the human mind, 4) consumer surveillance, and 5) computerized surveillance.

The concept of surveillance also relates to the idea of ‘Panopticonism’ introduced by French Philosopher Michel Foucault in his book *Discipline and Punish* (1975). Foucault develops his idea of surveillance through the concept of ‘birth of prison’ in which he illustrates a ‘panopticon prisoner’ who is being constantly monitored without his knowledge. According to Foucault, the prisoner is watched but he can’t see him being watched and in this system of asymmetrical surveillance, he is just an object of information but not a subject in the communication. The Foucault’s panopticon surveillance holds strong relevance in present debates of clandestine surveillance where the agencies like American NSA (National Security Agency) have a constant watch over millions of internet users who in turn doesn’t have any knowledge of being monitored.

David Lyon has been one of the most remarkable scholars on the issue of surveillance and information control, bridging the old school of critical theory with the issues of modern digital surveillance. Lyon defines the concept of surveillance as ‘any collection and processing of personal data, whether identifiable or not, for the purposes of influencing or managing those whose data have been garnered’ (2001, p.2). Lyon in his remarkable book, “*Surveillance as Social Sorting: Privacy, Risk, and Digital Discrimination*” argues that the idea of surveillance has evolved itself rapidly parallel to the technological advancement and according to him, ‘today’s surveillance is the use of searchable databases to process personal data for various purposes’ (2003, p.14). Lyon (2003) further states that the instant access to massive and rich sources of information about individuals and populations has been as potential asset for agencies to monitor human interactions, activities and behaviour.

In the the context of growing communication technology, the scholars in the field like Graham and Wood (2003) have focussed on the shift from analogue to digital surveillance. They argue that the analogue surveillance involves bureaucratic and electro-mechanical modes of monitoring human interactions and behaviour, however, digital surveillance facilitates more sophisticated and effective methods of surveillance in real-time (Graham and Wood 2003). The digitization of surveillance has shifted from human discretion (human operators) to digitally automatic systems of mass surveillance.

Global mass surveillance and the digital information

The issue of global mass surveillance can be traced back to *UKUSA*, a multilateral agreement between the five countries (USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada) for the cooperation on sharing information signals for intelligence purposes in 1940’s (Cox, 2012). The alliance of the countries for the agreement was also known as ‘*Five eyes*’. During the Cold war in 1960’s, the Britain and United States expanded their agreement that came to be known as Project *Echelon* under which the two countries shared intelligence information about Communist bloc through collection and analysis networks (Gradham, 2010). Even during the infamous Watergate Scandal, the revelation made by then US Senator Frank Church revealed that NSA under a secret collaboration between British GCHQ and the the United States had constantly intercepted the communication lines of anti-Vietnam figures in the country (Cohen, 2006).

In last two decades, the advancement in digital technology has brought a fundamental shift the way governments across the globe engage in mass surveillance. The digital technology has facilitated the security and intelligence agencies like FBI, CIA and NSA to monitor entire

population by having access to massive digital data that contains citizens information, interactions and identity (Wikileaks, 2011). In the digital era, the non-profit organization *Wikileaks* was first to disclose the issue of secret global mass surveillance. In December 2011, *Wikileaks* published 287 documents titled '*The Spy Files*' that exposed mass surveillance in 25 countries around the world (Wikileaks, 2011). The organization worked in association with six leading media organizations in six countries including *The Hindu* newspaper in India.

The existence of global mass surveillance was widely acknowledged and enthusiastically covered by international media only after the 2013 surveillance disclosures by Edward Snowden, the NSA contractor who exposed the massive surveillance programme run by NSA. The revelations by Edward Snowden triggered global debate on privacy rights and abuse of massive digital information by the countries, especially the United States and the United Kingdom. In June 2013, British Journalist Glenn Greenwald published series of the reports in *The Guardian* that was based on the revelations and the documents disclosed by Snowden, the whistle-blower about the NSA's Global surveillance programme. The leaked documents also exposed NSA's surveillance programme that collected call records from 120 million mobile subscribers in the United States (Glenn Greenwald, 2013). The phenomenal disclosures made by Edward Snowden exposed global surveillance programmes like *PRISM*, *Tempora* and *XKeyscore*. Through its *PRISM* program, the NSA is also able to compel the provision of large volumes of personal data held by US based communications services, including Facebook and Google. In October 2017 the DHS (Department of Homeland Security) in the United States began collecting and storing Social-media profiles, digital information and internet usage pattern of 43 million of immigrants in America (Blue, 2017). The move was widely criticized by digital activists as well as notable academics as an act of unconstitutional surveillance and violation of basic privacy rights of the citizens. Digital surveillance leads to 'social sorting' where discrimination and privilege are embedded in the unorganised consequences of data gathering and analysis (Lyon, 2001). The resistance to state surveillance by civil rights activists is known as *sousveillance* which means watching from below. Through *sousveillance*, the activists use effective and unique techniques to protest the government surveillance, for example, holding the mirrors.

The issue of surveillance and privacy in India:

India has a tele-density of 93.61 percent with 1204.98 telephone subscribers, including 1180.82 million mobile (wireless) users (TRAI Report, 2017). With rapidly growing telecommunication networks, India is advancing towards increased digital connectivity in social as well as economic domains of the society. As of December 2017, having an increased internet penetration of 35 percent, India had reached 481 million internet users. India surpassed the United States in the total number of *Facebook* users in July 2017, becoming the country with 241 million active *Facebook* users, highest in the world. The growth of internet penetration and extension of digital communication networks has revolutionised the communication and information sector in the country. The government has been deploying intelligence and security agencies to avail information across communication networks for security and administrative purposes which consequently leads to surveillance of common citizens without their knowledge.

The British-era Indian Telegraph Act 1885 empowers Central government in India to intercept information and monitoring of communications channels under section 5 (CIS, 2014). Within this Act, the rule 419 and 419A provides for the procedures for monitoring the telecommunications. Under the Act, the phone tapping is permitted through a court order which is mostly granted for the issues of national security or anti-terrorist activities. The debate over the

issue of surveillance in India dates to the era of illegal phone tapping by the government that surfaced during the Prime Ministership of Rajiv Gandhi in early 1990's. The issue reached supreme court in reaction to a PIL filed by PUCL (People's Union for Civil Liberties) (Singh & Ahmad, 1996). And finally, in the landmark judgement on GOI vs PUCL (1996), the Supreme court of India declared the governments planned phone tapping as unconstitutional and a violation of privacy rights of the Indian citizens. Since this case, the judiciary, as well as human rights groups in India, have time and again stood up against any move of surveillance and defended the citizen's fundamental rights of privacy.

In the aftermath of 26/11 Mumbai attacks, the intelligence and security agencies in India started mounting pressure on Internet and communications service providers to bring them in compliance for monitoring the citizens while denying the accusations of any mass surveillance (RSF, 2012). In 2011, then Telecom ministry in India had asked internet companies and social media sites like Facebook to verify the content being uploaded from Indian users to block and remove any inflammatory or defamatory content before letting it go air (Timmons, 2011). The disclosures on global mass surveillance by Edward Snowden sent ripples across the global which triggered debates on the surveillance in India also. Some of the major surveillance projects in India that were debated during the global concerns about digital mass surveillance were; CMS (Central Monitoring System), NETRA (Network Traffic Analysis, NATGRID (National Intelligence Grid), and LIM (Lawful Intercept and Monitoring Project):

1. Central monitoring system:

India's Central Monitoring System (CMS) came in the media glare only after the revelations of global mass surveillance in the US, however, the project was already approved by then Cabinet committee on security on June 16, 2011 (CIS, 2014). The CMS that was implemented by C-DOT (Centre for Development of Telematics) is operated by TERM (Telecom Enforcement Resource and Monitoring). The funding from the Central government for the project as of June 2013 reached as high as 450 crore INR (CIS, 2014). The technology used in CMS uses powerful algorithms which mine huge data from the information channels and identify patterns and the users in a discreet manner (Ghosh, 2013). The long-term prospectus of CMS was to intercept and record phone calls, track e-mails and text messages, monitor posts on social media like *Facebook* and *Twitter*, and track searches on *Google* browser (Anurag, 2013). The CMS not only enables the government to monitor every form of electronic communication within the country but also track the location of the individuals using internet through GPS (Singh, 2013). The CMS project has been declared as an Indian version of *PRISM* surveillance project run by the security agencies in the United States (Singh, 2013).

2. Network Traffic Analysis (NETRA):

The Network Traffic Analysis was developed by *CAIR* (Centre for Artificial Intelligence and Robotics) a functionary of Defence Research and Development Organisation (DRDO). The NETRA was developed to combat security threats from in and outside India by monitoring the live internet traffic 24*7. The NETRA programme is one the powerful tools for the security agencies in the country to have unbridled access to massive data that is generated through millions of interactions and information flow over digital networks (Sinha, 2017). The digital technology utilised by NETRA is capable of intercepting the digital communication and monitor the online communication of platforms like Google, Skype, and other social media sites. The

NETRA is programmed to track keywords from online sources like emails, twitter, Facebook feeds, user's comments, blogs, and the image captions shared on social media.

3. National Intelligence Grid (NATGRID):

The NATGRID was developed in the aftermath of the 26/11 Mumbai attacks and the subsequent debates over the loopholes in intelligence setup in the country (Mohan, 2011). The project got cabinet approval under the Prime ministership of Manmohan Singh in June 2011 and decided to link the database of 21 important departments and ministries (Mohan, 2011). The project operates an intelligence grid that pools the electronic data collected from different government and intelligence assets, which is then analysed to mine important patterns and information. Through NATGRID, the intelligence and the security agencies get access to the data sources like banks accounts, vehicle registration details, Tax details, credit card transactions, visa records (Balasubramanian, 2017). The data is analysed using advanced technology that tracks the patterns to monitor unlawful activities. The massive data gathered under the NATGRID was approved to be shared by 11 security agencies in the country which include CBI, RAW, NIA, Enforcement Directorate, IB, Revenue Intelligence and Narcotics Control Bureau to combat terrorism and security threats to the nation (Mohan, 2011).

4. Lawful Intercept and Monitoring Project (LIM):

The Lawful Intercept and Monitoring Project was developed by C-DOT (Centre for Development of Telematics) in 2013 for monitoring Internet traffic via emails, browsing history, Skype calls and other online activity by Internet users in India (Singh, 2013). The software technology utilised for LIM 'conduct automated keyword searches, which allows government agencies to track data passing through servers for as long as they want, without the ISP's knowledge' (Balasubramanian, 2017). The LIM system has been deployed by the government of India to monitor international internet gateways of large Internet Service Providers (ISP's). The LIM software technology is designed to carry automated keyword searches which allow intelligence and security agencies to track internet data through IP addresses of major ISP's (Sarin, 2012).

CONCLUSION

The security apparatus in the West has undergone a massive transformation in the post 9-11 era and the intelligence and security agencies have taken over to information networks to counter global terrorism and unlawful by using most advanced digital technology. The digital revolution in communication sector and the rapid extension of social media networks has enabled intelligence and security agencies to monitor and intercept human interactions and activities on the Internet. The global organisations like *Wikileaks* have been on the forefront in disclosing the clandestine mass surveillance projects administered by some countries across the world without the consent or knowledge of their citizen's. The issue of global mass surveillance and the debates on its constitutional validity intensified after ex-NSA contractor Edward Snowden made shocking revelations about massive surveillance conducted in the United States and other developed countries. These revelations sensitised human rights groups, law fraternity and judiciary to have a critical debate over the legality of government surveillance and the 'right to privacy' of the citizens. In developing countries like India, the revolution in communication technology and growing penetration of Internet has made the digital communication and interaction vulnerable to surveillance and monitoring by the government. The government initiatives like UIDAI under Aadhaar project which provided for the mandatory collection of the

biometric information of Indian citizens for a unified digital identification has led to debates on the privacy rights of the citizens. It is evident from the ongoing controversies over citizen's right to privacy and the government surveillance that the human communication networks have become effective sources of citizen information on a large scale. The governments across the world are trying to harness digital communication and information to have greater control over the identity and the activities of its citizens which leads to mass surveillance.

REFERENCES

- Castells, M. (2011). *The rise of the network society* (Vol. 12). John Wiley & Sons.
- Cohen, M. (2006). *No Holiday: 80 Places You Don't Want To Visit*. Red Wheel Weiser.
- Cox, R. (2012). *Environmental communication and the public sphere*. Sage publications.
- Foucault, M. (1975). 1977. *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison*.
- Glenn Greenwald (June 6, 2013). "NSA collecting phone records of millions of Verizon customers daily". *The Guardian*. London. Retrieved September 16, 2013.
- Graham, S., & Wood, D. (2003). Digitizing surveillance: categorization, space, inequality. *Critical Social Policy*, 23(2), 227-248.
- Haggerty, K. D., & Ericson, R. V. (2000). The surveillant assemblage. *The British journal of sociology*, 51(4), 605-622.
- Khanna, T., & Raina, A. (2012). Aadhaar: India's 'Unique Identification' System.
- Lyon, D. (Ed.). (2003). *Surveillance as social sorting: Privacy, risk, and digital discrimination*. Psychology Press.
- Ranger, Steve (24 March 2015). "The undercover war on your internet secrets: How online surveillance cracked our trust in the web". *TechRepublic*. Archived from the original on 2016-06-12. Retrieved 2016-06-12.
- Sifry, M. L. (2011). *WikiLeaks and the Age of Transparency*. OR Books.
- SinghJ, K., & AhmadJ, S. S. (1996). People's Union for Civil Liberties (PUCL), Petitioner v. Union of India and another, Respondents.

ONLINE SOURCES (URLS)

- Social media data/ INC42 Report. Retrieved from https://inc42.com/buzz/users-growth-india/TRAI_Report: Retrieved from TRAI Report. Retrieved from http://www.trai.gov.in/sites/default/files/Press_Release_No50_Eng_13072017.pdf
- Balasubramanian (2017) <http://www.news18.com/news/tech/privacy-in-internet-era-four-government-surveillance-programs-you-must-know-about-1493541.html>
- Blue (2017) <https://www.engadget.com/2017/09/29/dhs-to-track-immigrants-on-social-media/CIS> (2013) <https://cis-india.org/internet-governance/blog/india-central-monitoring-system-something-to-worry-about>
- Ghosh (2013) <http://cis-india.org/internet-governance/blog/india-together-june-26-2013-snehashish-ghosh-the-state-is-snooping-can-you-escape/>.

Kotoky (2013) <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/06/20/us-india-surveillance-idUSBRE95J05G20130620>.

Mohan (2011) <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/india/Govt-gives-go-ahead-for-NATGRID/articleshow/8755276.cms?referral=PM>

Prakash (2013) <https://india.blogs.nytimes.com/2013/07/10/how-surveillance-works-in-india/>

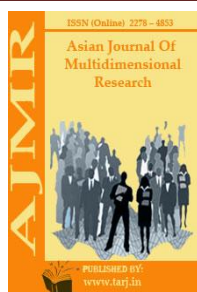
Rajagopal (2017) <http://www.thehindu.com/news/national/hearing-on-aadhaar-validity-put-off-to-january/article21663943.ece>

RSF (2012) <https://rsf.org/en/news/india-0>

Sarin (2012) <http://archive.indianexpress.com/news/govt-sets-norms-for-lawful-interception-and-monitoring/913034/0>

Singh (2013) <http://www.thehindu.com/news/national/indias-surveillance-project-may-be-as-lethal-as-prism/article4834619.ece>

Timmons (2011) <https://india.blogs.nytimes.com/2011/12/05/india-asks-google-facebook-others-to-screen-user-content/> Wikileaks (2011) <https://wikileaks.org/the-spyfiles.html>



JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM IN INDIA

Sonia Panwar*

*M.Phil (Public Administration),
Department of Public Administration,
Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, INDIA.
Email id: Soniapanwar041991@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Children are recognized worldwide as supremely assets of the state. The longer term of the state lies within the hands of the kids, WHO are recognized because the supremely assets of the state however as a result of the indifferences of our society all told spheres, these future stake holders aren't cited properly that results in kid delinquency. India could be a soul to world organization Declaration on the Rights of the kid, 1959 that outlined and recognized varied Rights of the kids namely: the proper to health and care, the proper to protection from abuse, the proper to protection from exploitation, right to protection from neglect, right to info, right to expression and right to nutrition etc. are outlined as basic rights of kids by the Convention of the rights of the kid. Consequently, Asian country has adopted a national policy on kids in 1974 for achieving the on top of aforesaid rights for its kids. He primary central legislation on Juvenile Justice was passed in 1986, by the Union Parliament, thereby providing an even law on juvenile justice for the complete country. Before these laws there were many other laws regarding the same matter were inexistence in every country all over the world. But those were not same or uniform. So the primary uniform law on juvenile justice but failed to lead to any dramatic improvement within the treatment of juveniles. He law continued to electrify plenty of concern, in human rights circles, pertaining not able to the method juveniles were treated in detention centers selected as special homes and juvenile homes.

KEYWORDS: *Consequently, Exploitation, Delinquency, Inexistence*

INTRODUCTION

OBJECT OF STUDY

The object of this study is to check whether the Act has been implemented in accordance with its objectives or whether the Act has a nexus with its objectives as is spelt out in the Act.

The main question that focuses on:

- Are the Child Acts sufficient to curb out the problem of juvenile crimes in India?
- Are the law that are being executed are done in favour of the juvenile delinquents?
- Is the concept of 'Rehabilitation' and 'Reformation' measures a reality or a hypothecation?
- Whether these 'Reformative Centers' actually succeeds in reforming a juvenile in India?
- Whether the Supreme Court has to a considerable point succeeded to make the real objectives of the various Acts in reforming the juvenile delinquent in India
- Whether the society is connected in production of juvenile delinquent in India?

HYPOTHESIS

In a country like India, children who actually needed more protection and care are growing without rather than the rest of the lot. They are either forced to work at a very tender age due to family pressure or is abused and exploited, thus they are denied justice as well as their basic rights India has the world's largest number of sexually abused children, with a child below 16 raped every 155th minute, a child below 10 every 13th hour, and at least one in every 10 children sexually abused at any point in time India is such a country where media and civil society are less vigilant making the children falling into the cracks of the very system which is actually being designed to protect them and give them justice.

Although there are rehabilitation centres along with special procedures for tackling the juvenile delinquents, yet the incidents are increasing.

The Juvenile Justice System in India are broadly classified:

- 1) Those who are in need of care and protection.
- 2) Those who are conflict with law.

However when we analyse the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act 2000, we found there are errors and it is needed to be checked. The main issues that can be raised are:

1. To provide legal support to the children in need of care like that of counseling and rehabilitation help.
2. Implementing the Juvenile Justice Laws by engaging through research and documentation
3. To find out the main reason behind the slow implementation of these laws especially from the grass root level.
4. To suggest on how such errors can be rectified so that they can be work out in a proper manner, and
5. To find out that the suggested laws are well qualified enough to provide care, and education to these children in homes.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present research work requires mainly theoretical and empirical study as well. The theoretical work has been dealt with the study of legislations, judicial verdicts, international conventions, books, and articles available on the subject. The empirical research work comprises taking views of judges, advocates dealing with the cases of children under the social workers working for the Children and other agencies fighting and working for juveniles.

DEFINATION OF A “CHILD”:

Describing what age a man is or ceases to be a child is an unfaltering common contention in the India. The Census of India considers adolescents to be any person underneath the age of 14, as do most government activities. Actually, pre-adulthood is the stage amongst early stages and adulthood. As demonstrated by the UNCRC 'a youth means every individual underneath the age of eighteen years unless, under the law pertinent to the child, the overwhelming part is accomplished some time recently'. This significance of a youth considers solitary countries to choose as showed by the own alert the age uttermost compasses of a child in their own specific laws. In any case, in India, diverse laws related to youths portray children in different age limits.

The Indian Penal Code (IPC) 1860 finds that no youthful underneath the age of seven may be considered criminally in charge of advancement (Sec 82 IPC). By uprightness of mental impediment or frailty to fathom the after effects of one's exercises the criminal obligation age is raised to twelve years (Sec 83 IPC). A young woman must be no under sixteen years remembering the deciding objective to give sexual consent, unless she is hitched, in which case the reinforced age is no less than fifteen. Regarding security against finding, getting, and related offenses the given age is sixteen for energetic associates and eighteen for young women.

As showed up by Article 21 (A) of the Indian Constitution, “the State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such manner as the State may, by law, determine.” Article 45 states that “the State shall endeavor to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years”. At long last Article 51 (A)(k) states “who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child or, as the case may be, ward between the age of six and fourteen years”.

The Child Labor (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 defines a child as a man who has not completed fourteen years of age. The Factories Act, 1948 and Plantation Labor Act 1951 states that a child is one that has not completed fifteen years of age and a juvenile is one who has completed fifteen years of age yet has not completed eighteen years of age. According to the Factories Act, young people are allowed to work in handling plants the length of they are regarded therapeutically fit yet may not for more than four and half hours a day.

The Motor Transport Workers Act 1961, and The Beedi and Cigar Workers (Conditions of Employment) Act 1966, both portray a child as a man who has not completed fifteenth years and fourteenth years of age respectively. The Merchant Shipping Act 1958 and Apprentices Act 1961 don't describe a youth, yet in acquirements of the acting state that a child underneath fourteen is not permitted to work in occupations of the appear.

The Mines Act, 1952 is the significant trade-related act that depicts an adult as a man who has completed eighteen years of age (thusly a child is a man who has not completed eighteen years of age). The Prohibition of Child Marriage Act, 2006 states that a male has not master lion's offer until he is twenty-one years of age and a female has not capable larger part until she is eighteen years of age.

The Indian Majority Act, 1875 was supported to make a clearing noteworthiness of a minor for such goes about as the Guardians and Wards Act of 1890. Under the Indian Majority Act, 1875 a man has not refined greater part until he or she is of eighteen years of age. This monstrosity of a minor moreover stays for both the Hindu Minority and Guardianship Act, 1956 and the Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act, 1956. Muslim, Christian, and Zoroastrian individual law in like

path keep up eighteen as the period of lion's offer. The major Juvenile Justice Act, 1986 delineated boys as underneath sixteen years of age and a young woman child as underneath eighteen years of age.

The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000 has changed the essentialness of adolescent to any person who has not completed eighteen years of age. However, new correction the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2015 provides for a child in conflict with the law who is age group 16-18 years of age to be decided as adults for heinous offenses such as rape and murder and other 21 types of crimes. Heinous offenses are those which are punishable by imprisonment of seven years or more.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Juvenile is a child who not like an adult person, having not earned prescribed age, can't be control accountable for his criminal act. The age criteria for being a juvenile vary from country to country, state to state. In ancient India, a parent was supposed to not penalise a toddler who is underneath five years elderly for any offence. As per the law then prevailing, a child of such tender age ought to be nursed and educated amorously and affectionateness solely. Once the age of five, penalty could also be given in some appropriate kind like physical chastisement or rebuke by the parents, towards the latter half of the childhood, penalty ought to be gradually withdrawn and replaced by recommendation. From the age of sixteen upwards sons and daughters ought to be treated as friends by the parents. Some Smritis, like the Brahd- Yama and the Sankha say that a boy over five and less than eleven, if guilty of some Patakas such as drinking Sura, has not to undergo penance personally but his brother, father or other relations or friends have to undergo for him and that if a 'child is less than five, then whatever the act may be, it is not deemed to be a crime nor a sin and the child is consequently not liable to any punishment or prayaschita.

In the United States age of juvenile ranges from 16 to 21 but 18 is the most common. In England, a child below 10 cannot be committed of any criminal offence because of an irrefutable presumption of innocence and absence of mens rea. Between the age of 10 and 14 they are in a "twilight zone... in which they are morally responsible not as a class but as individuals, when they know their act to be wrong. In France and Poland, the age limit is 13. In Australia, Germany, Norway and Czechoslovakia it is 14 and in Denmark and Sweden it is 15.

In India, under section 82 of the Indian Penal Code, nothing is an offence which is done by a child under seven years of age and under section 83 nothing is an offence which is done by a child above seven years of age and under twelve, who has not attained sufficient maturity of understanding to judge the nature and consequence of his conduct on that occasion.

Maturity of understanding is to be presumed between the ages of seven and twelve unless the contrary be proved. Section 27 of the Criminal Procedure Code, 1973, provides that any offence, other than one punishable with death or imprisonment for life, committed by any person who at the date when he appears or is brought before the court is under the age of sixteen years may be tried by the court of Chief Judicial Magistrate or any Court specially empowered under the Children Act, 1960 or any other law for the time being in force providing for the treatment, training and rehabilitation of youthful offenders.

Juvenile Delinquency- According to William Coxtton in the year 1484 used the word delinquent to refer a person who was found guilty. Juvenile delinquency means the involvement by the

teenagers in an unlawful behaviour who is basically under the age of 18 and commits an act which is considered as a crime. A child is known as a delinquent when he/she perpetrates a mistake which is against the law and is not accepted by the society. A child is known as a delinquent when he/she commits a mistake which is against the law and which is not accepted by the society.

A child is born innocent, but due to the unhealthy environment, negligence of the basic necessities and wrong company, a child may turn into a delinquent. Usually, somebody has to have intent to break the law in order to commit a crime, but that is not always the case. A person can be charged with a crime if that person is not aware of the law. No conduct constitutes a crime unless it is declared as criminal in the laws of the country.

Causes of Delinquent Trajectories

Understanding the causes of juvenile delinquency is an integral part of preventing a young person from involvement in inappropriate, harmful and illegal conduct. Four primary risk factors can identify young people inclined to delinquent activities: individual, family, mental health and substance abuse. Often, a juvenile is exposed to risk factors in more than one of these classifications.

Individual Risk Factors

Factors in this sphere are identified as any characteristics directly related to or within a specific person that affects the likelihood of that individual engaging in violent and delinquent behavior. Several risk factors are associated with juvenile delinquency. A minor whose intelligence level is low and is devoid of proper education is more prone to become involved in delinquent conduct. Other risk factors include impulsive behavior, uncontrolled aggression and an inability to delay gratification. In many cases, multiple individual risk factors can be identified as contributing to a juvenile's involvement in harmful, destructive and illegal activities.

Family Risk Factors

Family traits such as poor parenting skills, family size, home discord, child maltreatment, and antisocial parents are risk factors linked to juvenile delinquency. A constant pattern of family risk factors are associated with the development of delinquent behavior in young people. These family risk factors include a lack of proper parental supervision, ongoing parental conflict, neglect, and abuse (emotional, psychological or physical).

Parents who demonstrate a lack of respect for the law and social norms are likely to have children who think similarly. Finally, those children that display the weakest attachment to their parents and families are precisely the same juveniles who engage in inappropriate activities, including delinquent conduct.

Mental Health Risk Factors

Various mental health factors are also contributing to juvenile delinquency. It is important to keep in mind, that a diagnosis of certain types of mental health conditions- primarily personality disorders cannot be made in regard to a child. However, there are precursors of these conditions that can be exhibited in childhood that tend to end up being displayed through delinquent behavior. A common one is conduct disorder. Conduct disorder is defined as "a lack of empathy and disregard for societal norms".

Substance Abuse Risk Factors

Substance abuse is found in many numbers of cases of juvenile delinquency. Two trends are identified in regard to substance abuse and minors. First, juveniles are using more powerful drugs today than was the case as recently as 10 years ago. Second, the age at which some juveniles begin using drugs is younger. Children in elementary schools are found to be using powerful illegal drugs. The consumption of these illegal substances or the use of legal substances illegally encourages young people to commit crimes to obtain money for drugs. Additionally, juveniles are far more likely to engage in destructive, harmful and illegal activities when using drugs and alcohol.

WHY JUVENILES ARE TREATED DIFFERENTLY?

‘Crime’ is present in all the societies through the ages. One may dislike its presence in the society but its presence cannot be ignored. With modern societies and complex pattern of life, crime is on the rise in the society. One of the most serious aspects of crime is that it also attracts young people within its black shadow.

Minors, if indulged in committing crimes, are expected to be worst affected by it as they have whole life ahead of them which could have been otherwise different altogether. But the fact remains that crime is present in all the societies and even minors indulge in the same. That being so, the issue is should the minors be treated differently compared to adults who are found to have committed crime? History suggests that for a long time there was no difference in the treatment meted out to a juvenile offender and an adult offender. The concept of separate courts, institutions and procedures for juvenile offenders is quite a recent one. Up to the latter part of the nineteenth century, children were tried for their offences in ordinary criminal courts both in England and the United States.

It was only when the new penology, based on reformatory and rehabilitative ideals, came to be applied towards the end of the nineteenth century that it was realized that courts, procedures and prisons meant for adult offenders could hardly be expected to serve the interests of juvenile offenders. Since a nation’s future depends upon the young generation, the children deserve compassion and bestowal of the best care to protect this burgeoning human resource. A child is born innocent and if nourished with tender care and attention, he or she will blossom with facilities physical, mental, moral and spiritual into a person of stature and excellence.

The criminal tendency of youngsters must be timely curbed so that they do not turn into a habitual criminals in their future life. It is with this end in view that most countries are presently tackling the problem of juvenile delinquency on priority basis. Many of them have established separate juvenile courts to deal with young offenders and the procedure adopted in these courts radically differs from that of a regular trial courts.

Evolution of Juvenile Justice System

Earlier the concept of juvenile justice was based on a belief that the problems of juvenile delinquency in aberrant situations are not amenable to the resolution within the edifice of traditional process of criminal law[13]. The term ‘Juvenile’ justice emerged from the word ‘juvenis’ which means young so it implies that it is a justice system for the young. During the course of time, it was felt that juvenile justice system beside catering the needs of young offenders, it also deliver specialized and preventive treatment services like community support, harmonizing impersonal state intervention with the family, community and institutional

interventions for the children and as a means of prevention, rehabilitation and socialization through schools and religious bodies.

Understanding the prevailing state of the Juvenile Justice System in India, one needs look to history. Scholars and historians are unable to agree on the legal foundation for the present-day court. According to some its beginnings can be traced to the English Federal courts of High Chancery. Beneath the English laws of Equity, the courts of High Chancery got the responsibility by the crown to function *parens-patriae* (in place of the parent) to protect the interest of the child whose property was in risk. The other read reflects that juvenile courts sprang from common law of crimes. The English Federal Courts of High Chancery extended their protection to alternative areas of general child welfare and incorporated the neglected and dependent child within their jurisdiction. There's no indication, however, that these courts exercised any jurisdiction over the delinquent child.

The juvenile justice systems, in the juridical sense, in various countries in the West have developed through a similar course. Firstly, there was a recognition that children were not as mature as adults to understand the nature and consequences of their acts and could not be held responsible for their criminal acts. Secondly, the accounts of the appalling prison conditions led to improvement in the living conditions in prisons and segregation in prisons.

Since the refuge, reformatories and other correctional institutions concentrated more on custody and less on reform, institutionalization by the year 1850, was considered as non-fruitful. The Common Law and customary practice of dealing with youthful offenders was to assume that children accused of misbehavior and crimes were guilty as charged. Possible innocence was not considered: the jury's responsibility was to determine whether children understood their offences.

By the early nineteenth century this method of handling delinquents had become unsatisfactory for two major reasons. First, despite courtroom partiality toward youths, increasing number were being convicted and sent to jails, where it was commonly believed that they were schooled in crime by adult offenders. Second, and more important, some children gained acquittal by appealing to the jury's sympathy; which is an equally unsatisfactory disposition because it allowed them to escape the consequences of their actions.

AMERICAN JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

The juvenile justice system in the US has its origins in a movement by progressive reformers a century ago to stop the barbaric practice of treating children like criminals. In early 18th century American colonies adopted the English common laws regarding child criminals, from 1825 until 1899 several reform movements initiated significant changes both in philosophy and in treatment of juvenile delinquents. Quaker reformers spurred the New York Legislature in 1824 to pass legislation creating a House of Refuge, which separated poor children and juvenile delinquents from adult criminals.

The goal of the House of Refuge movement was both to prevent pre-delinquents from becoming criminals and to reform those who had already committed crimes. A group of reformers consisting some local jurists, the Illinois Bar Association, civic groups, social scientist and social workers worked together to persuade the Illinois legislature to enact law dealing with children.

In April 1899, Illinois Juvenile Court Act was passed as the America's first juvenile court to regulate, treatment and control of dependent, neglected and delinquent juvenile. The act adopted

two ancient English common law concepts that provided a legal and philosophical foundation for the juvenile court and its process. First concept is *parens patriae* means that monarch stands in the relationship of parents to the country. Second concept is *In Loco Parentis* refers to the obligation of the State to all children. It means that the state stands in the shoes of the parents for children. These two doctrines provide a source of authority and justification for intrusion of the state into family affairs. By 1911, a dozen states had followed the example set by Illinois, and by 1925 all but two states had instituted Juvenile Courts.

The significant change came when Supreme Court intervened and decided three cases between year 1966 and 1970 *Kent v United States* (1966), *In re Gault* (1967) and *In re Winship* (1970). However, these decisions were an attempt to improve the Juvenile Court system as it then existed by extending Constitutional democratic rights guarantees and criminal procedure safeguards to children in the Juvenile Court system. In the case *Kent v United States* which held that under a District of Columbia statute the informal process of determining whether a juvenile should be tried in juvenile or in adult court failed to provide sufficient due process protection for children.

The Court held that before a minor is transferred to adult court the child is entitled to an informal hearing where the trial court must articulate the reasons for the transfer so that the child can have an adequate record for appellate review. Additionally, in response to the state's position that juvenile cases were civil, not criminal, the Court responded, "There is evidence, in fact, that there may be grounds for concern that the child receives the worst of both worlds; that he gets both the protections accorded to adults nor the solicitous care and regenerative treatment postulated for children". The Court thereby rejected the reform movement's justification for informality in juvenile delinquency cases

THE ENGLAND JUVENILE SYSTEM

Within the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, England and Wales is the element nation within which for the most part English law prevails. This analysis doesn't address children's rights in European country or European nation, though variety of the provisions mentioned herein below may apply to them. From the late 1810s, juvenile crime was more and more the priority for England government and commentators. What occurred during this amount may artlessly be delineated as a convergence of the general public and also the non-public sectors in several matters of domestic policy.

Private initiatives set up to deal with juvenile crimes, such as the Marine Society, the Philanthropic Society, the Refuge for the Destitute – not exclusively for juveniles but strongly involved with the rescue and reform of the young – and private individuals, mirrored the ideological leanings of parliamentary penal policy. Individuals involved in the voluntary sector became enmeshed in the public machinery of juvenile justice. Parliamentary committees and commissions did not consist solely of government officials, magistrates and constables, but also took evidence from the voluntary sector. In many ways, it was from these people that the penal professionals of the later nineteenth century were descended. These commentators and activists promoted a more child-centred approach to juvenile criminals.

Though early modern policy makers and welfare practitioners had not been unaware of the specific needs of children, truly separate institutions for youngsters, both at the level of trial and punishment, were an innovation of the nineteenth century. In England and Wales, juveniles between seven and fourteen presumed incapable of crime and it was for the prosecution to prove that they knew that their conduct was wrong. The primary goal of the Act was to de-emphasize

the punishment aspect of juvenile justice and to place more of an emphasis on the social service of juvenile offenders. The most substantive piece affecting children and their basic rights to a secure and safe environment is the Children Act 1989. This Act introduces the term 'parental responsibility' rather than the common law concept of custody. Parental responsibility is defined as "all the rights, duties, powers, responsibilities and authority which by law a parent has in relation to the child and his property"

INDIAN JUVENILE SYSTEM

There were numbers of laws in the ancient society relating to the actions and behaviours of the people of India, but none of these laws had any specific reference to juvenile delinquents or neglected children. By 19th century a concern towards the growing problem of delinquents grew. India took guidance/ideas from various western countries and developments done in the field of prison reforms and juvenile justice. In particular India took its cue from Britain since it was a British colony and Britain had already established its own juvenile legislation.

In 1850, the Apprentice Act was passed as the first juvenile legislation to deal with children. Under this Act, destitute children, or children between the ages of 10 to 18 years were found committing petty offences, were placed under apprentice into a trade. Further, the Police Act, 1861 was passed and the duty of police officer as mentioned in the Act is to obey and execute all orders and warrants lawfully issued to him by any competent authority; to collect and communicate intelligence affecting the public peace; to prevent the commission of offences and public nuisance, to detect and bring offenders to justice and to apprehend all persons whom he is legally authorised to apprehend and for whose apprehension sufficient ground exists.

The concept of 'juvenile', 'delinquency', 'neglected', 'victimized', 'abused', 'uncontrollable' and 'children in need of care and protection' was unknown to the framers of Police Act . Juvenile Justice is based on the twin concepts of mensrea and parens patriae and seeks to ensure best interest of juvenile. The concept of juvenile justice assumes that children do not have the same mental capacity as adults to take full responsibility for their actions and for that reason they are more amenable to reform than adults.

The Constitution gave special status for the children in the Indian polity since its adoption in 1950. With the increase in the number of the neglected and delinquents juveniles in the wake of the partition, coupled with the special status of the children in the constitution, the period immediately preceding and following the coming into force of the constitution saw a spurt of the legislations relating to children . Not only were a series of Bills introduced in Parliament for the care and protection of the children, variety of the states conjointly enacted the children Acts. once the constitution of India was being enacted care was taken for juvenile by imposing through the Articles 15(3), 39 (e) & (f), 45 and 47of the constitution a primary responsibility on the state to confirm that all developmental wants of the children are met with which their basic human rights are protected.

In the international year of the child all states except Nagaland, Orissa, Sikkim, and Tripura enacted their Children Acts. The age The Juvenile Justice System, from Welfare to Rights below which a person was considered to a child differed in at least six states. The variations in the definition of delinquents and neglected child also result in the discrimination.

In 1974, the Government of India came out with a National Policy for the welfare of Children. In order to give practical shape to this National policy, the Government constituted a national

Children's Board. Further to give an effect to the National policy which dealt with treatment to children, various states enacted their own Children Acts such as Madhya Pradesh Bal Adhiniyam, 1979, Haryana Children Act, 1974, Jammu and Kashmir Children Act etc. In 1984-85, The Children Acts enacted in many states but were never properly enforced.

The Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898 contained the provisions of juvenile justice along with many other things regarding an adjective or procedural law. Many States enacted their own State enactments in adjudication of matters involving the child or the juveniles which were in force in the respective States such as: Bombay Children Act, 1924 Bombay Children Act, 1948 U.P. Children Act, 1951 West Bengal Children Act, 1959 Rajasthan Children Act, 1970 Bihar Children Act, 1982, etc. The Children Act, 1960 applied only to Union Territories.

Juvenile Justice Act, 1986

The indigenous thinking on Juvenile Justice has been keeping up with the global trends in this field. With the adoption of the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the administration of the Juvenile Justice, India has become the first country to grow its system in the light of the principles enunciated therein. The main reason behind enacting the Juvenile Justice Bill of 1986 was to bring the operation of the Juvenile Justice System in the country in conformity with these Rules. And the other objectives were to lay down a uniform legal framework for Juvenile Justice, to provide a specialized approach towards the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency, to come up with the machinery and infrastructure for Juvenile Justice operations, to establish the norms and standards for the administration of Juvenile Justice, to develop the proper linkages and coordination between the formal system and voluntary agencies and to constitute special offences in relation to juveniles and to prescribe punishment thereof.

With its enforcement, the Juvenile Justice Act of 1986 has replaced the earlier mechanism of the Children Act enacted by the Central and State Governments for dealing with children coming in conflict with law. The definition of juvenile, as per this act, included boys who had not completed the age of 16 and girls who had not completed the age of 18 years. The law undoubtedly places a crucial duty on the state to appropriately utilize the resources from various sectors of socio-economic development in ensuring the well-being and welfare of juveniles and a chance to recover if they happen to falter.

Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000

Diagnosing the current developments, the juvenile justice administration in India was found to have several flaws or gaps in legal provisions and shortcomings by the way of linkages between the governmental and non-governmental efforts in the care, treatment and rehabilitation of such children. The JJ Act 1986 required that the pre-existing system built around the implementation of the then available Children's Acts be restructured. However, due to the absence of a national consensus on the time frame for such a restructuring, the steps taken by most of the State Governments were still heavily short of the proclaimed goals.

The inadequacy of the juvenile justice personnel, in terms of both quantity and quality continues to be the weakest part of the operational strategy. In order to rationalize and standardize the approach towards juvenile justice in keeping with the relevant provisions of the Constitution of India and International obligations in this regard, the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of the Children) Act, 2000 was (re)enacted by the government of India.

The Interim Report of the Working Group of Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment (2001-02) has drawn attention to some additional inputs incorporated under the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000. The Act with all additional inputs has been enforced since April 1, 2001, to deal with the children within its purview. The upper age limit of the children within the purview of the law has been raised. The upper age limit of the boys has been increased from 16 to 18 years, which would increase the actual coverage by seven times. It was then mandatory to constitute a 'National Level Advisory Board' on juvenile justice, to advice the Central and State Governments as well as the Voluntary Organizations associated with this work.

Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2015

But then again the Juvenile Justice Act, 2015 was enacted to replace the existing Indian Juvenile Delinquency law, Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000, so that juveniles in conflict with law in the age group of 16-18 years, involved in heinous offences can be tried as adults.

In our country, it was the high time to bring some reform in the Juvenile laws as there has been a steep rise in serious crimes involving youth of 16 – 18 years of age and they very well know that below 18 years is the 'getaway pass' for them from the criminal prosecution. The punishment has to be made a bit deterrent in order to inject the feelings of fear in the mind of the criminal.

The recent "Nirbhaya rape case" has caused utter dismay, concern and outrage amongst the people. The gruesome act of brutalizing her with an iron rod was done by none other but a juvenile and he has been sentenced for a period of 3 years as per Section 15 of JJ Act, 2000 as per our law for juveniles. The principal ought to have been followed for trying juvenile offenders is that Juvenility should be decided as per the state of mind and not just the state of body. In the recent Nirbhaya rape case all the other co-accused are awarded death sentence but the person who committed the most brutal part of the case has been awarded a mere 3 years of remand as per JJ Act, 2000.

In the light of above incident, the bill was introduced in the parliament by Maneka Gandhi on 12th August 2014. The bill adopts several new features which were missing in the earlier act like it adopts the concept of Hague convention and cooperation in respect of Inter-country Adoption, 1993. The bill also seeks to make adoption process of orphaned, abandoned and surrendered children more streamlined.

One of the most criticized step in the new juvenile justice bill 2015 is introduction of "judicial waiver system" which will allow treatment of juveniles in certain conditions, in the adult criminal justice system and to punish them as adults. Juvenile Justice Boards (JJB) and Child will be constituted in each district. The role of JJB would be to conduct a preliminary in each district. The role of JJB would be to conduct a preliminary inquiry to determine whether a juvenile offender is to be sent for rehabilitation or be tried as an adult. The CWC will determine institutional care for children in need of care and protection. It is for the first time in India that such provisions have been applied.

This act totally deals with punishing children involved in crimes which are sort of well planned crimes, which creates a sense that the person committing the crime clearly know about what he is doing and still committing it, the crimes which are heinous in nature like rape and murder, dacoity or kidnapping.

This new act is considered as the biggest legal reform by the Indian judiciary and should be welcomed and implemented fairly and considered as a move towards stopping crimes by the teenagers of country by creating a sense of fear of punishment in the minds of teenagers by introduction of such type of laws.

Role of Judiciary

Supreme Court and various High Courts in India play a very important role in the development of Juvenile Justice System in India. In the initial stage, the cases related with juvenile delinquent are dealt by the lower courts but the trends of the judicial approach towards a juvenile in conflict with the law, reflected by the judgments of Hon'ble Supreme Court and various high courts. The courts/ juvenile justice board are under the statutory and Constitutional duty to deal with the juveniles in conflict with the law. The competent authority is required to make due inquiry and give full opportunity to the juveniles to put his case before the court or board concerned. Child delinquency is accepted as a major problem faced by both developing and developed countries. To overcome this obstacle, the governments have established many courts for implementation of various law enacted and in this way contributed a lot in the fields of juvenile justice for the benefit of juvenile offenders. Judiciary on various occasions has expressed great concern relating to the proper implementation of beneficial provisions of law relating to children.

Role of Police

It is basically the police who arrests the juvenile and produces him before the Juvenile Justice Board. A juvenile's first contact with the juvenile justice system is through the police. In any circumstances, a juvenile can be kept within the police lock-up or jail. A juvenile's case is investigated by the police and the charge-sheet is submitted before the competent authority for the same and also after the completion of inquiry, accompany the juvenile to the special home or his place of residence when below 18 years of age. The police also have the authority to immediately on apprehension release a juvenile on bail.

The principle on which all juvenile systems are based is Welfare of the juvenile. Special juvenile police unit including the law enforcement officials are primarily engaged in the prevention of juvenile crime under this Act to perform their functions more effectively. In every police headquarters, a minimum of one officer with the full ability and appropriate training and orientation is also designated as the juvenile welfare officer.

SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to make full use of the legal provisions available for juvenile, the State may initiate the following steps:

Through a program of education, promotion, and organization, form groups of local citizens and assist these groups in conducting activities aimed at the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency, making use of local people and resources for the following purposes.

Combating local conditions known to contribute to juvenile delinquency.

Advise local, state, and federal officials, public and private agencies, and lay groups on the needs for and possible methods of the reduction and prevention of juvenile delinquency and the treatment of delinquent children.

Consultation with the schools and courts of this state on the development of programs for the reducing and preventing delinquency and the treatment of delinquents.

Assisting any community within the state by conducting a comprehensive survey of the community's available public and private resources, and recommend methods of establishing a community program for combating juvenile delinquency and crime, but no survey of that type shall be conducted unless local individuals and groups request it through their local authorities, and no request of that type shall be interpreted as binding the community to following the recommendations made as a result of the request.

Evaluating the rehabilitation of children committed to the department and prepare and submit periodic reports to the committing court for the following purposes:

Administering within the state any juvenile justice acts and programs that the governor requires the department to administer.

Visiting and inspecting jails, detention facilities, correctional facilities, facilities that may hold juveniles involuntarily, or any other facility that may temporarily house juveniles on a voluntary or involuntary basis.

Applying for, allocating, disbursing, and accounting for grants that are made available pursuant to juvenile justice acts, or made available from other state, or private sources, to improve the criminal and juvenile justice systems in the state. All money from juvenile justice act grants shall, if the terms under which the money is received require that the money be deposited into an interest bearing fund or account, is deposited in the state treasury to the credit of the juvenile justice program purposes fund, which is hereby created

CONCLUSION

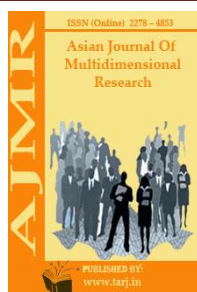
India is perhaps the only country in the world which has the dubious distinction of having maximum number of laws to regulate the conduct of society. It is the only country where almost all aspects of human behavior are sought to be governed by laws rather than through education or innate enlightenment which is the preserve of every egalitarian society. In this fast changing world where development of science and technology keeps us on the run with rapidly occurring incredible changes that affect our life styles, we can't remain contented/being confined in a straitjacketed idealist frame of laws which have no bearing on the present day situation. We have to be pragmatic and realistic rather than bigoted with a kind of idealism that hardly works now.

We may conclude that we have to take a serious view of the changing trends of behavior among our children which has virtually made age as too superfluous and irrelevant factor determining who actually is a Juvenile in real sense and who is not and tailor out a socio-legal plan to govern their conduct in such a way that they get full opportunity to develop their faculties without losing the bliss of their childhood such as innocence, naughtiness, playfulness, which are the basic attributes of childhood and ultimately turnout to be good human beings. The aim of juvenile justice should be that any reaction to juvenile offenders should always be in proportion to the circumstances of both the offender and offence. Then only we could proudly say our children are assets of our nation on whom we can stake our bright future otherwise they would become a liability to not only the parents but to the whole society.

REFERENCES:

1. Lawania, Shipra: Juvenile Delinquency , Rawat Publication, Jaipur 1993
2. MS Sabnis, Juvenile Justice & Juvenile correction: Pride &Prudence, somaiya Publications Pvt. Ltd ; Bombay , 2008

3. Narender Kumar , “Constitutional law of India” edition-1997, central law agency.
4. Dr. Bikram Kumar das (2016), Juvenile Justice system in India , Indian journal of research , vol-5
5. Article-21, article-45 and Article-51 A of the constitution of India.
6. Section 2 (h) of the juvenile justice act, 1986.
7. Section 2 (k) of the juvenile justice act, 2000.
8. Section 15 of the juvenile justice act , 2015.



FARMERS' SUICIDE: PROBLEMS AND REMEDIES

Dr. Mohinder Singh *; Dr. Amit Kumar **

*Professor (Retd.),
Presently Administrator,
RPIIT Group of Colleges,
Karnal (Hr.), INDIA.
Email id: msingh_kuk@yahoo.co.in

**Head & Assistant Professor,
Dept. of Public Administration,
Mata Gujri College, Fatehgarh Sahib (Pb.), INDIA.
Email id: amtranga@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Farmers committing suicide is a matter of grave concern and it can be a truly embarrassing situation for any society. The problems compelling the farmers to commit suicide require immediate attention as the farmers toil tirelessly to produce grain for us, without which we can't survive. The data pertaining to farmers' suicides rate in our country is increasing day by day. The suicides incidents of farmers are growing into complexity. If we remain failure tackling this serious issue, the situation may become disastrous and the nation will have to pay a very heavy cost for the same. We are an agriculture based economy where more than 65 per cent population still depends on agriculture. That is why we find farms spread all over country. In any weather, be it sweltering sun or freezing winter, the farmers are seen working in their fields round the clock. The entire life of the farmers is spent in cultivating their fields. They remain fully engaged in their field work and have no complaint in this regard. Farming includes working in the fields, crop cultivation and planting, crop care, harvesting and selling the crops in the market. Suicides by the farmers is a national problem and the main causes therefore include monsoon failure, high debt burden, defective government policies, public mental health, personal and family problems, floods, droughts, use of genetically modified seed, use of low quality pesticides, losses of non-farm activities, low produce prices, stress and family responsibilities, absence of suitable counseling services, etc. To overcome these problems the suggestions include easy access to credit at low rate of interest, multiple cropping, setting up

agro based industries, passing of agriculture technologies to small and marginal farmers, awareness generation, stopping of fragmentation of holdings, crop insurance, better water management, alternate source of income for farmers.

KEYWORDS: *Disaster, Sweltering, Pesticides, Fragmentation, Demography, Manifest, Exaggerated, Biminish, Indebtedness, Epicenter, Appreciable, Suicides, Allegedly, Collateral, Wrenching, Eliminating, Polarized*

INTRODUCTION

India is an agrarian country with around 70 per cent of its people depending directly or indirectly upon agriculture. But farmers' suicides in India are worrying. As per the Central Government, despite a multi-pronged approach to improving income and social security of farmers, over 12,000 suicides are reported in the agricultural sector every year since 2013. Farmer's suicides account for approximately 10 per cent of all suicides in India. There is no denying that the menace of farmer's suicides exists and runs counter to the aspirations of reaping benefits of our demographic dividend.

The Additional Solicitor General P S Narasimha said, "The government is addressing the low income of farmers. Agrarian distress is manifest from a large number of farmers living below the poverty line and unfortunate incidents of suicides can be addressed by enabling farmers to increase their income. With this understanding, the government is aiming to double farmers' income by the year 2022." The Centre gave statistics on suicides in the farming sector and compared it with the total number of suicides in India. "A total of 12,602 persons involved in farming sector 8,007 farmers-cultivators and 4,595 agricultural labourers - committed suicide during 2015, accounting for 9.4% of total suicide victims (133,623) in the country," the Centre said. Maharashtra topped the list with 4,291 suicides, followed by Karnataka with 1,569, Telangana 1,400, Madhya Pradesh 1,290, Chhattisgarh 954, Andhra Pradesh 916 and Tamil Nadu 606. Together, these seven states accounted for 87.5% of total suicides in the farming sector in the country -11,026 of 12,602. In 2014, 12,360 persons in the farming sector - 5,650 farmers-cultivators and 6,710 agricultural labourers -committed suicide, accounting for 9.4% of the total number of suicides (131,666) in the country, the Centre said. In 2013, the number was 11,772, accounting for 8.7% of the 134,799 suicides in the country¹.

It has been pointed out that the failing economics of such farms-agricultural households in the south are most indebted are exacerbated by additional loans that families take to meet health issues, leaving them with diminished ability to invest in farming. Nearly 70% of India's 90 million agricultural households spend more than they earn on average each month, pushing them towards debt, which is now the primary reason in more than half of all suicides by farmers nationwide, according to an India Spend analysis of various government data.

It has been observed that outstanding loans for health reasons doubled over a decade to 2012, and loans for farm business fell by about half over the same period. These data help understand the nature of India's farm crisis in the light of the recent spate of farmer protests across states to demand loan waivers and better prices for their crops. These 62.6 million households spending more than they earn had land holdings of one hectare or less, according to the 2013 situation assessment survey of farm households by the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), the latest available data. In contrast, 0.35 million (0.39%) households owning more than 10 hectares of

land had an average monthly income of Rs 41,338 and consumption expenditure of Rs 14,447, thereby maintaining a monthly surplus of Rs 26,941. Nearly 85% of all operational farm holdings in the country are smaller than two hectares in size, NSSO data show. No more than a third of Indian small and marginal farmers have access to institutional credit, as India Spend reported on June 8, 2017, which suggests that loan waivers may not help them.

Andhra Pradesh has the highest share of indebted agricultural households (93%), followed by Telangana (89%) and Tamil Nadu (82.1%). The nationwide figure is 52%. Indebtedness was listed as the primary reason for 55% of farmer suicides in 2015 and more than 300,000 Indian farmers have committed suicide since 1995, (January 2, 2017).

FARMERS' SUICIDES IN PUNJAB

There is an alarming rise in the number of farm suicides in seven districts of **Punjab**, with more than three times as many people taking their lives in the period April 2010 to December 2016, than was the case in the preceding decade, 2000-2011. According to a survey conducted by Punjabi University (Patiala), as many as 1,309 cases of farm suicide were reported in Punjab's seven districts of Faridkot, Fatehgarh Sahib, Hoshiarpur, Patiala, Rupnagar, SAS Nagar and Shri Muktsar Sahib between April 2010 and December 2016. During 2000-2011, the same seven districts recorded 365 cases of farm suicide, of which 211 were of farmers and 154, agricultural labourers. Since these seven districts do not include Bathinda, Mansa and Sangrur districts, which are known to be the 'epicentre' of farmer suicides in Punjab, the overall numbers for the State are expected to be even bleaker. The latest survey was commissioned by the previous Shiromani Akali Dal-Bharatiya Janata Party (SAD-BJP) government in 2015 and covers all the 22 districts of Punjab. Three universities, Punjab Agricultural University (Ludhiana), Guru Nanak Dev University (Amritsar), and Punjabi University (Patiala) had been tasked with assessing the extent and causes of farmer suicides, with the districts being divided among them. Punjabi University's report, a copy of which is with *The Hindu*, pertained to seven districts. It was submitted to the State government last month. According to this survey, from April 2010 to March 2013, 737 cases of suicide were reported in these seven districts. Of these, 340 suicides were of farmers, and 397 were of agricultural labourers. Though the original scope of the survey was limited to the period 2010-13, Punjabi University extended the survey, and its report states that from April 1, 2013 to December 2016, these seven districts witnessed 572 cases of suicide, of which 230 were of farmers, and 342, agricultural workers².

Debts on increased

According to the report under reference, the cause of suicide in the overwhelming number of cases was stress due to mounting debt. It stated that of the 737 suicides reported from April 2010 to March 31, 2013, 90.23% (665 suicides) were due to mounting debt, while the remaining 9.77% (72 suicides) were due to other causes. "Rising input costs, stagnant yields, no appreciable increase in output prices had reduced the farm incomes that led to the severe economic and social distress among the farmers and agricultural labourers," observed the survey. The survey further stated that out of the 340 farmers who committed suicide, 124 were marginal farmers (36.47%), 97 were small farmers (28.53%), 62 were semi-medium (18.24%), 31 were medium (9.12%), and only 26 were large farmers (7.65%). In the seven districts surveyed by Punjabi University, the highest number of suicides (426 cases) were in Shri Muktsar Sahib district, followed by Patiala (190 cases), Faridkot (73 cases), SAS Nagar (18 cases), Fatehgarh Sahib (15 cases), Hoshiarpur (9 cases) and Rupnagar (6 cases) districts. Most of the farmers and agricultural

labourers who committed suicide belonged to the younger and middle age groups. A majority of them had either consumed a poisonous substance or hanged themselves, the survey noted³.

Some News of farmers' suicides in Punjab

A leading newspaper has noted that suicides of farmers cases coming to the fore in different parts of the state.

A 35-year-old farmer allegedly committed suicide yesterday morning Moga district. The farmer owed just Rs 40,000 to a local money lender, who was allegedly harassing him. The farmer was also called to Ajitwal police station a few days ago. Farmer's mother said her son was under depression ever since then.

A 23-year-old farmer, who was under Rs 3.4-lakh debt, allegedly committed suicide by consuming some poisonous substance in Mukstar. Sources said he was rushed to hospital after he consumed some poison. He was referred to a Ludhiana hospital where he died the next day. Mother of the deceased, said, *"We have about 3 acres of land. He was the sole earning member in the family. We have to clear a debt of Rs 3 lakh of a bank and Rs 40,000 of a cooperative society."*

Another incident took place in Talwandi Sabo allegedly ended his life today. He was under Rs 7-lakh debt. He reportedly consumed some pesticide. His wife said her husband was upset over rising debt. *"We have 6 acres of land and had sowed cotton, but the crop was affected by whitefly. He went to the fields and later someone found him unconscious. We took him to a hospital where doctors declared him brought dead."*

A farmer allegedly committed suicide at Alisher Singh village here by consuming poison. Deceased brother said he had 4 acres of land which he had to sell to pay off his debt and to get his daughter married. *"He was still under Rs 4-lakh debt. He owed money to a bank and to his relatives as well."*⁴

Two debt-ridden persons have allegedly committed suicide in the district of Moga in Dharamkot sub-division, allegedly consumed some poisonous substance. His wife told the police that her husband was under depression over mounting debt of more than Rs 25 lakh, which he borrowed from banks and local money lenders. He was rushed to a local hospital from where he was referred to Faridkot, but he on the way.

In the second incident, Dalit farm labourer (20) ended his life by consuming some poisonous substance at Nihalsinghwala sub-division. Preliminary findings revealed that he was under Rs 5-lakh debt. The family members told the police that due to the mounting debt, they had also recently sold their house⁵.

Punjab's loan waiver scheme, changing from a promise of covering all farmers to only a fraction, has met with heavy criticism. The result is it has been sent back to the drawing board for a complete overhaul of the mechanism to identify beneficiaries. To understand whether the help of Rs 2 lakh would help prevent suicides, The Tribune conducted survey on the families of 12 of the 14 farmers whose suicide was reported in the paper in September 2017. Two were farm labourers whose families had shifted to Rajasthan, and could not be traced. September-October is a particularly stressful time of the year for farmers, with income from the last crop nearly used up, wedding season coming up, and finances to be arranged for the next crop. The case studies were instructive in that they revealed how debt waiver may not be exactly the tool for suicide

prevention, even as it may help other distressed farmers. The survey was done between November and January, and in some cases the family circumstances may have changed since.

Loan waiver eligibility

The eligibility for farmers to avail of the loan waiver is that they should be “small” (up to 5 acres) or “marginal” (up to 2.5 acres); should not be in government service or retired from government service. For a marginal farmer, loan of up to Rs 2 lakh will be waived, even if the total debt amount is higher. For a small farmer, no waiver will be available in case he has loan of over Rs 2 lakh. Only institutional loans are eligible for waiver, not those from private individuals such as arhtiyas.

A farm labourer (49) of Muktsar has committed suicide along with four-year-old son. His elder daughter was of marriageable age, but he was unable to clear his previous loans and had taken a loan of nearly Rs 2 lakh from village residents but his family was unaware of the exact amount. Creditors were approaching them for money. Brother of the deceased, said no financial help was sought from or given by the government. Being a farmhand, getting loans without collateral from financial institutions was not possible. The state did not have a policy to help people like him and their only bet is arhtiyas and moneylenders.

A Farmer (49) Malout consumed a poisonous substance. He had a debt of Rs 16.5 lakh — Rs 8 lakh from a bank and Rs 8.5 lakh from an arhtiya. He had met with a major road accident in 2012 and was battling various health issues since then. Besides, his three children – two daughters and a son – were of marriageable age. He was also renovating his house. No financial help was sought. The debt amount is too big to be covered by the waiver scheme would not have covered such a big amount.

A Farm labourer(55) of Muktsar Committed suicide by hanging. He was battling cancer and lived off loans raised from villagers. His two sons were unmarried and he had a debt of Rs 2.5 lakh. Son of the deceased, claimed they never received any financial help, not even for cancer. Contrary to medical schemes and tall claims by the government that they were underwriting medical expenses, the reality is many slip through the gaps. Staff in hospitals does not guide such patients, who are unaware how to seek treatment or reimbursement. Illiteracy and cumbersome paperwork are major stumbling blocks.

A Farm labourer (48), Abohar left home without informing anyone; his body was found in the canal. He was unable to repay a debt of Rs 4.5 lakh, which he had taken from landlords over two years. It was used for the treatment of his son (18), for removing a brain tumor the previous year at Hospital. The medicine bill was Rs 6,000 per month. He had also taken loans for the weddings of his two daughters. His elder brother said his brother had leased 11 acres a few years ago. He suffered losses in 2015 when the nearby drain overflowed and damaged the cotton crop. The next year he grew wheat on three acres, but the income was not sufficient to meet household and treatment expenses. Since he did not own land, no loan could be raised from a bank or cooperative society, his neighbours explained. No help was extended by the state despite assurances by some political activists and officials. The problem again is that without collateral no loans are given by financial institutions. Moneylenders remain the only source, but they demand very high interest.

A Farmer (37), of Sangrur committed suicide. He had a debt of Rs 20-22 lakh from banks and other sources. The amount from friends, relatives and arhtiyas was around Rs 3 lakh. Repeated

crop failures and ever escalating cost of renovation of this house and failure to arrange money from various sources triggered the suicide. His family and friends said they did not have any information about the extent of his stress, but were aware that he was under debt. He could have hardly benefitted from the debt waiver scheme, as the extent of debt was way too high.

A farmer (37) of Sangrur committed suicide. He owed Rs 8 lakh that he had raised to send his wife to Cyprus, and for sinking a new tubewell. His father, said he did not know the exact amount taken from a bank, but he had also borrowed from moneylenders. Family members said they did not have any idea he would commit suicide. Part loan waiver would still have left banks and moneylenders harassing him for the remaining amount. It was perhaps a case of misplaced priorities. But with the falling water table, and the need to sink tubewells deeper, it was recurring costs that kept them afloat but burdened.

An incident in the same district was happened, a farmer committed suicide. He had failed to arrange money for the wedding of his daughter, and owed Rs 5 lakh to moneylenders. Owned just one acre, and was failing to meet family expenses. The family does not know if he sought any state help, but no official visited them after the suicide. He would not have benefitted as the amount he owed was over the debt waiver limit.

A farmer from Moga committed suicide, facing social stigma and depression due to debt of Rs 6 lakh; he owned just 2 acres. He had taken Rs 3 lakh from a bank, Rs 2 lakh from an arhtiya and Rs 1 lakh from a cooperative society. He had night blindness, due to which he had stopped driving a truck. Moreover, no villager leased land to him and he was deprived of his source of extra income, his own holding being very small. No help was sought from the government. Could have received partial relief under the debt waiver scheme, but a large part of the debt would have remained. Raising a family on proceeds of two acres was not possible, not to mention paying interest on the loan.

Farmer (38) of Muktsar Committed suicide by consuming a poisonous substance, died three days later. He was unable to clear debt of Rs 6 lakh and bank officials and a commission agent were repeatedly contacting him for the same. He was also suffering from a liver disease, according to elder brother. No financial help was sought or given by the government. Getting loans from banks was an uphill task, so arhtiyas was the only option.

Farmer (50) of Sangrur took his own life. He was unable to arrange even for seed to sow the next crop. His son said his father was under debt of Rs 3 lakh, of which Rs 2 lakh was from a bank and the remaining from an arhtiya. The family owned only three acres and had no additional source of income. The family had no clue he was contemplating suicide. Returning the loan to the arhtiya would have required sale of part of the land.

A Farmer (46) of Maur had consumed poison. He was unable to repay a loan of Rs 20.5 lakh had wife, two daughters and a son. His father said he owed Rs 6 lakh to pesticide dealers, Rs 5 lakh to the cooperative society at Dhadhe village, and Rs 9.5 lakh to the SBI branch at Maur Mandi. The deceased owned five acres, but only three had been cultivated. Their cotton crop had been damaged by stray animals and he was shattered after that loss. No government official contacted him or gave them financial help. Could have qualified for partial help under the debt waiver scheme, but the amount would not have helped him much. Despite landholding, farming had become unviable. Cotton had started failing despite costly inputs. The stray cattle menace only added to his misery.

A Farm labourer (36) of Sangrur committed suicide. He took his life as he could not arrange money for the wedding of his sister. His relatives knew he was under debt, but did not have any figure as he kept to himself. The family did not have any inkling of the impending suicide, but were critical of the state as they had not received relief even after two months. As he was a farmhand, he was not eligible for loan waiver⁶.

Above observation clearly indicates that not only farmers' even labourers are also committing suicides. Reasons behind these suicides are financial problems, social issue and health problems.

REASONS BEHIND FARMERS' SUICIDES

An attempt has been made to find out the reasons behind the farmers' suicides and some of most important reasons have been discussed as follows:

Cropping Pattern

Agriculture in Punjab has suffered from mono-crop culture of mainly wheat and paddy. With this cropping pattern, farming itself is becoming an unviable occupation, due to rising fixed and variable input costs, and low remuneration leading to falling profit margins. Variable costs increase due to rising prices of inputs like fertilizers, pesticides, weedicides, diesel etc, and further fixed costs like installation and deepening of submersible pumps due to the dipping water table increase the financial woes of farmers. For a small and marginal farmer, it is economically unviable to make such investments, especially by borrowing from informal sources at high rates of interest (18 to 36 per cent). Production levels in the state have already touched the saturation point and productivity cannot be increased further by intensive use of inputs. Already intensive use of inputs along with cultivation of water intensive crop like paddy has led to ecological crisis in terms of depleting water table and increasingly micro nutrient deficient soil. The National Sample Survey Organization has pointed out that farming has now become unremunerative for small and medium farmers. According to the Ludhiana-based Punjab Agricultural University (PAU), almost 64 per cent of the farmers own less than 10 acres. The above two facts imply that these 64 per cent small farmers will soon be the victims of the worsening agrarian crisis. Poor marketing and unavailability of proper prices for the produce of other crops has made the farmers dependent on the current unviable cropping pattern⁷.

Exploitation by Commission Agents

It has been the old practice that the farmers with no auxiliary source of income except agriculture have to rely on credit to fulfill the significant amount of investment required for farm infrastructure, machinery and quality inputs and also their daily expenses. Cooperative societies provide short-term formal loans for seasonal agricultural expenses, but for expenses like motor burn-outs, installation of a submersible pump, and even various household expenses farmers have to depend upon arhtiyas. Farmers have become heavily dependent on commission agents because of urgent need and easily availability of loans at any time of the day. In such conditions, even seemingly routine needs like providing a good education to their children, emergency medical expenses etc. become huge burdens which break the farmer's back, further failure of public education and health institutions such as schools and hospitals to provide efficient services of reasonable quality forces the farmer, like anyone else in general, to look for private alternatives which are costlier. The farmers who take land on lease raised the loan from private money lenders and the commission agents to pay the lease amount because they do not have sufficient income. These commission agents charge very high rate of interest and the farmers

remain under the clutches of these agents. Hence their loan amount because of higher rate of interest is multiplied⁸.

Seasonal Employment

The farmers are not sound fully employed throughout the year and they have seasonal employment and generally they remain unemployed during the lean season. Unemployment and low auxiliary non-farm income opportunities are the other main issues in the state. Mechanization of agriculture means only one family member can manage the agriculture operations, relieving the rest for the state has failed spectacularly in providing alternate employment. The unemployed rural educated youth constitute approximately 54 per cent of the aggregate rural unemployed in the state. Absence of the manufacturing industry is the main reason of unemployment and the fledgling Information Technology (IT) industry is unable to provide jobs to rural educated youth. With such meager non-farm income opportunities, the farmers are solely dependent on agricultural income which is also very low and unreliable. It is very difficult to lead a minimum quality life with such low income for the Punjabi farmers who have traditionally enjoyed a relatively higher standard of living even prior to the heyday of Green Revolution. It should be noted that these farmers have rather munificent socio-cultural norms and traditions, inherited from a plentiful, prosperous past, making the current economic adversity appear more depressing.

Real estate mafia

It has been seen that the seen even fertile land best suited for agricultural is sold to real estate people, who prepare plots and give attractive advertisements to sell at exorbitant price. There is need to implement strict measures to prevent land grabbing.

Social Reasons

A study conducted by the Punjab Agricultural University also supports this problem. As soon as they get into debt, the first thing that comes to their mind is how to repay that debt. They also have to think about how to run their families and what to do with the small piece of land they have. Generally, these farmers have small lands of 1 acre or 2 acre. So, they give this land on lease to bigger farmers or to someone who can give them the produce every year. They can't manage their land themselves. Then they have to look into their children's' education, how to meet daily expanses, medical bills and marriages for their children etc. For girls, they think about getting them married as soon as possible and for boys it is about getting work for them, because for the next generation agriculture is not working out. So, more and more people are stepping out of agriculture. Suicides are just the tip of the ice-berg and there are more people walking out of the agrarian economy. There are some narratives in the book that highlight prevalent social taboos like dowry. It's very heart-wrenching to see that this same old issue is trapping these peasants into more debt. In the women's movement we are not looking at the dowry anymore. How the feminist movement started is different from what it is now. People are still not free from compulsive dowry demands of in-laws. Many suicides are done either in anticipation of a daughter's marriage or due to high demands of dowry. This is a harsh reality which the women's movements need to look into. We are going higher in terms of our consciousness and ideas, but the kinds of oppression which young girls face are still the same as they were 30 or 50 years ago.

Rising healthcare costs

Apart from a meager farm income, rising healthcare costs increase farmer debt, outstanding loans for health reasons have doubled from 3% in 2002 to 6% in 2012, according to a 2015 analysis of NSSO data by the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD). Meanwhile, loans for farm businesses fell by half over a decade, from 58% in 2002 to 29% in 2012, as India Spend reported in July 21, 2015. Nearly half (48%) of overnight trips made by millions of Indians in rural areas are for medical purposes. The corresponding figure for urban areas is 25%. More than half of India's rural population uses private healthcare services, which are four times as costly as public healthcare, and can cost the poorest 20% of Indians more than 15 times their average monthly expenditure, as India Spend reported on July 16, 2016. "In all the farm households I've visited, where people have killed themselves, the single largest component of family debt was health costs," said P Sainath, Ramon Magsaysay Award winner who pioneered farmer suicide reporting in India.

Weather and Climate issues

The weather in India these days has become erratic at best and rainfall does not happen at the right time. Moderate rainfall, which is needed so much for proper agriculture, is now becoming a thing of the past and things have reached the extreme. The situation is especially bad in Central India, which can be regarded as the agricultural heartland of India. In the past three years, the weather patterns have been changing. The situation does not become any better even when there is normal rainfall. 56% of the country depends on snow-fed rivers for its water and in such a situation even marginal fluctuations can have devastating effects. The ambivalence of extremely dry and equally wet conditions often leaves unmitigated devastation in its wake. The problems are further exacerbated by the fact that 85% of precipitation in India happens because of rainfall. Dry spells can be very bad especially during the initial periods of the process of growing crops. If there are sustained repetitions of dry spells then there can be some massive crop loss. Thanks to these conditions, these days even experienced farmers are at a loss when it comes to predicting the right time to sow their crops and the right time to harvest them. The fact that pests, weeds, and diseases are evolving has only added to the farmers' misery. Soil erosion is also a major problem faced by farmers.

Small holding

Majority of the people who have their own land to till have got it from their ancestors. Since more often than not, after the death of a farmer his land is divided among his sons, it leaves precious little for a farmer. This is the reason that the scale of operations here is so small. At the most, it is just a couple of acres. This in turn leads to small income that does not permit processes like mechanization and automation that are needed to stay relevant. This is why the small cultivators have no option but to rely on human labour, which in this day and age is woefully inadequate. At times, thanks to the increasing real estate prices, small farmers that are not doing so well are encouraged to sell their land to realtors and ensure a good life for themselves. This also means that the amount of land available for farming is decreasing thus affecting Indian agriculture in general. The problem of small landholdings is acutely felt in states with high population density like Kerala, Bihar, West Bengal, and eastern Uttar Pradesh. In these states, on an average, farmers have less than a hectare of cultivable land. The situation is different in states such as Rajasthan and Nagaland. In fact, in states like Punjab, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, and Madhya Pradesh the net sown area is more than the

national average. The gap between small farmers, big farmers or landlords, and medium farmers or peasants is huge. India's inheritance laws with its emphasis on fragmentation are problematic in nature. A lot of time and resources are wasted every time a fragmentation happens and it reduces output since it is highly difficult to properly cultivate such small pieces of land. Marking boundaries also means that useful and fertile land gets eaten up in the process. In such circumstances, there is precious little that the farmer can do to improve the produce.

Marketing of products

One of the most crucial problems faced by farmers in India is regarding marketing. The laws in India are outdated and most often a farmer has no option but to sell his produce in regulated markets, where the middlemen are the ones making the maximum gains. At times, they can make up to 75% profits. If the middlemen can be eliminated then the farmers could have sold their products at better rates. On the other hand, the farmers have to be satisfied with the bare minimum. The situation is especially dire in the sugar factories where the weighing scales are always said to be dodgy and it takes a significant time for the farmers to just break even. In some situations the farmers also need to give away their produce for free to the moneylenders. Distress selling in small villages is a pretty common phenomenon as well. The Rural Credit Survey has correctly stated that nothing is favourable for the farmers in terms of time, place or conditions of sale.

Inadequate storage facilities

ASSOCHAM estimates that each year 30-40% of the entire agricultural produce in India is damaged because there are not enough cold storages. In monetary terms, this translates to INR 35,000 crore. Food such as fruits and vegetables enjoy high demand round the year. However, these crops are destroyed due to abnormal rainfall. Farmers who do not have cold storages have to sell their produce as early as possible so that they do not rot. This means they are sold at a loss since supply exceeds demand by some distance. It is very costly and thus impossible for a small farmer to own and operate a cold storage.

Poor quality and costly of seeds, pesticides, and fertilizers

Indian farmers also faced problems of poor quality of seeds, pesticides and fertilizers. Although they are compelled to pay high prices yet the quality seeds pesticides and fertilizers are not available. They purchase the inputs whatever is available in the market. Most of them are not fully aware of judging the quality of inputs. When they used poor quality inputs their production comes down and they cannot save the situations. The health of their soul is deteriorated which ultimately cannot be considered as best suited for raising better crops. Hence they become handicapped in getting good return from the sale of their products.

Lack of awareness

The digital divide, as well as the literacy gap, have made the marginal and small farmers particularly vulnerable due to their inability to utilise the positives of government policies. This is reflected in the continued unsustainable cropping practices like cultivating sugarcane in water-deficit regions.

Water deficiency

It has been observed that assured irrigation facilities are not available with all the farmers. Some of them largely depend upon the monsoons. Due to lack of sufficient water they face the problem

of drought. This situation is very serious in the states of Maharashtra and Karnataka. The farmers depend upon the rainy water and the rain is uncertain. How these farmers may raise better crops with lack of sufficient and assured water.

Defective agriculture policy

There is no denying fact that agriculture policies are framed and reframed for the development for agriculture but it is matter of serious concern that the policies so framed were not best suited for the need and requirements of medium, small and marginal farmers. The policy met with failure in improving the lot of these farmers.

Loan waivers are not a solution

Recently, Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra wrote off loans worth Rs 36,359 crore and Rs 30,000 crore, respectively. India faces a cumulative loan waiver of Rs 3.1 lakh crore (\$49.1 billion), or 2.6% of the country's gross domestic product in 2016-17, IndiaSpend reported on June 15, 2017. However, indebtedness is a symptom and not the root cause of India's farm crisis, according to a 2007 expert group report on agricultural indebtedness. Chaired by economist R Radha Krishna, the group reported that the average farm household borrowing had not been "excessive", and laid the blame on factors such as "stagnation in agriculture, increasing production and marketing risks, institutional vacuum and lack of alternative livelihood opportunities". In his 2016 budget speech, Finance Minister Arun Jaitley had promised to double farmers' income by 2022. "We are grateful to our farmers for being the backbone of the country's food security. We need to think beyond food security and give back to our farmers a sense of income security. Government will, therefore, reorient its interventions in the farm and non-farm sectors to double the income of the farmers by 2022," he had said. Subsequently, Union Minister for Human Resource Development Prakash Javadekar outlined a seven-point strategy to double farm income, which included measures to step up irrigation, provide better quality seeds and prevent post-harvest losses, as Mint reported on June 17, 2017. These efforts face a range of challenges, as India Spend. These include: Increasing costs of farm input such as seeds, fertilisers and irrigation; irrelevance of minimum support price for government procurement; absence of marketing infrastructure such as warehouses and cold storages; and the fact that 85% of farmers do not have insurance.

Clearly, India's farm crisis calls for a multi-pronged solution that addresses each of these challenges, and loan waiver is only one part.

With an ongoing petition in the Supreme Court on farmer suicides, and a growing glamour for farm loan waivers across several states of the country, the debate on farm suicides in India seems to be heating up once again. Several commentators and researchers have claimed for long that farmers are the most distressed group in the country as their suicide rates are higher than that of others, based on their analysis of National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) data. Other researchers have claimed—based on demographic surveys—that farmers are not the most suicide-prone group in the country, and that those who do commit suicide need counseling rather than economic palliatives. As often happens in a sharply polarized debate, the truth perhaps lies in the middle. And it is possible to get a better handle on it thanks to changes in the way NCRB now provides data on suicides. Earlier, NCRB used to provide data on farmer suicides, without specifying whether this included agricultural labourers or just cultivators. Most analysts assumed that the farmer suicide data referred only to cultivators and used population figures of cultivators to arrive at the suicide rates. However, in 2014, NCRB began publishing statistics for both agricultural labourers and farmer-cultivators, and it showed that they had so far been including

suicides by both groups in their classification of farmer suicides. The old estimates had overestimated farm suicides because of the faulty assumption, it now turned out.

A reconstruction of the suicide rates by economists Deepankar Basu and Kartik Misra of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, and Debarshi Das of IIT-Guwahati published last year in the *Economic and Political Weekly* showed that except for Maharashtra and Kerala, the ratio of suicide rates (or the suicide mortality rates, as the researchers describe the rates) for farm-related workers and non-farm-related workers was less than one in all states between 1995 and 2011⁹.

The overall trend of farm-related suicides being lower than non-farm suicide rates seems to hold for the post-2011 period as well, if one normalizes the latest NCRB figures (available till 2015) with estimated population figures. The estimated population figures are based on Central Statistical Organization (CSO) 2016 projection for overall population growth, and on the occupational distribution figures provided by the 2011 census for the distributional split. The latest NCRB figures seem more robust than earlier years, when non-reporting (or zero reported rates of farmer suicides) was a major problem. From 2015 onwards, NCRB also began publishing the reasons for farm suicides. And it shows a stark difference between farmers and non-farmers. While only minorities of suicides by non-farmers are due to economic distress, an overwhelming majority of farmers commit suicides because of economic distress, the data shows. Across states, economic factors such as poverty, bankruptcy, or farming-related issues (crop failures, inability to sell etc.) are the key drivers of farm-related suicides¹⁰.

REMEDIES

From a humanitarian point of view, the tragedy of farmer suicide demands prompt attention. Different governments across time have brought out different short-term solutions that do not address the root causes of the problem and that, therefore, do not reduce suicide risks. Such solutions come in the form of populist “special packages” that are reactionary rather than in the form of preemptive long-term policy. In addition, solutions such as subsidies, loan waivers, crop insurance, and other welfare schemes have failed due to improper implementation. Worse still, knee-jerk reactions such as compensation after suicide have sometimes provided an incentive for suicide.

- Multiple crops Cultivation of multi crops such as coconut, turmeric, pineapple, banana, apple, papaya, ginger will yield profitable results to the farmers.
- Special agricultural zone Just like industrial zone, there is an urgent need to establish special agricultural zones, where only farming and agriculture related activity should be allowed.
- Farmers must necessarily be educated about modern farming techniques and practices. Need to modernize agriculture by introducing farm techniques which guarantee a definite success, an increase in youth participation on agricultural fields is economically possible. This can be attained only by implementing new technologies. Research efforts should continue for the production of crops with higher yield potential and better resistance to pests in Indian agriculture. Technological advancement in agriculture should be passed down to the small farmers. Where the existing crops would not do well under drought and weather conditions, the farmers should be helped to shift to cultivating crops that would be easy and economical to cultivate.
- Educate the farmers Many farmers in India are not aware of crop rotation. Though education in urban areas has improved a lot, the government has ignored the same in rural areas in

general and in agriculture sector in particular. This is the reason why farmers are not adequately aware of the various schemes provided by the government.

- Small and marginal farmers should be encouraged to pool their farmland to leverage the advantages associated with larger land holdings, such as the use of modern and mechanized farming techniques. Clubbing of small fields may help Several farmers who own small piece of land can join together and combine all small fields into one large chunk. This may help in variety of ways. Read About Maharashtra Initiatives On Farmer's Suicide Narendra Modi's Initiative For Poor People, Farmers, Small Businesses, Women & Senior Citizens
- Need for meaningful crop insurance policies Crop insurance is must and the claim should be settled easily under the supervision of the district collectors. Traditional crop insurance depends on the direct measurement of the damage suffered by a farmer to determine his/her payout. However, field loss assessment is often not feasible or expensive, since most of our farmers are small holders. Index based insurance, on the other hand, responds to defined parameter. Index based insurance has the advantages that it is transparent and all the insurers within the defined geographical area are treated equally. It has low operational and transnational costs, while also ensuring quick payouts.
- Water supply for irrigation must be insulated from the vagaries of nature by better water management systems; attention must particularly be paid to rainwater harvesting and resolution of interstate river water sharing disputes. Need for better water management Irrigation facilities that are currently available do not cover the entire cultivable land. Apart from the areas where perennial rivers flow, most of the agricultural fields do not have irrigation facility. In most cases, it is not the lack of water but the lack of proper water management that causes water shortage. Improved modern methods of rain water harvesting should be developed. Water management can be made more effective through interstate co-operation on water resources, where surplus water from perennial rivers can be diverted to the needy areas. Connecting the rivers throughout the country will solve this problem in Indian agriculture. Construction of National Waterways will improve the irrigation facility, which in turn can save the farmers if the monsoon would fail.
- Alternate source of income for farmers Small farmers should be encouraged to develop alternative sources of income and the government should take up the responsibility for providing training to the farmers to acquire new skills. In drought affected areas, the government should start alternative employment generation programs to reduce the dependence on agriculture as the sole source of income. Such programs should be standardized. Farmers should be enabled to divide their activities into three parts. One for regular crop production, one for animal husbandry or fisheries and another for timber production. These activities complement each other and also alternate sources of income of farmers can be ensured.
- Need for national weather risk management system/disease alert system Facilitating national weather risk management system that alerts farmers when there is a danger of extreme weather, would go a long way in reducing losses in Indian agriculture. Value added services like pest and disease alert applications, in combination with the weather forecast would equip the farmers to handle and manage their crops better. For example, Water Watch Cooperative, a Netherlands based organization, has developed a disease alert system that sends an alarm to farmers, if the probability of a pest/disease would be detected. Similarly, systems that detect the amount of water to be provided to a field based on the field water content, biomass, and

rainfall probability, would aid in the optimization of water provision to the crop and ensure efficient crop management.

- Farmers need to be protected from falling into the trap of the spiraling debt, which is the primary risk factor for suicide. For this, farming must be protected from failure and made profitable. Possible policy efforts are listed below; these are not in any specific order, and priorities would depend on circumstances.
- Younger professionals must be encouraged to participate in farming activities
- Farm loans at soft interest rates need to be made available, and loan recovery procedures need to respect human rights; farmers should be discouraged from dealing with private money lenders.
- Fair price for farm products must be ensured, and middlemen eliminated by creating a direct reach for the farmers to the market.
- The government-administered MSP should take into consideration the existing realities to cover the cost of production and to insulate farmers from fluctuating market conditions
- Training needs to be provided for secondary rural investments in dairy farming, poultry farming, animal husbandry, and other activities, with a clearly viable chain apparent from financing to marketing.
- Financially wasteful expenditure arising from unnecessary and even harmful social practices must be discouraged; this includes matters ranging from alcohol use to dowry gifts and large wedding spending. Savings should be encouraged, and saving instruments should be devised for the farming population.
- Storage and food processing units need to be established in rural areas.
- Comprehensive but affordable insurance schemes should be made available, covering farmers and crops from problems at every stage of the crop cycle. There should be a quick, simple, and corruption-free approach to crop damage assessment with disbursement of relief directly into the claimant's bank account.
- The recently announced Pradhan Mantri Farmer Bima Yojana, an improved version of existing schemes such as the National Agricultural Insurance Scheme and the Modified National Agricultural Insurance Scheme, is a step in the right direction although some voices have been raised against it. Organizations such as the Alliance for Sustainable and Holistic Agriculture call it another missed opportunity, citing drawbacks such as noninclusion of tenant farmers, limited coverage, noninclusion of crop damage by wild animals, improper damage assessment methods, and lack of clarity regarding where the claim amount will be deposited (to the farmers' savings account or to the loan account).

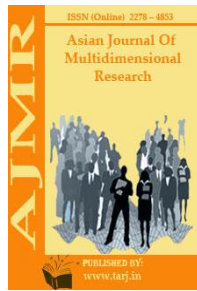
CONCLUSION

The government is extremely much aware of the agrarian crisis and rural suicides. The government knows that the current cropping pattern is not feasible and has put forward the crop-diversification policy. Price stability, marketing facilities and assurance of the sale of the farmers' crops are the preliminary arrangements which the system wants to make available at the ground level if crop diversification is to have any tangible effects on the farmers' troubles. Not only crop diversification, but also diversification of Punjab economy will address the issues of unemployment and low non-farm income. Punjab, beginning with the Green Revolution helped the country during tough times of food scarcity. Now the Central government cannot leave the farmers of Punjab to fend for themselves in their time of crisis. The Centre must give special packages for crop diversification. A policy for creating employment for Punjabi youth must be

in place both from the Centre and the state government. There must be more investment in research and development in the field of agriculture.

REFERENCES

1. Times of India May 3, 2017.
2. The Hindu, June 16, 2017.
3. Ibid.
4. The Tribune, August 17, 2017.
5. The Tribune, February 28, 2018
6. The Tribune, 4 February 2018.
7. Sharma Surbhi, Kaur Samandeep and Chawla Wineet, "*Farmer's suicide in Punjab: Causes and Remedies*", International Journal of Advanced Education and Research, Volume 2, Issue 4, July 2017; pp. 96-97.
8. Ibid.
9. The Hindu, April 30, 2017
10. Hindustan Times July 02, 2017



FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES TRENDS IN TAMIL NADU

Dr. G. Jayachandhran*; N. Prasanna Priya**; A. Thirumalai Selvi***;
A. Stella Nancy****

*Assistant Professor,
Department of Mathematical Economics,
School of Economics, Madurai Kamaraj University,
Madurai, Tamil Nadu, INDIA.
Email id: jeyam_mku@yahoo.com

**Research Scholars,
School of Economics,
Madurai Kamaraj University, Madurai,
Tamilnadu, INDIA.

***Research Scholars,
School of Economics,
Madurai Kamaraj University,
Madurai, Tamilnadu, INDIA.

****Research Scholars,
School of Economics,
Madurai Kamaraj University,
Madurai, Tamilnadu, INDIA.

ABSTRACT

In several developing countries, capital is a scarce factor. The low of level of domestic savings becomes inadequate to meet the investment requirements. As such foreign capital is used in developing countries to promote investment and economic growth. In general, higher level of foreign capital will lead to higher rate of economic growth. However, the degree of relationship between foreign capital and economic growth varies in various developing countries due to the influence of a number of macro-economic variables and the stage of economic development. Sometimes, foreign capital may have its spillover effects in future also. In this paper, an attempt is made to analyze the broad trends in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu. To be more specific this chapter describe the FDI receiving companies in terms of FDI Index, Annual growth rate for following variables; Land & building of the FDI receiving companies, Plant and Machinery, Other Fixed Assist, Depreciation, Raw materials & components, finished and semi -

finished goods, Cash in hand and bank balance, Other current asset, Total current liability, Total Output, Total sales value, total export, Salary and Wages, Total Input, Total Profit (after tax), Import of capital goods, Equity, Income and FDI. This analysis was done using 11 years data over the period from 2006 to 2016 for each variable, depending on the availability of data. Eighty five companies had not received any foreign direct investment till 2016. Hence eighty five companies could not be included for analysis.

KEYWORDS: *Foreign Direct Investment, Index No, Annual Growth Rate, Trend.*

INTRODUCTION

Foreign direct investment (FDI) is believed to provide recipient countries with knowledge transfer as well as capital. The transferred knowledge has a certain public good quality and may spread through non-market mechanisms over the entire economy leading to productivity gains (hereafter productivity spill overs) in domestic firms [Blomstrom 1989]. Expectation of productivity spill overs from knowledge transfer has been a major impetus to policy makers in many countries to provide FDI-friendly regime. In developing countries, policies in favour of FDI have been introduced since the early 1980s. Since then, net inflows of FDI have increased dramatically and FDI has been the most significant part of private capital inflows to developing countries. From 1985 to 2006, for eg; the net FDI inflows to developing countries have increased from 14 of billions of US Dollars to 379 billion of US Dollars, rising more than 25 folds (UNCTAD, 2007). In recent year, FDI inflows have accounted for more than half of the total private capital inflows in developing countries (Ng, 2006).¹

An important outcomes of economic reform process aimed at opening up the economy and embody globalization in 1991 has led to massive increase in Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows to the subcontinent. FDI is a major source of private capital in India. FDI is allowed in almost all sectors, except those of strategic interest such as manufacture of arms and ammunitions. According to the policy, FDI can enter into India in two ways. The first one is automatic route that does not require any approval from either by government or RBI, it includes sectors like power, manufacture of drug and pharmaceutical, road and highways, airports and hotels, tourism. Second route required prior government approval. The list includes important sectors like telecommunications, agricultural sectors, and trading, broadcasting, mining and postal services.²

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) has been a dominant from of technology transfer from developed countries. It is based on the fact that multinational enterprises and its affiliates are an important source of international capital and technology in the Indian manufacturing sectors. The study of India is of particular interest due to the surge in the foreign direct investment inflows witnessed since the onset of large scale economic restructuring in the 90s.³

There has been a growing recognition in India that any credible attempt towards economic reforms must involve up gradation of technology, scale of production and linkages to the increasingly integrated globalization production system chiefly through the participation of transnational corporations. FDI has gained importance globally as an instrument of international economic integration. Foreign direct investment policies along with trade policies have, in fact, become the focus of liberalization efforts in almost every country. Liberalized trade regime along

with an open door foreign investment policy creates pressures to achieve higher levels of efficiency and flexibility at the firm level.⁴

Foreign direct investment refers to inflow of investment in an economy of a country. It is the sum of equity capital, reinvestment of earning, long term and short-term capital. GDP refers to the market value of all final goods and service produced within a country in a given period. It is often considered an indicator of growth and standard of living for country. Inflation when the price of most goods and services continues to rise upward. It is measured by the consumer price index (CPI).⁵

In this paper, an attempt is made to analyze the broad trends in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu. To be more specific this chapter describe the FDI receiving companies in terms of FDI Index, Annual growth rate for following variables; Land & building of the FDI receiving companies, Plant and Machinery, Other Fixed Assist, Depreciation, Raw materials & components, finished and semi -finished goods, Cash in hand and bank balance, Other current asset, Total current liability, Total Output, Total sales value, total export, Salary and Wages, Total Input, Total Profit (after tax), Import of capital goods, Equity, Income and FDI. This analysis was done using 11 years data over the period from 2006 to 2016 for each variable, depending on the availability of data. Eighty five companies had not received any foreign direct investment till 2016. Hence eighty five companies could not be included for analysis.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

FDI theory suggests the existence of two types of production arrangements: vertical integration (Helpman, 1984) and horizontal integration (Horstmann and Markusen, 1992). While the former is likely to facilitate trade because the primary purpose for this kind of FDI is to seek lower cost of production in the host country and then to export goods produced/processed by foreign-funded enterprises (FFE), the latter is a substitute for trade considering that FFEs move their products for exports to host country to obtain market shares (Liu and Shu, 2003). Apart from the direct effects of FDI discussed above, it is believed that there are also indirect effects of FDI on host exports, which means that exports by indigenous companies could also be influenced by FFEs (Helleiner, 1989; Caves, 1996; Zhang and Song, 2000), i.e., spill over effects. Some studies indicated that FDI actually have a positive effect on export performance of host countries, as found in Ireland (O'Sullivan, 1993), Portugal (Cabral, 1995), U.K. (Blake and Pain, 1994) etc. (Ajami and Barniv, 1984; Goldberg and Klein, 1997; Grosse and Trevino, 1996). Pain and Wakelin (1997) yield that the FDI-export relationship can vary in different countries. Besides, disaggregated analyses of FDI's role in specific sectors on exports exist, as shown by Furtan and Holzman (2004). The spill over effects of FDI has been carried out for Indian manufacturing firms and several of them have evidence of positive spill over effects Sidhrthan and Lal, 2004; Behera et al., 2012a; 2012b; and Mondol and Pant, 2014. The effect of FDI on Export Performance has been examined by Banga (2006) and Ghosh and Roy (2013), among others. The effect of FDI on technological choices and technological efforts made by firms has been studied by Kathuria (2008) and Ghosh and Roy (2014). They conclude that U.S. FDI has a positive effect on total agricultural and food product trade, exports and imports between Canada and the U.S.

A corresponding stream of literature examines the impact of increased competition, due to trade, on employment and wages. The impact is found to be industry specific i.e., it has been found that exports are a dominant factor in the employment growth in high-technology and skill-intensive

industries, while import penetration adversely affect employment growth in low-technology, labour-intensive industries (Gera and Massé 1996). Ghose (2000) shows that in case of industrialised countries, growth of manufactured imports from developing countries has a small adverse effect on manufacturing employment but virtually no effect on wages. But, in case of developing countries that have emerged as important exporters of manufactures to industrialised countries a growth in trade has a large positive effect on manufacturing employment and wages. Trade theorists argue that for large changes in technology the pattern of production changes and therefore the net impact on employment and wages may not be evident [Krugman (2000), Xu (2000)]. Studies therefore show that FDI, trade and technology acquisition can impact labour markets in different ways. FDI has the potential to affect the host country's macroeconomic variables like income, investment and employment (Borensztién et al. 1998; Gregario, 2003; Fry, 1993). FDI directly ameliorates production through better technologies, financial capabilities, and provision of state of the art (Luiz and Mello, 1999). It affects level of domestic investment via crowding in and crowding out effect (Agosin and Mayer, 2000). The indirect effects of FDI include spill-over effects (Kokko, 1994). Similarly human capital also has significant long run impact on an economy's income and employment (Romer, 1986; Lucas, 1988; Barro, 1998, Pissarides, 2000; Wilson and Briscoe, 2004). Human capital formation takes place through on the job training, schooling, and other knowledge gained through experience and learning by labour force (Becker, 1974; Blundell, 1999). Investments in human capital affect wages (Constantine and Neumark, 1994; Liu, 2013).

Some of studies consider the effect of foreign entry on indigenous producers operating in the same sector, postulating that foreign entry may result in knowledge spillovers to local firms (which would have a positive effect on the performance of the latter) as well as in local producers losing part of their market share to foreign entrants (which would have a negative effect as local producers would have to spread their fixed cost over a smaller scale of production). Empirical analyses based on firm-level panel data produce mixed results. Aitken and Harrison (1999), Javorcik (2004) and Javorcik and Spatareanu (2008, 2011) find that the overall effect of these two forces is either negative or statistically insignificant, while Haskel et al. (2007) and Keller and Yeaple (2009) find a positive effect. More recently researchers have also analyzed inter-industry effects of foreign entry. Javorcik (2004) finds a positive effect of FDI on local producers in upstream industries in Lithuania. Blalock and Gertler (2008) find a similar pattern in Indonesia and Javorcik and Spatareanu (2008, 2011) in Romania. Kugler (2006) documents a positive effect of FDI inflows on Colombian producers in other sectors, i.e. sectors other than the sector receiving FDI. He considers the pair wise effects between sectors without distinguishing between the effects on downstream versus upstream sectors.

Large number of studies has appeared in the recent years on the impact of FDI on host country firm productivity growth through spillovers. The studies pertain to developed, developing and transition economies using both cross sectional and panel data. The pioneering studies (Caves 1974; Globerman 1979; Blomstrom and Persson 1986) using cross-sectional data mostly found evidence of positive effects. However, these studies were criticised for the reason that they were unable to take into consideration the industry and time effects. The evidence of positive spillover from foreign subsidiaries may be due to the possibility that MNCs tend to invest in high productivity industries.

In an extensive review of studies on spillover effects of FDI, Gorg and Strobl (2001) conclude that *“the results of productivity spillover studies do not seem to be affected by whether the*

studies use sector or firm level data, but that it is important whether the data used are cross-sectional or panel data". Some of the recent studies focusing on inter industry spillovers has found positive effects through backward and forward linkages with the foreign subsidiaries (Schoors and van der Tol (2002) for Hungary; Javorick (2004) for Lithuania; Blalock (2002) for Indonesia). However, some other studies on the linkage effects illustrate mixed results. For example, Yudeva et al (2003) study on Russian manufacturing firms find negative forward and backward linkage effects. Similarly, Merlevede and Schoors (2005) focus on the inter-sectoral effects of spillovers in Romanian firms. They find evidence of positive forward spillovers but backward spillover is found only in the case of export-oriented sectors.

According to some proponents of Foreign Direct investment in early 1980s like (Lall, 1983), the higher the amount of foreign investment a country can attract the bigger portion it can take from global production and income, therefore; its national wealth can increase (Guraks, 2003). Thereby FDI can stimulate the additional resources to break the vicious circle and act as a complementary tool for domestic resources, thus, the relevance of FDI is felt through compensation mechanism in breaking the vicious circle of poverty (Nurkse, 1953). However, Boyd and Smith (1992), Wheeler and Mody (1992) argued to the contrary. According to them, FDI can affect resource allocation and growth negatively where there are price distortions, financial, trade and other forms of distortions existing prior to FDI injections. Nunnenkamp and Spatz (2003) also criticized the view that developing countries should draw on FDI to create economic development. Furthermore, FDI can bring about "Crowding out" which is a scenario where parent companies dominate local markets, thereby stifling local competition and entrepreneurship as a result of "policy chilling" or "regulatory arbitrage" (ECOSOC 2000). Studies on FDI-growth issues in Nigeria include Oyejide (2005) which provided conceptual framework for the analysis of the macroeconomic effects of volatile capital flows. And some researchers like Uwubanmwen and Ajao, (2012), Balasubramanyam, Salisu and Sapsford (1996), Otepolo (2002) and Ogbekor (2005) asserts that FDI contributes more significantly to economic growth with the aid of other macroeconomic variables like trade openness, domestic investment, human capital, interest rate and financial market development in specific country. FDI has come to swamp all other financial flows (World Development Report, 2000). Developing nations like Nigeria have been encouraged by such benefits, to attract FDI inflows. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is one of the most debated topics and core theory of development economics which still keeps its prominent place. The impact of economic integration on the movements of FDI followed by advantages and disadvantages of FDI (Yusop, 1992; Cheng, 2000; Lim, 2000). Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is a key element in international economic integration. FDI creates direct, stable and long-lasting links between economies. It encourages the transfer of technology and know-how between countries, and allows the host economy to promote its products more widely in international markets. Ikiara (2003) suggests that foreign firm may allow local firms to appropriate its technology if this guarantees it access into some of the benefits available in the host country such as access to valuable local technology and possibility of receiving commercial advantages. Oyinlola (1995) and Adelegan (2000) find that FDI in Nigeria is pro-consumption and pro-imports and hence negatively related to gross domestic investment, and hence to growth. Mamun and Nath (2005) argued in support of the modernization theory claiming that FDI plays a dual function by contributing to capital accumulation and by increasing total factor productivity. Balasubramanyam, (1996) and De Mello (1997) concluded that FDI has more growth increasing effects in those countries where the labor force is highly educated and which is following export promotion trade policies rather than

import substitution trade policies. Similarly, Campus (2000) investigates the effects of FDI on 25 transitional economies of the former Soviet bloc their data set provides a more informative assessment of FDI as an engine for the diffusion of technology. Their results approximate Borenztein (1998) that FDI is a significant factor in economic growth. Mayer (2000) argues that the direction of causality depends on the recipient country's trade regime. Zhang (2001) report that FDI promotes economic growth in countries where the domestic infrastructure is well developed and trade and FDI policies are more liberal. Ayanwale and Bamire (2001) find a positive relationship between FDI and economic growth in Nigeria. Moreover, (Hanson 2001) has found weak evidence that FDI generates positive spillovers for host countries. Obwona (2001) notes in his study of the determinants of FDI and their impact on growth in Uganda that macroeconomic and political stability and policy consistency are important parameters determining the flow of FDI into Uganda and that FDI affects growth positively but insignificantly. Nair- Reichert and Weinhold (2001) argue that the effect of FDI on growth is highly heterogeneous across countries and this heterogeneity is more pronounced for more open economies. Hayami, (2001) also argues from economic growth potentials of FDI that there is a strong correlation between FDI and standard of living. Liu, Burrige, and Sinclair (2002), predicted a longitudinal relationship between FDI, trade and the economic growth in China. They found a two-way relationship between FDI, economic growth and import. Wang suggested that manufacturing FDI have positive effect on economic growth and this positive effect is due to spillover effect of FDI (Wang, 2002). Campos and Kinoshita (2002) state that FDI would only have positive effect on economy of the host country if FDI is in the shape of pure technology transfer. De Gregorio (2003), Eke (2003) and Akinlo (2004) in their study found that FDI had positive effect on economic growth. Also, Hermes and Lensink (2003), Carcovic and Levine (2003) investigated and concluded that FDI exerts significant negative effect on the host country. Kentor and Boswell (2003), Nunnenkamp and Spatz (2003) and Durham (2004) in their studies uses different estimation techniques and time frame, their studies reveals that FDI had a significant negative effect on economic growth. Chowdhury & Mavrotas (2006) examine the causal relationship between FDI and economic growth. Furthermore, in (Hansen & Rand 2006), the causal relationship between FDI and GDP is analysed in a sample of 31 developing countries covering the period 1970-2000. One of the studies on this issue was conducted by Fosu and Magnus (2006) examined the causality between FDI and economic growth in Ghana for two different periods (1970-1983 and 1984-2002) produced conflicting results for the periods mentioned.

3. METHODOLOGY

To study the growth and distribution of FDI receiving companies in Tamilnadu data on FDI inflows into Land and building, Plant and machinery, Other fixed assets, Depreciation, Raw material, Finished and semi-finished goods, Cash in hand and bank balances, Other current assets, Total current liabilities, Total output, Total Sale value, Total exports, Salary and wage, Total inputs, Total profits, Import and capital goods, Equity, Income, FDI, of the TamilNadu is require for the present studies. The currently active 85 FDI receiving companies in TamilNadu are included for analysis subject to the availability of data. Therefore, 86 excluding them, the remaining 85 FDI receiving companies are taken for this analysis. The data specified above have been collected for this study mainly from Ministry of corporate affairs (MCA). The time period taken for analysis for this study period is the 11 years period from 2006 to 2016. The growth and distribution of FDI has been studied through trend analysis.

4.1 FDI inflows into Land and Building

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into land and building in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.1 during the period from 2006-2016. FDI the inflows into land and building have grown with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into land and building has increased from 111 crores of rupees in 2006 to

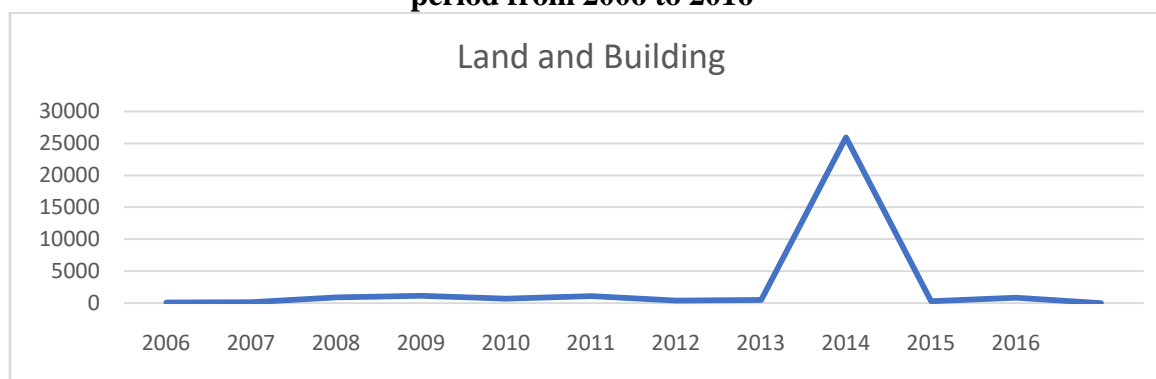
TABLE NO 4.1:- LAND AND BUILDING FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016 [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Land and Building | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|
| 2006 | 111 | 99.60649054 | – |
| 2007 | 135 | 121.1859042 | 21.57941 |
| 2008 | 888 | 799.9977633 | 560.1409 |
| 2009 | 1136 | 1023.497959 | 27.9376 |
| 2010 | 720 | 648.2954527 | -36.6588 |
| 2011 | 1118 | 1007.634149 | 55.42823 |
| 2012 | 414 | 373.0796265 | -62.9747 |
| 2013 | 491 | 442.5302532 | 18.6155 |
| 2014 | 25960 | 23387.65766 | 5184.985 |
| 2015 | 289 | 259.9689136 | -98.8884 |
| 2016 | 846 | 761.9770839 | 193.1032 |
| Average | 2918.91 | | 66.22 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

Touch the Highest level of 25960 cores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 289 crores of rupees in 2015. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 5184.99 per cent in 2014 and -98.89 per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the annual average value of land and building and Linear Growth rate was works out to 2918.91 crores of rupees and 66.22per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.1:- Land and Building for FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016



4.2 FDI inflows into Plant and machinery

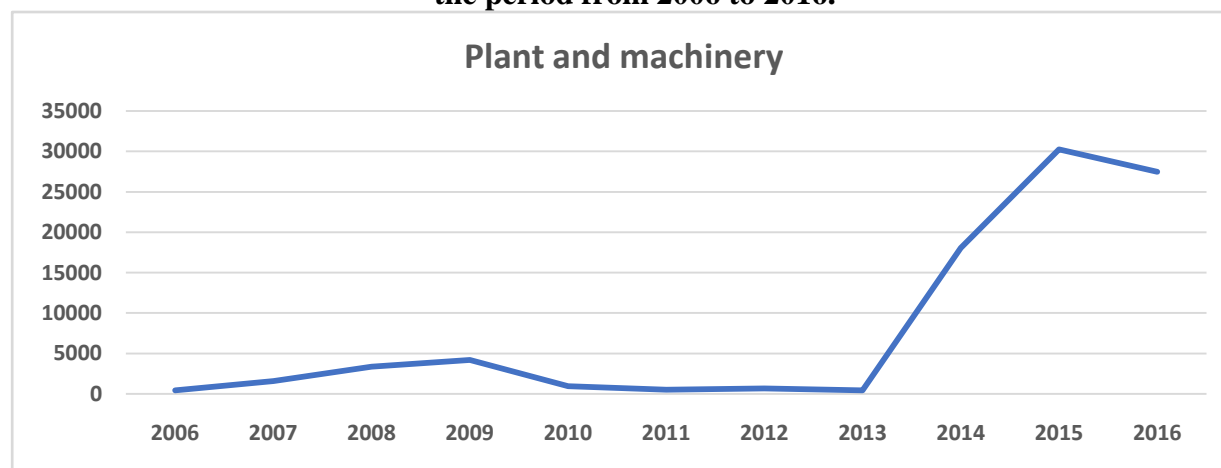
The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into plant and machinery in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.2 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into plant and machinery have growth sizeably. The value of FDI inflows into Plant

TABLE NO 4.2:- PLANT AND MACHINERY FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Plant and machinery | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 2006 | 439 | 100.010814 | - |
| 2007 | 1585 | 361.08264 | 261.0436 |
| 2008 | 3364 | 766.242773 | 112.207 |
| 2009 | 4220 | 961.235798 | 25.44794 |
| 2010 | 972 | 221.444709 | -76.9625 |
| 2011 | 524 | 119.368125 | -46.0957 |
| 2012 | 672 | 153.027175 | 28.19769 |
| 2013 | 443 | 100.987152 | -34.007 |
| 2014 | 18067 | 4115.53531 | 3975.306 |
| 2015 | 30260 | 6892.91572 | 67.48528 |
| 2016 | 27507 | 6265.89977 | -9.09653 |
| Average | 8004.82 | | 616.58 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 and Machinery has increased from 439 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch 4220 Crores of Rupees in 2009 than it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 443 crore crores of rupees in 2013 and then it suddenly raised to reach high level of 30260 crores of Rupees in 2015. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 3975.31 per cent in 2014 and -76.96 per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the average annual value of Plant and Machinery and average annual Growth rate works out to 8004.82 crores of rupees and 616.58 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.2:- Plant and machinery for FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.3 FDI inflows into Other fixed assets

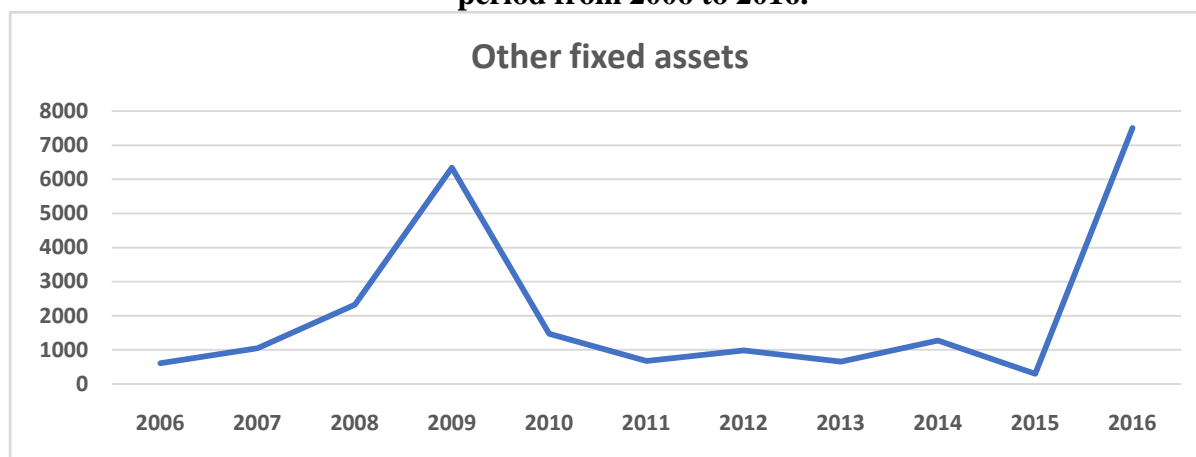
The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into other fixed assets for FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.3 during the period from 2006 to 2016. FDI the inflows into other fixed assets has grown considerably with flexcivationthroughoutthe period. The value of FDI inflows into other fixed assets has increased from 605 crores of rupees in2006 to 6343 crores of Rupees in 2009 then it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 295 crores of rupees in 2015 and then it suddenly increased to touch high level of 7503 crores of Rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 2444.43 per cent in 2016 and -76.87 per cent in 2010. During the same time period, the average annual value of other fixed assets and average annual growth rate works out to 2104.09 crores of rupees and 114.02 per cent respectively.

TABLE NO 4.3:- OTHER FIXED ASSETS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Other fixed assets | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|--------------------|----------|---------------|
| 2006 | 605 | 99.93867 | - |
| 2007 | 1044 | 172.6042 | 42.0995 |
| 2008 | 2321 | 383.6714 | 122.284 |
| 2009 | 6343 | 1048.486 | 173.277 |
| 2010 | 1467 | 242.5138 | -76.8701 |
| 2011 | 669 | 110.5079 | -54.4323 |
| 2012 | 978 | 161.6543 | 46.28295 |
| 2013 | 652 | 107.8397 | -33.2899 |
| 2014 | 1268 | 209.5277 | 94.29552 |
| 2015 | 295 | 48.7418 | -76.7373 |
| 2016 | 7503 | 1240.201 | 2444.43 |
| Average | 2104.09 | | 114.02 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

Figure no 4.3:- Other fixed assets for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.4 FDI inflows into Depreciation

The data on growth trend of depreciation in FDI receiving companies for Tamil Nadu given the table 4.4 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The value depreciation has grown sizeably with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into depreciation has increased from 20102 crores of rupees in 2007 to touch the highest level of 3159410

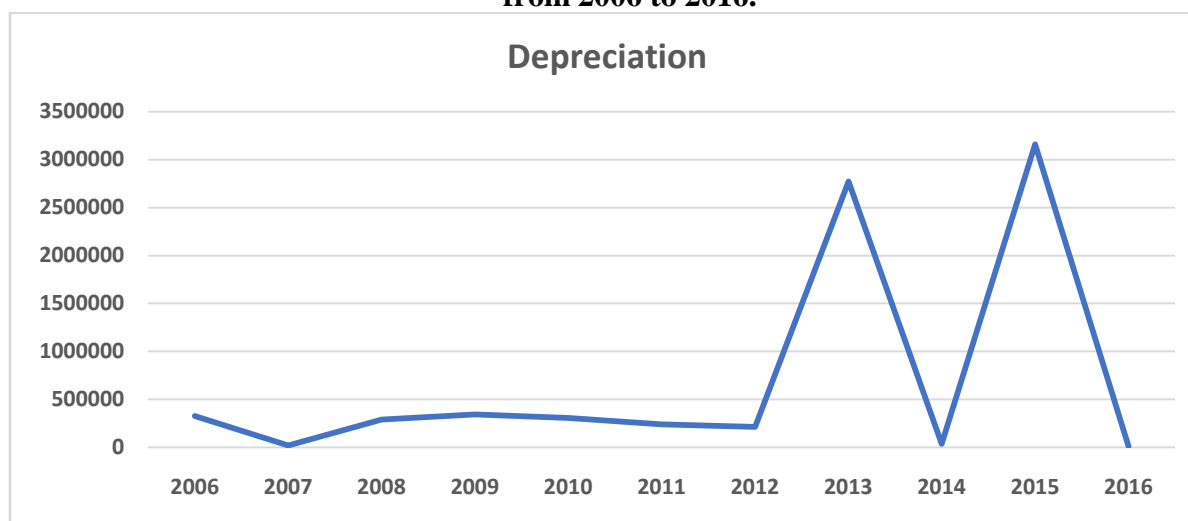
TABLE NO 4.4:- DEPRECIATION FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Depreciation | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|------------------|----------|-------------|
| 2006 | 324870 | 100.0001 | - |
| 2007 | 20102 | 6.187792 | -93.8122 |
| 2008 | 291346 | 89.68077 | 1349.318 |
| 2009 | 343791 | 105.8241 | 18.0009 |
| 2010 | 305828 | 94.13865 | -11.0424 |
| 2011 | 240919 | 74.15853 | -21.2241 |
| 2012 | 213886 | 65.83755 | -11.2205 |
| 2013 | 2770944 | 852.9394 | 1195.521 |
| 2014 | 34937 | 10.7541 | -98.7392 |
| 2015 | 3159410 | 972.5151 | 8943.204 |
| 2016 | 9489 | 2.920829 | -0.997 |
| Average | 701411.09 | | 9.71 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 crores of rupees in 2015 and then it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 9489 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 8943.20 per cent in 2015 and -98.74 per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the annual average value of depreciation and average

annual average growth rate works out to 701411.09 crores of rupees and 9.71 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.4:- Depreciation for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.5 FDI inflows into Raw materials

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into raw materials & components in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.5 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into raw materials & components has grown sizeably with flexicvation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into raw materials & components has decreased from 55525 crores of rupees in 2007 to touch the low level of 15440crores of rupee

TABLE NO 4.5:- RAW MATERIALS AND COMPONENTS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Raw materials & components | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|----------------------------|----------|-------------|
| 2006 | 18214 | 99.99878 | - |
| 2007 | 55525 | 304.8485 | 204.8522 |
| 2008 | 50944 | 279.6957 | -8.25091 |
| 2009 | 13616 | 74.75521 | -73.2727 |
| 2010 | 15440 | 84.77088 | 13.39796 |
| 2011 | 38889 | 213.5134 | 151.8711 |
| 2012 | 1566337 | 8599.63 | 3927.677 |
| 2013 | 490017 | 2690.33 | -68.7157 |
| 2014 | 53655 | 294.5831 | -89.0503 |
| 2015 | 64363 | 353.3695 | 19.95582 |
| 2016 | 38 | 0.209866 | -99.9406 |
| Average | 215185.27 | | 9.98 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

of rupees in 2010 than it started showing an increasing trend to reach high value of 1566337 crores of rupees in 2012 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach low level of 38 crores of Rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate

was 3927.68 per cent in 2012 and -99.94 per cent in 2016. During the same time period, the annual average value of Raw materials and annual average growth rate works out to 215185.27 crores of rupees and 9.98 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.5:- Raw materials and components for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.6 FDI inflows into Raw materials

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into finishes and semi-finishes goods in FDI receiving companies for Tamil Nadu given the table 4.6 during the period from 2006-2016. FDI the inflows into finishes and semi-finishes goods have grown sizeably. The value of FDI inflows into finishes and semi-finishes goods has increased from 131 crores of rupees in 2006

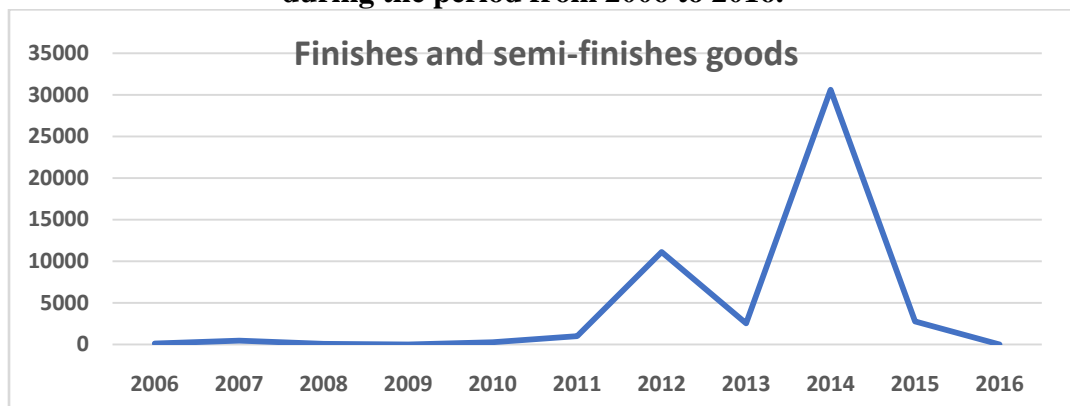
TABLE NO 4.6:- FINISHES AND SEMI-FINISHES GOODS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Finishes and semi-finishes goods | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|----------------------------------|----------|-------------|
| 2006 | 131 | 99.90965 | - |
| 2007 | 465 | 355.1641 | 255.4853 |
| 2008 | 85 | 64.74211 | -81.7712 |
| 2009 | 0 | 0 | -100 |
| 2010 | 256 | 195.1714 | - |
| 2011 | 1005 | 767.2514 | 293.1166 |
| 2012 | 11109 | 8480.165 | 1005.265 |
| 2013 | 2532 | 1932.509 | -77.2114 |
| 2014 | 30633 | 23384.04 | 1110.035 |
| 2015 | 2776 | 2119.102 | -90.9378 |
| 2016 | 12 | 9.125896 | -99.5694 |
| Average | 4454.91 | | 9.08 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 to touch the highest level of 30633 crores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 12 crores of

rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 1110.04 per cent in 2014 and -100 per cent in 2009. During the same time period, the average annual value of Finishes and Semi-finishes goods and average annual growth rate works out to 4454.91 crores of rupees and 9.08 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.6:- Finishes and semi-finishes goods for FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.7 FDI inflows into Cash in hand and bank balances

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into cash in hand and bank balances in FDI receiving companies for Tamil Nadu given the table 4.7 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI the inflows into cash in hand and bank balances have grown considerably. The value of FDI inflows into cash in hand and bank balances has increased from 4372 crores of rupees

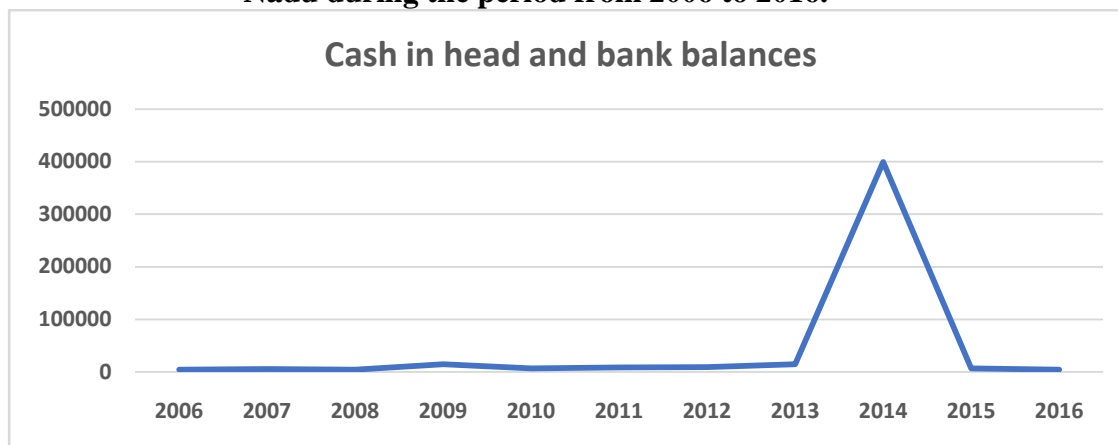
TABLE NO 4.7:- CASH IN HAND AND BANK BALANCES FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Cash in hand and bank balances | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|--------------------------------|----------|-------------|
| 2006 | 4372 | 100.0066 | - |
| 2007 | 5728 | 131.0216 | 31.01291 |
| 2008 | 4560 | 104.2971 | -20.397 |
| 2009 | 14859 | 339.8765 | 225.8734 |
| 2010 | 6598 | 150.9171 | -55.5965 |
| 2011 | 8769 | 200.581 | 32.90811 |
| 2012 | 9296 | 212.6194 | 6.001756 |
| 2013 | 14713 | 336.5371 | 58.28142 |
| 2014 | 399258 | 9132.159 | 2613.567 |
| 2015 | 6844 | 156.5528 | -98.2857 |
| 2016 | 4465 | 102.1178 | -34.771 |
| Average | 43587.45 | | 0.21 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

in 2006 to touch the highest level of 399258 crores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing declining trends to reach minimum value of 4465 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 2613.57 per cent in 2014 and -98.29 per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the average annual value of Cash in hand and linear growth rate works out to 43587.45 crores of rupees and 0.21 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.7:- Cash in hand and bank balances for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.8 FDI inflows into Other current assets

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into other current assets in FDI receiving companies for Tamil Nadu given the table 4.8 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI

Table no 4.7:- Cash in hand and bank balances for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016. [Crores in Rupees]

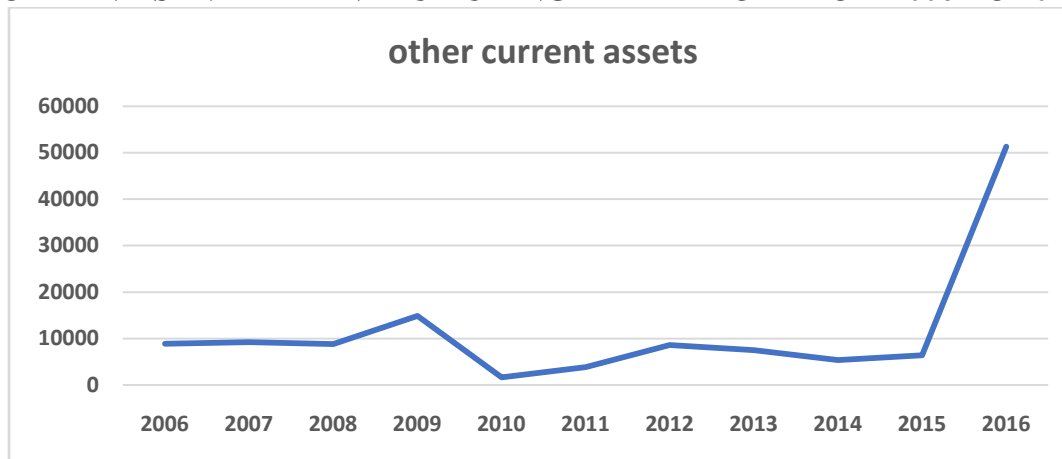
| Year | Other current assets | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|----------------------|----------|--------------|
| 2006 | 8855 | 99.99995 | - |
| 2007 | 9203 | 103.929 | 3.929094 |
| 2008 | 8844 | 99.87044 | -3.90517 |
| 2009 | 14904 | 168.306 | 68.52439 |
| 2010 | 1645 | 18.57261 | -88.965 |
| 2011 | 3847 | 43.44946 | 133.9438 |
| 2012 | 8632 | 97.47706 | 124.3458 |
| 2013 | 7495 | 84.64118 | -13.1681 |
| 2014 | 5395 | 60.92436 | -28.0204 |
| 2015 | 6381 | 72.05567 | 18.27071 |
| 2016 | 51352 | 579.9255 | 704.8298 |
| Average | 11504.81 | | 47.99 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

inflows into other current assets have flexible variation throughout the study period. The value of FDI inflows into other current assets has increased from 1645 crores of rupees in 2010 to touch

the highest level of 51352 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 704.83 per cent in 2016 and -88.97 per cent in 2010. During the same time period, the average annual value of other current assets and linear growth rate works out to 11504.81 crores of rupees and 47.99 per cent respectively.

TABLE NO 4.7:- CASH IN HAND AND BANK BALANCES FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016.



4.8 FDI inflows into Total current liabilities

The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into total current liabilities in FDI receiving companies for Tamil Nadu given the table 4.9 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI the inflows into total current liabilities have grown with flexicvation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into total current liabilities has varied between from 3845 crores of rupees in 2013 and 190445 crores of rupees in 2009. The same time period the highest and the

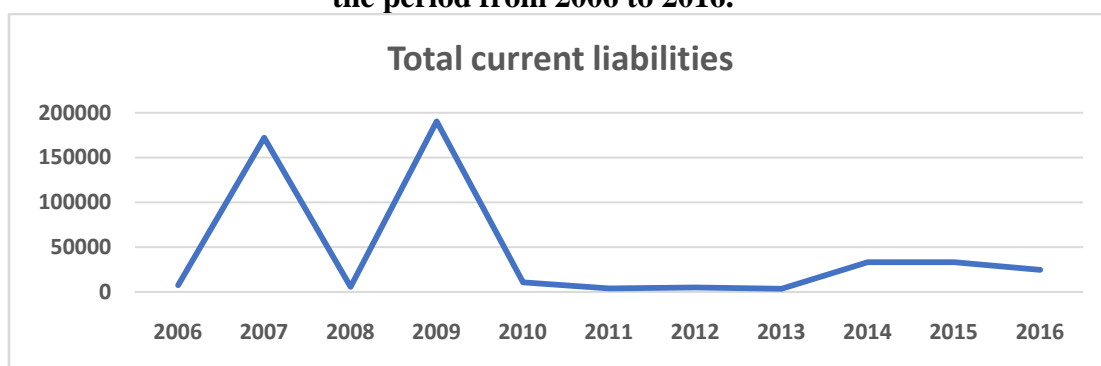
TABLE NO 4.8:- TOTAL CURRENT LIABILITIES FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016.[CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Total current liabilities | Index No | AGR |
|------|---------------------------|----------|----------|
| 2006 | 7620 | 99.99702 | - |
| 2007 | 172410 | 2262.598 | 2162.666 |
| 2008 | 5892 | 77.31814 | -96.5828 |
| 2009 | 190445 | 2499.278 | 3132.461 |
| 2010 | 10856 | 142.4685 | -94.2996 |
| 2011 | 4089 | 53.66744 | -62.3303 |
| 2012 | 5102 | 66.95353 | 24.75633 |
| 2013 | 3845 | 50.4612 | -24.6325 |
| 2014 | 33516 | 439.8412 | 771.6424 |
| 2015 | 33342 | 437.5564 | -0.51945 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|----------|--------------|
| 2016 | 24907 | 326.8635 | -25.298 |
| Average | 44729.45 | | 32.69 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 Lowest annual growth rate was 3132.46 per cent in 2009 and -96.58 per cent in 2008. During the same time period, the average annual of Total current liabilities and linear growth rate works out to 44729.45 crores of rupees and 32.69 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.8:- Total current liabilities for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.3.9. FDI inflows into Value of output

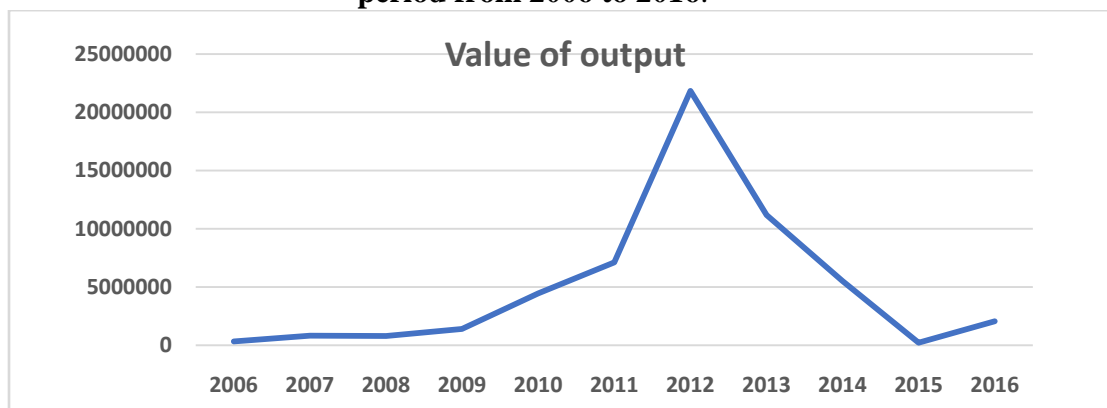
The data on growth trend of FDI inflows into Value of output for FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.10 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into Value of output have flexible variation throughout the study period. The value of output has increased from 350821 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the highest level of

TABLE NO 4.9:- VALUE OF OUTPUT FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Value of output | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|-------------|
| 2006 | 350821 | 100 | - |
| 2007 | 844884 | 240.8305 | 140.8305 |
| 2008 | 803550 | 229.0483 | -4.89233 |
| 2009 | 1401985 | 399.6298 | 74.47403 |
| 2010 | 4466292 | 1273.097 | 218.5691 |
| 2011 | 7111939 | 2027.227 | 59.23587 |
| 2012 | 21849431 | 6228.085 | 207.2219 |
| 2013 | 11183152 | 3187.709 | -48.8172 |
| 2014 | 5521291 | 1573.82 | -50.6285 |
| 2015 | 228465 | 65.12296 | -95.8621 |
| 2016 | 2056506 | 586.1981 | 800.1405 |
| Average | 5074392.36 | | 8.29 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 21849431 crores of rupees in 2012 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of 228465 crores of rupees in 2015. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 800.15 per cent in 2012 and -95.86 per cent in 2016. During the same time period, the average annual value of output and linear growth rate works out to 5074392.36 crores of rupees and 8.29 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.9:- Value of output for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.3.10 FDI inflows into Total sales value

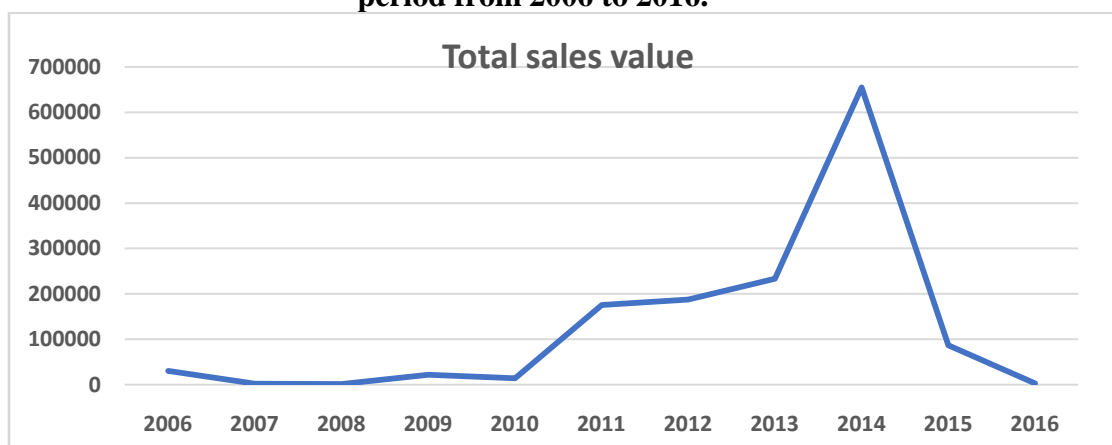
The data on growth trend of Total sales value in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given in table 4.11 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into total sales value have considerably fluctuated throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into total sales value has increased from 30304 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the lowest

Table no 4.10:- Total sales value for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016. [Crores in Rupees]

| Year | Total sales value | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|---------------|
| 2006 | 30304 | 99.99908 | |
| 2007 | 2241 | 7.393721 | -92.6062 |
| 2008 | 1395 | 4.604104 | -37.7295 |
| 2009 | 22150 | 73.0942 | 1487.588 |
| 2010 | 13903 | 45.87721 | -37.2355 |
| 2011 | 175581 | 579.3995 | 1162.935 |
| 2012 | 187617 | 619.1161 | 6.854792 |
| 2013 | 233190 | 769.5019 | 24.29041 |
| 2014 | 655073 | 2161.671 | 180.9182 |
| 2015 | 86944 | 286.9071 | -86.7275 |
| 2016 | 2884 | 9.518493 | -96.6824 |
| Average | 128298.36 | | -95.08 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 level of 1395 crores of rupees in 2008 and then it started showing increasing trends to reach highest level of 655073 crores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum level of 2884 crores of Rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 1487.59 per cent in 2009 and -96.68 per cent in 2016. During the same time period, the average annual value of sales and Linear growth rate works out to 128298.36 crores of rupees and -95.08 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.10:- Total sales value for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.11. FDI inflows into Total sales value

The data on growth trend of FDI Value of exports in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.12 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI the inflows into Value of exports have grown sizeably during the period from 2009 to 2013. The value of exports has increased from 8516 crores of rupees in 2009 to touch the highest level of 32675719 crores of rupees in 2013 and then it started showing declining trend to reach

TABLE NO 4.11:- VALUE OF EXPORTS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

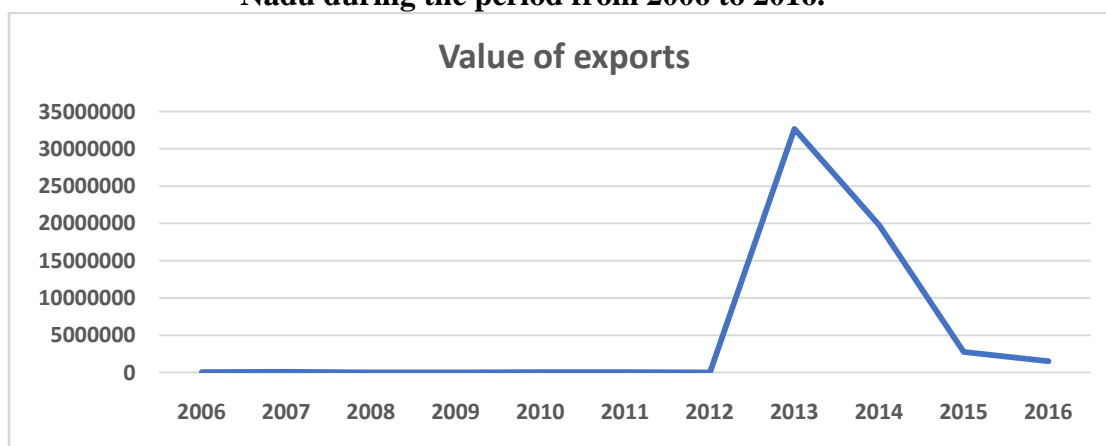
| Year | Value of exports | Index No | AGR |
|------|------------------|----------|----------|
| 2006 | 60186 | 100.0007 | - |
| 2007 | 85216 | 141.588 | 41.587 |
| 2008 | 12287 | 20.41473 | -85.5816 |
| 2009 | 8516 | 14.14989 | -30.6878 |
| 2010 | 44126 | 73.3159 | 418.1375 |
| 2011 | 43899 | 72.93949 | -0.51341 |
| 2012 | 24948 | 41.45068 | -43.1711 |
| 2013 | 32675719 | 54291.23 | 130877.9 |
| 2014 | 19746023 | 32808.33 | -39.5697 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|--------------|
| 2015 | 2757117 | 4580.995 | -86.0371 |
| 2016 | 1528262 | 2539.232 | -44.5703 |
| Average | 5180572.64 | | 96.06 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

Minimum value of 1528262 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 130877.9 per cent in 2013 and -86.04 per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the average annual value of Exports and Linear growth rate works out to 5180572.64 crores of rupees and 96.06 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.11:- Value of exports for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.12. FDI inflows into Salaries & wages

The data on growth trend of Salaries & wages in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.13 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into Salaries & wages have grown with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into Salaries & wages has increased from 24113 crores of rupees in 2010 to touch the highest level of 25279332crores of rupees in 2015 and then it started showing declining trend to

TABLE NO 4.12:- SALARIES & WAGES FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

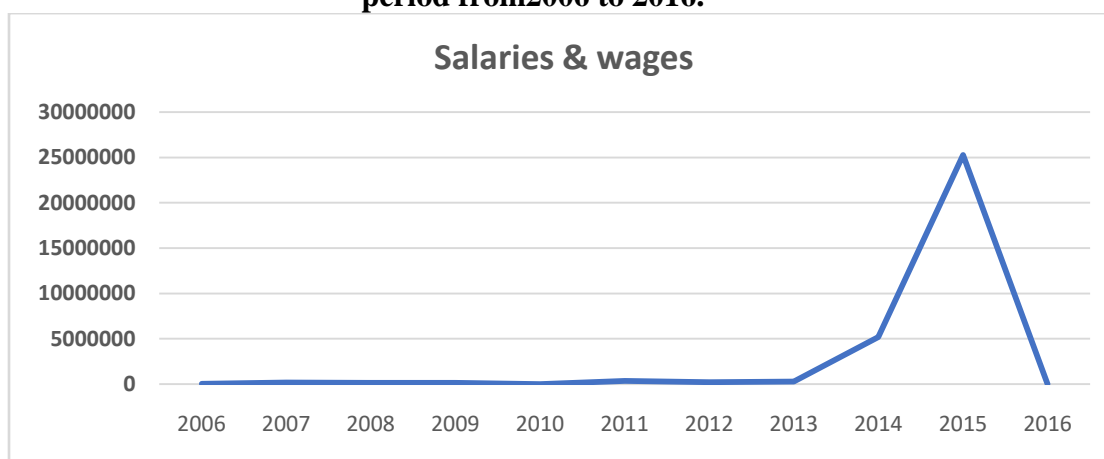
| Year | Salaries & wages | Index No | AGR |
|------|------------------|----------|----------|
| 2006 | 44565 | 1.000011 | - |
| 2007 | 176454 | 3.959475 | 295.9431 |
| 2008 | 157685 | 3.538322 | -10.6366 |
| 2009 | 152167 | 3.414503 | -3.49938 |
| 2010 | 24113 | 0.541073 | -84.1537 |
| 2011 | 361638 | 8.114838 | 1399.769 |
| 2012 | 232552 | 5.218262 | -35.6948 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|--------------|
| 2013 | 295838 | 6.638338 | 27.21358 |
| 2014 | 5206887 | 116.838 | 1660.05 |
| 2015 | 25279332 | 567.2463 | 385.498 |
| 2016 | 10410 | 0.233581 | -99.9588 |
| Average | 2903785.55 | | -7.66 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

Reach minimum value of 10410 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 1660.05 per cent in 2014 and -99.96 per cent in 2016. During the same time period, the average annual value of Salary & Wages Linear growth rate works out to 2903785.55 crores of rupees and -7.66 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.12:- Salaries & wages for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.13. FDI inflows into Value of total inputs

The data on growth trend of Value of total inputs in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.14 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into Value of total inputs have grown with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into

TABLE NO 4.13:- VALUE OF TOTAL INPUTS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

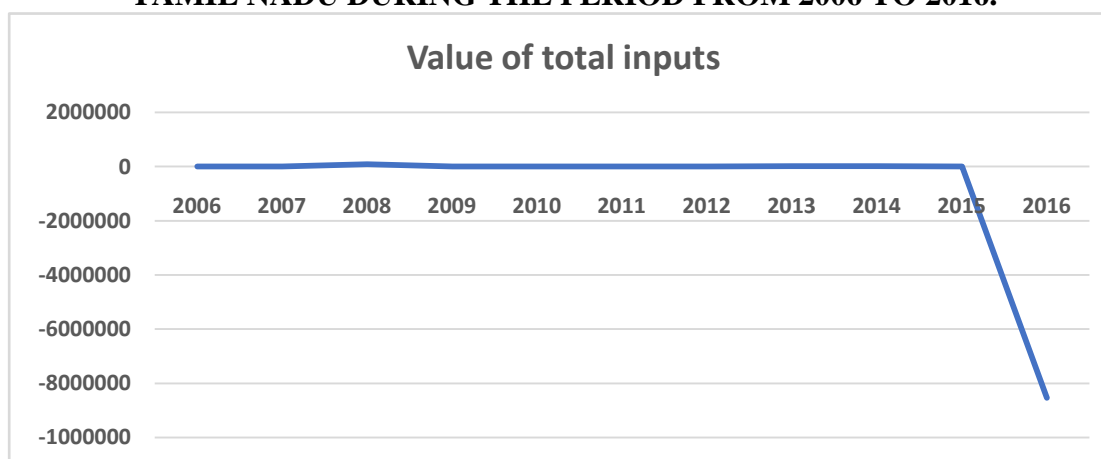
| Year | Value of total inputs | Index No | AGR |
|------|-----------------------|----------|----------|
| 2008 | 83331 | 99.99962 | - |
| 2009 | 5977 | 7.173034 | -92.8269 |
| 2010 | 4075 | 4.889682 | -31.8324 |
| 2011 | 62 | 0.074567 | -98.475 |
| 2012 | 3515 | 4.218319 | 5557.052 |
| 2013 | 17940 | 21.52837 | 410.3543 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|------------------|
| 2014 | 18142 | 21.77142 | 1.128953 |
| 2015 | 168 | 0.201692 | -99.0736 |
| 2016 | -8540476 | -10248.9 | -5081549 |
| Average | -764296.91 | | 101488.58 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

Value of total inputs has start from 83331 crores of rupees in 2008 and the value of total inputs has decrease to reach 62 crores of rupees in 2011 to touch the highest level of 18142crores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of -8540476 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 5557.05 per cent in 2012 and -5081549 per cent in 2016. During the same time period, the average annual value of total inputs and average growth rate works out to -764296.91 crores of rupees and 101488.58 per cent respectively.

TABLE NO 4.13:- VALUE OF TOTAL INPUTS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016.



4.14. FDI inflows into Profit

The data on growth trend of Profit in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.15 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into Profit have grown with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into profit has increased

TABLE NO 4.14:- PROFIT (PROFIT AFTER TAX) FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

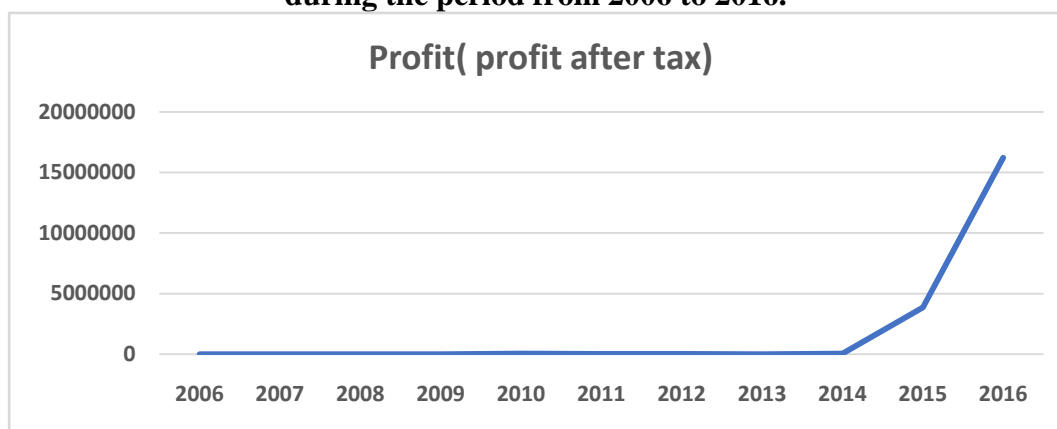
| Year | Profit(profit after tax) | Index No | AGR |
|------|---------------------------|----------|----------|
| 2006 | 470 | 99.9621 | - |
| 2007 | 5535 | 1177.706 | 1078.153 |
| 2008 | 6243 | 1328.304 | 12.78739 |
| 2009 | 6428 | 1367.741 | 2.968947 |
| 2010 | 55850 | 11883.03 | 768.8071 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|------------------|
| 2011 | 18436 | 3922.554 | -66.9903 |
| 2012 | 27776 | 5909.7 | 50.6595 |
| 2013 | 1917 | 407.8252 | -93.0991 |
| 2014 | 54780 | 11655.33 | 2757.922 |
| 2015 | 3863126 | 821941.8 | 6952.069 |
| 2016 | 16217461 | 3450524 | 319.8015 |
| Average | 1841634.27 | | 345042.36 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

From 470 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the highest level of 27776 crores of rupees in 2012 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of 1917 crores of rupees in 2013. And then its start increased and to touch the highest value of 16217461 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 6952.07 per cent in 2015 and 2.97 per cent in 2009. During the same time period, the average annual profit and average growth rate works out to 1841634.27 crores of rupees and 345042.36 percent respectively.

Figure no 4.14:- Profit (profit after tax) for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.15 FDI inflows into Import of capital goods

The data on growth trend on FDI Import of capital goods in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.16 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI the inflows into Import of capital goods have sizeably flexcivation throughout the period. First it was decreasing from

TABLE NO 4.15:- IMPORT OF CAPITAL GOODS FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

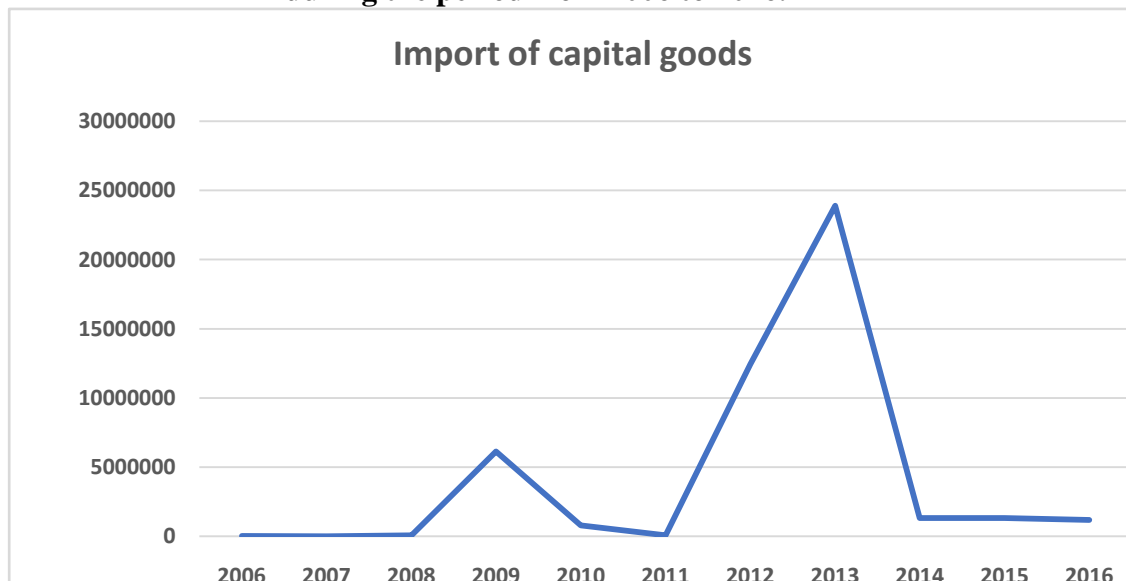
| Year | Import of capital goods | Index No | AGR |
|------|-------------------------|----------|----------|
| 2006 | 34673 | 99.99964 | - |
| 2007 | 14361 | 41.41732 | -58.5825 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|--------------|
| 2008 | 83385 | 240.4904 | 480.6519 |
| 2009 | 6134422 | 17692.21 | 7256.723 |
| 2010 | 794306 | 2290.85 | -87.0516 |
| 2011 | 92192 | 265.8903 | -88.3934 |
| 2012 | 12447288 | 35899.08 | 13401.47 |
| 2013 | 23880448 | 68873.33 | 91.85262 |
| 2014 | 1326626 | 3826.108 | -94.4447 |
| 2015 | 1326863 | 3826.79 | 0.017819 |
| 2016 | 1182406 | 3410.163 | -10.8871 |
| Average | 46242055.5 | | 82.75 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

2007 and again it starts increasing in 2008. After two years declining growth trend and then its start increasing in 2010 and 2011the its start increasing trend from the year 2012 to 2013. From 2014 on words its start declines. The value of FDI inflows into Import of capital goods has increased from 34673 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the highest level of 23880448crores of rupees in 2013 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of 14361 crores of rupees in 2007. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 13401.47 per cent in 2012 and -94.44 per cent in 2014. During the same time period, the annual growth rate of import of capital goods growth rate works out to 46242055.5 crores of rupees and 82.75 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.15:- Import of capital goods for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.16. FDI inflows into Equity

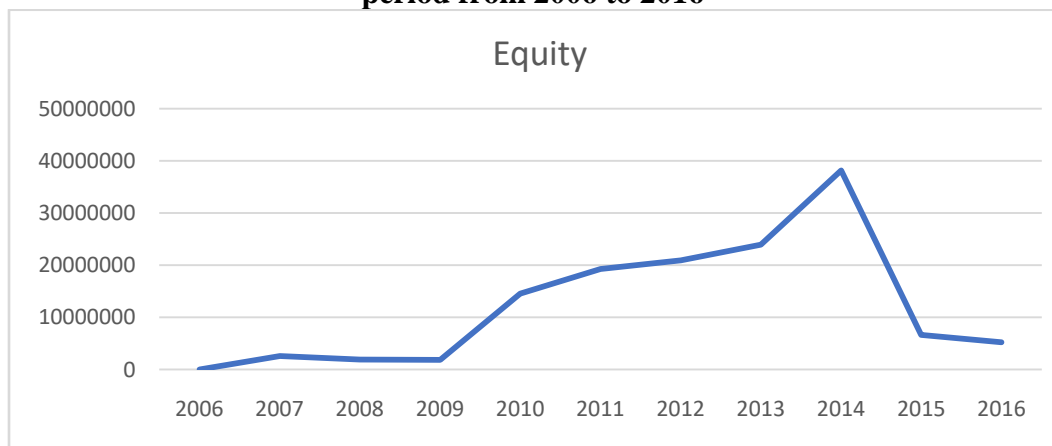
The data on growth trend of Equity in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.17 during the period from 2006 to 2016. FDI the inflows into Equity have flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into Equity has increased from 1905124 crores of rupees in 2009 to touch the highest level of 38154605crores of rupees in 2014 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of 5258219 crores of rupees

TABLE NO: 4.16:- TOTAL EQUITY FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016 [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Equity | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|----------------|
| 2006 | 44659 | 100.0003 | - |
| 2007 | 2589916 | 5799.314 | 5699.296 |
| 2008 | 1929182 | 4319.805 | -25.5118 |
| 2009 | 1905124 | 4265.934 | -1.24705 |
| 2010 | 14582172 | 32652.26 | 665.4187 |
| 2011 | 19266376 | 43141.08 | 32.12282 |
| 2012 | 20928430 | 46862.74 | 8.626707 |
| 2013 | 23927181 | 53577.51 | 14.3286 |
| 2014 | 38154605 | 85435.42 | 59.46135 |
| 2015 | 6653865 | 14899.27 | -82.5608 |
| 2016 | 5258219 | 11774.15 | -20.975 |
| Average | 12294520.8 | | 1167.42 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 In 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 5699.29 per cent in 2007 and -82.57per cent in 2015. During the same time period, the average annual equity and annual growth rate works out to 12294520.8 crores of rupees and 1167.42 per cent respectively.

Figure no: 4.16:- Total Equity for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016



4.17 FDI inflows into Income

The data on growth trend of FDI Income in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.18 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI the inflows into Income have continues flexcivation through the period. The value of FDI inflows into Income has increased from 2347039 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the highest level of

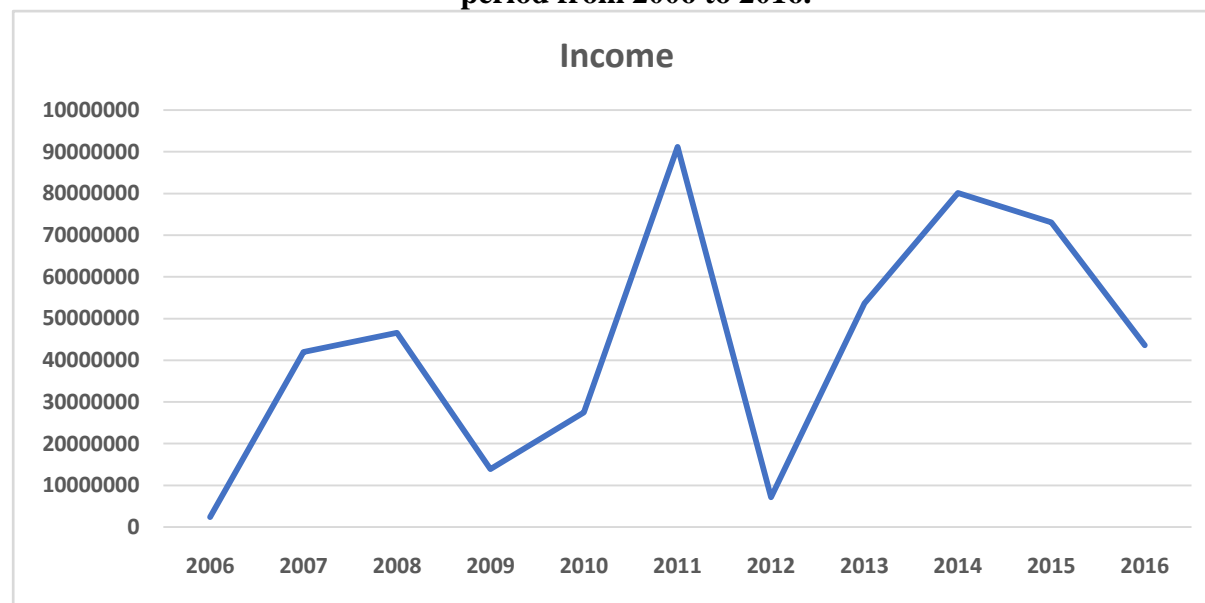
TABLE NO: 4.17:-TOTAL INCOME FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | Income | Index No | AGR |
|----------------|-------------------|----------|---------------|
| 2006 | 2347039 | 99.99999 | |
| 2007 | 41989658 | 1789.048 | 1689.048 |
| 2008 | 46587128 | 1984.932 | 10.94905 |
| 2009 | 13886485 | 591.6598 | -70.1924 |
| 2010 | 27431228 | 1168.759 | 97.53902 |
| 2011 | 91192844 | 3885.442 | 232.4417 |
| 2012 | 7140500 | 304.2344 | -92.1699 |
| 2013 | 53629393 | 2284.981 | 651.0594 |
| 2014 | 80131356 | 3414.147 | 49.41686 |
| 2015 | 73059729 | 3112.847 | -8.82504 |
| 2016 | 43557286 | 1855.84 | -40.3813 |
| Average | 43722967.8 | | 175.58 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017

91192844crores of rupees in 2011 and then it started showing a declining trend to reach minimum value of 2347039 crores of rupees in 2006. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 1689.05 per cent in 2007 and -92.17per cent in 2012. During the same time period, the average annual value of income and average growth rate works out to 43722967.8 crores of rupees and 175.58 per cent respectively.

Figure no: 4.17:-Total Income for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



4.18. FDI inflows into FDI

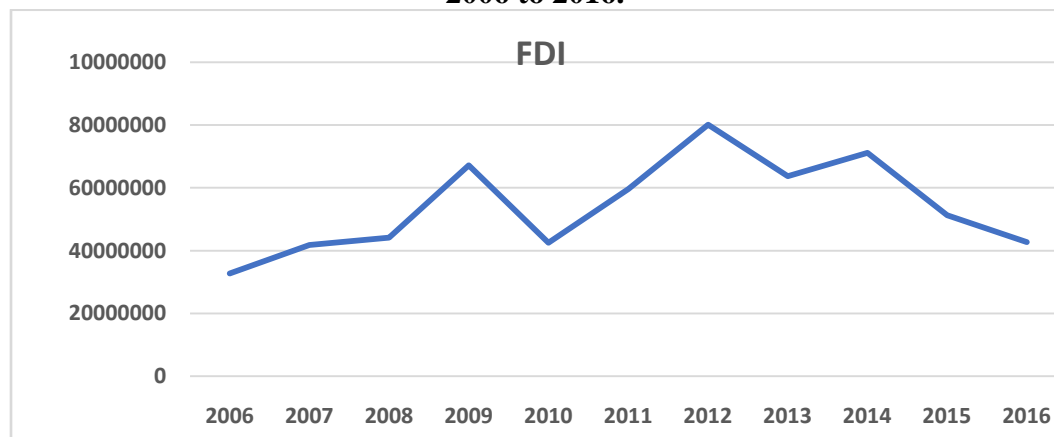
The data on growth trends of FDI inflows into FDI in FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu given the table 4.19 during the period from 2006 to 2016. The FDI inflows into FDI have grown with flexcivation throughout the period. The value of FDI inflows into FDI has increased from 32747076 crores of rupees in 2006 to touch the highest level of 80145298 crores of rupees in 2012 and then it started showing declining trend to reach minimum

TABLE NO 4.18:- FDI FOR FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE PERIOD FROM 2006 TO 2016. [CRORES IN RUPEES]

| Year | FDI | Index No | AGR |
|---------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| 2006 | 32747076 | 100.0000002 | - |
| 2007 | 41845183 | 127.7829599 | 27.78296 |
| 2008 | 44115308 | 134.7152581 | 5.425057 |
| 2009 | 67222724 | 205.2785547 | 52.37959 |
| 2010 | 42563089 | 129.9752341 | -36.6835 |
| 2011 | 59685627 | 182.2624611 | 40.22861 |
| 2012 | 80145298 | 244.7403187 | 34.27906 |
| 2013 | 63698528 | 194.516688 | -20.5212 |
| 2014 | 71189631 | 217.3923281 | 11.76025 |
| 2015 | 51294398 | 156.6381011 | -27.9468 |
| 2016 | 42773175 | 130.6167759 | -16.6124 |
| Average | 54298185.18 | | 3.06 |

Source: Ministry of Corporate Affairs 2017 value of 42773175 crores of rupees in 2016. The same time period the highest and the lowest annual growth rate was 52.38 per cent in 2009 and -36.68 per cent in 2010. During the same time period, the annual average value of FDI and average growth rate works out to 54298185.18 crores of rupees and 3.06 per cent respectively.

Figure no 4.18:- FDI for FDI Receiving companies in Tamil Nadu during the period from 2006 to 2016.



5. Trend Analysis for the FDI Receiving Companies in TamilNadu

5.1. Land and Building

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into land & building of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 708.28 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 20.92 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant the value of adjusted R^2 is -0.01 in the simple linear model and it is 0.10 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into land & building of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a negative linear trend in this period and around -1 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.2. Plant and Machinery

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into Plant and Machinery of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 2602.68 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 33.64 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is significant at one per cent level in simple linear and five percent level in semi log linear. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.51 in the simple linear model and it is 0.28 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into plant and machinery of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a consistent linear trend in this period and around 51 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.3. Other Fixed Assets

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into other fixed assets of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 149.67 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 1.01 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is -0.06 in the simple linear model and it is -0.11 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into other fixed assets of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a negative linear trend in this period and around -6 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.4. Depreciation

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into Depreciation of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 136122.40 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows into depreciation have not increased throughout the period. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant the value of adjusted R^2 is 0.08 in the simple linear model and it is -0.11 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into depreciation of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered not a linear trend in this period and around 8 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.5. Raw material

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into Raw materials and components of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 22330.04 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-log linear model implies the FDI inflows decreased at the compound growth rate of -631.22 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant the value of adjusted R^2 is- 0.08 in the simple linear model and it is -0.63 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into Raw materials and components of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a negative linear trend in this period and around -8 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.6. Finished and semi-finished goods

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into finished and semi-finished goods of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 1056.45 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-log linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 33.64 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.05 in the simple linear model and it is 0.01 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into finished and semi-finished goods of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a very low linear trend in this period and around 5 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.7. Cash in hand and bank balances

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into cash in hand and bank balances of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 10831.17 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-log linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 13.88 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is -0.00 in the simple linear model and it is 0.02 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into cash in hand and bank balances of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a negative linear trend in this period and zero per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.8. Other current assets

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into other current assets of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 1663.80 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 6.18 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.07 in the simple linear model and it is -0.06 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into other current assets of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a low linear trend in this period and around 7 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.9. Total current liabilities

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total current liabilities of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by -6962.09 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-log linear model implies the FDI inflows decreased at the compound growth rate of -204.08 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant the value of adjusted R^2 is 0.15 in the simple linear model and it is -0.10 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total current liabilities of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a low linear trend in this period and around 15 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.10. Total output

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total output of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 519649150 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 4.08 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is -0.03 in the simple linear model and it is 0.00 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total output of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu have registered a positive linear trend in this period and around -3 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.11. Total Sale Value

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total sale value of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 25077164 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 29.69 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.09 in the simple linear model and it is 0.08 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total sale value of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a low linear trend in this period and around 9 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.12. Total Exports

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total exports of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 1295858.36 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 81.71 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in simple linear model is insignificant and semi log linear model is significant at five per cent level. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.06 in the simple linear model and it is 0.43 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total exports of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a very low linear trend in this period and around 6 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.13. Salary & Wage

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into salary and wages of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 1053492.03 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi log-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 27.12 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.13 in the simple linear model and it is 0.03 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into salary and wage of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a Small linear trend in this period and around 13 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.14. Total Inputs

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total input of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu decreased annually by -389762.80 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 17.35 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.17 in the simple linear model and it is -0.09 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total input of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a low linear trend in this period and around 17 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.15. Total Profit

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into total profit (after tax) of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 878398.49 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 110.43 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the both models are significant Simple linear model at five percent level in one per cent low in semi log linear model. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.28 in the simple linear model and it is 0.59 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into total profit (after tax) of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a linear trend in this period and around 28 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.15. Import of Capital Goods

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into import of capital goods of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 562394.81 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 56.83 per cent per year the regression coefficient in the simple linear model is insignificant and semi log linear model is significant at five per cent level. The value of adjusted R^2 is -0.04 in the simple linear model and it is 0.31 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into import of capital goods of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu have registered a negative linear trend in this period and around -4 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.16. Equity

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into equity of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 18308320.33 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 46.23 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the simple linear model is insignificant and semi log linear model is significant at five per cent level. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.17 in the simple linear model and it is 0.38 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into equity of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a linear trend in this period and around 17 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.17. Income

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into income of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 4455999.5 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 19.72 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models are insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.17 in the simple linear model and it is 0.19 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into income of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a linear trend in this period and around 17 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

5.18. FDI

The results of the trend analysis reveal that the FDI inflows into FDI of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu increased annually by 1815310.3 of Indian rupees during the period from 2006 to 2016. The regression coefficient of the semi-linear model implies the FDI inflows increased at the compound growth rate of 4.08 per cent per year. The regression coefficient in the both models is insignificant. The value of adjusted R^2 is 0.08 in the simple linear model and it is 0.11 in the semi-log linear model. It means that the FDI inflows into FDI of FDI receiving companies in Tamil Nadu has registered a very low linear trend in this period and around 8 per cent of variations in the dependent variable are explained by the independent variable in the simple linear model.

TABLE NO 4.3:- TREND ANALYSIS FOR THE FDI RECEIVING COMPANIES IN TAMILNADU

| S.No | Variable | Model | a | b | S.E _b | t | Sig | R ² | Adj R ² | CGR |
|------|---------------------|----------------|---------------|---------|------------------|-------|-------|----------------|--------------------|--------|
| 1 | Land and building | Simple Liner | - 14214 35.82 | 708.28 | 73.75 | 0.9 7 | 0.3 5 | 0. 09 | - 0.01 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 37806 6 | 0.19 | 0.13 | 1.4 7 | 0.1 8 | 0. 19 | 0.10 | 20.9 2 |
| 2 | Plant and Machinery | Simple Liner | - 52259 88.32 | 2602.68 | 767.01 | 3.3 9 | 0.0 1 | 0. 56 | 0.51 | - |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| | | Semi-log Liner | 589.08 | 0.29 | 0.134 | 2.2 1 | 0.0 5 | 0. 35 | 0.28 | 33.6 4 |
| 3 | Other Fixed Assist | Simple Liner | - 29888 7.76 | 149.67 | 241.80 | 0.6 2 | 0.5 5 | 0. 04 | - 0.06 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | -6.148 | 0.01 | 0.09 | 0.0 7 | 0.9 4 | 0. 00 | - 0.11 | 1.00 5 |
| 4 | Deprecia tion | Simple Liner | - 27304 0735.3 1 | 136122. 40 | 1040.7 5 | 1.3 0 | 0.2 2 | 0. 16 | 0.08 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | 11.69 | 0.00 | 0.18 | 0.0 0 | 0.9 9 | 0. 00 | - 0.11 | 0 |
| 5 | Raw materials and compone nts | Simple Liner | - 44690 517.85 | 22330.0 4 | 46539. 85 | 0.4 8 | 0.6 4 | 0. 03 | - 0.08 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | 345.31 | -1.67 | 0.262 | - 0.6 4 | 0.5 4 | 0. 04 | - 0.63 | - 631. 2 |
| 6 | finished and semi- finished goods | Simple Liner | - 21200 75018 | 1056.45 | 862.31 | 1.2 3 | 0.2 5 | 0. 14 | 0.05 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 584.15 | 0.29 | 0.285 | 1.0 2 | 0.3 3 | 0. 11 | 0.01 | 33.6 4 |
| 7 | Cash in hand and bank balance | Simple Liner | - 21737 900.90 | 10831.1 7 | 11298. 85 | 0.9 6 | 0.3 6 | 0. 09 | - 0.00 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 256.93 | 0.13 | 0.12 | 1.0 9 | 0.3 0 | 0. 12 | 0.02 | 13.8 8 |
| 8 | Other current asset | Simple Liner | - 33441 5.26 | 1663.80 | 1254.4 9 | 1.3 6 | 0.2 2 | 0. 16 | 0.07 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 102.35 | 0.06 | 0.08 | 0.6 7 | 0.5 2 | 0. 05 | - 0.06 | 6.18 4 |
| 9 | Total current liability | Simple Liner | 14047 12113 5 | -6962.09 | 6494.0 8 | - 1.0 7 | 0.3 1 | 0. 11 | 0.15 | - |
| | | Semi-log | 83.78 | -0.04 | 0.14 | - 0.2 | 0.8 0 | 0. 01 | - 0.10 | - 204. |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|----------|----------|-----------|------------|
| | | Liner | | | | 6 | | | | 08 |
| 10 | Total Output | Simple Liner | - 10399 40752. 13 | 5196491 50 | 63425 3.11 | 0.8 2 | 0.4 3 | 0. 07 | - 0.03 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 261.80 | 0.14 | 0.14 | 0.9 8 | 0.3 5 | 0. 09 | - 0.00 | 4.08 |
| 11 | Total sales value | Simple Liner | - 50302 828.36 | 2507716 4 | 17651. 53 | 142 | 0.1 9 | 0. 18 | 0.09 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 513.22 | 0.26 | 0.19 | 1.3 6 | 0.2 1 | 0. 17 | 0.08 | 29.6 9 |
| 12 | Total export | Simple Liner | - 26007 9059.6 3 | 1295858 .36 | 99879 8.21 | 1.2 9 | 0.2 3 | 0. 16 | 0.06 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 1233.4 05 | 0.619 | 0.21 | 2.9 2 | 0.0 2 | 0. 49 | 0.43 | 81.7 1 |
| 13 | Salary and Wages | Simple Liner | 21156 68699 5.58 | 1053492 .03 | 67545 4.08 | 1.5 6 | 0.1 5 | 0. 21 | 0.13 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 476.46 | 0.24 | 0.21 | 1.1 6 | 0.2 8 | 0. 13 | 0.03 | 27.1 2 |
| 14 | Total Input | Simple Liner | 78304 8721.1 7 | - 389762. 80 | 22430 8.33 | - 1.7 4 | 0.1 2 | 0. 25 | 0.17 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 322.21 | 0.16 | 0.43 | 0.3 8 | 0.7 1 | 0. 02 | - 0.09 | 17.3 5 |
| 15 | Total Profit (after tax) | Simple Liner | - 17646 17726. 86 | 878398. 49 | 39664 6.23 | 2.2 1 | 0.0 5 | 0. 35 | 0.28 | - |
| | | Semi-log Liner | - 1485.8 6 | 0.744 | 0.19 | 3.9 1 | 0.0 0 | 0. 63 | 0.59 | 110. 43 |
| 16 | Import of capital goods | Simple Liner | - 11266 74436. 63 | 562394. 81 | 73173 4.23 | 0.7 7 | 0.4 6 | 0. 06 | - 0.04 | - |
| | | Semi- | - | 0.45 | 0.19 | 2.3 | 0.0 | 0. | 0.31 | 56.8 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|----------------|----------|----------|---------------|------|-----------|
| | | log Liner | 892.45 | | | 28 | 5 | 38 | | 3 |
| 17 | Equity | Simple Liner | - 66948 5175.6 1 | 1830832 0.33 | 10583 33.82 | 1.7 3 | 0.1 2 | 0. 25 | 0.17 | - |
| | | Semi- log Liner | - 752.37 | 0.38 | 0.14 | 2.6 8 | 0.0 3 | 0. 44 | 0.38 | 46.2 3 |
| 18 | Income | Simple Liner | - 89172 80070. 37 | 4455999 .5 | 25762 53.66 | 1.7 3 | 0.1 2 | 0. 25 | 0.17 | - |
| | | Semi- log Liner | - 344.96 | 0.18 | 0.09 | 1.8 5 | 0.0 9 | 0. 27 6 | 0.19 | 19.7 2 |
| 19 | FDI. | Simple Liner | - 35962 90974 037 | 1815310 .3 | 13773 49.16 | 1.3 2 | 0.2 2 | 0. 16 | 0.08 | - |
| | | Semi- log Liner | - 57.547 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 1.4 9 | 0.1 7 | 0. 19 | 0.11 | 4.08 1 |

** Significant at one per cent level.* Significant at five per cent level.

6. CONCLUSION:

The FDI Receiving Companies in Tamil Nadu taken for investigation in this research work are in Trend analysis. The structure of their economies, level of technology, labour skill concentration of industries differ very much. As such it will be very difficult to make common policy suggestions suitable to all the FDI Receiving Companies. Some Companies are receiving FDI from Automatic Route and Non Automatic Route for specific FDI policy.

In general liberal policies alone are not enough to attract FDI. Well developed communication and infrastructure facilities, technological foundations, availability of skilled labour at low wages are some of the factors which would help to attract more FDI. Besides opening more sectors, innovative skills, broad based research and development activities are also needed. In some of the Companies the limit of FDI should be increased. In deserving cases, even a cent per cent FDI can also be permitted if it can contribute for growth and provide employment without posing heavy burden on the economy in future.

Experience in some of FDI Receiving Companies, as revealed in several research works, points out that lower tax and other incentives do not have major impact on FDI, especially when they are seen as compensation for continuing comparative disadvantages. However, creation of good business environment and operating conditions are generally believed to have a positive impact. Higher rate of return, availability of natural resources and large market size have proved to be the major determinants in attracting FDI. The expectations of foreign investors are mostly fulfilled by Delhi and Maharastra and therefore it has received the highest amount of FDI.

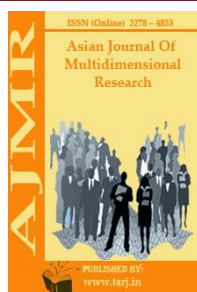
Karnataka, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal remain states of second preference. The experience of these states and their FDI policies will provide a set of good guide lines to other states. Though many states have introduced liberal policies to attract higher FDI, most of them have not been successful in this regard. These states should draw the lessons from Delhi, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Haryana, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal in designing their FDI policy and utilize the benefits of FDI to the maximum possible extent for the upliftment of the welfare of the people.

REFERENCE

1. Suyanto, Ruhul A.Salim & Harry Bloch, "Does Foreign direct investment lead to productivity spillover? Firm level evidence from Indonesia, World development, 1861-1876,2009, vol.37,no.12 pp.
2. Dr.Subaran Roy, "Foreign Direct Investment and performance of Indian states", International Journal of Science: Basic and applied research (WSBAR) (2014) vol 12, no.1, pg 229-239
3. Subash Sasidharan, "Foreign direct investment and technology spillover; Evidence from the Indian Manufacturing sectors, Indian institute of technology, Bombay 2006, pg 2-29
4. B.Bhattacharyya and Satinder Palaha, "Foreign direct investment in India: Facts and Issues" Indian institute of Foreign trade, New Delhi 1996, pg 27
5. 6. Qaiser Abbas, Salman Akbar, Ali Shan Nasir, Hafiz Aman Ullah, Muhammad Akram Naseem. "Impact of Foreign direct investment of Gross domestic product" Global journal of management and business research vol XI issue VIII version 1 auf 2011
6. Dr.Uwubanwen, Ahmed E and Mr.Ogiemudia omorose A, "Foreign direct investment and economic growth: Evidence from Nigeria", International Journal of Business and Social Science, vol7, no.3. march 2016.
7. Lileeva, Alla, Trefler, Daniel, 2010. Improved access to foreign markets raises plant-level productivity ...for some plants. Quarterly Journal of Economics 125 (3), 1051–1099.
8. Blomstrom, M and A. Kokko (1998), "Multinational Corporations and Spillovers", Journal of Economic Surveys, Vol. 12, pp. 247-277.
9. 3. Adelegan, J.O. (2000). Foreign direct investment and economic growth in Nigeria: A seemingly unrelated model. African Review of Money, Finance and Banking, 5–25.
10. Akinlo, A. E. (2004). Foreign Direct Investment and Growth in Nigeria: An Empirical Investigation. Journal of Policy Modeling. (26) 5, 627-639.
11. Ayanwale, A.B. .& Adeolu B. (2007). FDI and Economic Growth: Evidence from Nigeria, AERC Research African Economic, Research Consortium, Nairobi, April. 165.
12. Balasubramanyam, V.N., Mohammed, S. & Sapaford, D. (1996). FDI and Growth in EP and IS Countries, Economic Journal, 106(10), 92-105
13. Borensztein, E. J. (1998). How Does Foreign Direct Investment Affect Economic Growth? Journal of International Economics, 45 , 115-35.
14. Boyd, J. H. & Smith, B.D. (1992). Intermediation and the Equilibrium Allocation of Investment Capital: Implications for Economic Development. Journal of Monetary Economics 30, 409–432.

15. Carkovic M.A. & Levine, R. (2002). Does Foreign Direct Investment Accelerate Economic Growth?, in: Moran T.H., Graham E.M. and Blomstrom M. eds, Does Foreign Direct Investment Promote Development?, Washington D.C., Institute for International Economics, 195-220.
16. Chowdhury, A. & Mavrotas, G. (2003). FDI and growth: What causes what? Paper presented at the UNU/WIDER conference on Sharing Global Prosperity, September 2003. Helsinki, Finland. 34-42.
17. Ekpo, A.H. (1995). Foreign direct investment in Nigeria: Evidence from time series data. CBN Economic and Financial Review, 35(1), 59–78
18. Fosu, O.A.E. & Magnus, F.J. (2006). Bounds testing approach to co-integration: an examination of foreign direct investment, trade and growth relationships. Am. J. Applied Sci., 3, 2079-2085.
19. Gurak, H. (2003), Ekonomikbüyümeveküreselekonomi, First Edition, Ekin Press House, Bursa.
20. Hadiji, M. (1995). Sub-Saharan African Growth Savings and Investment 1986–1993 IMF working Paper.
21. Hayami, Y. (2009). Development Economics: From Poverty Alleviation to the Wealth of Nations, 2nd ed., New York, Oxford University Press, 2009.
22. Ikiara, M.M. (2003). Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), Technology Transfer, and Poverty Alleviation: Africa's Hopes and Dilemma, African Technology Policy Studies Network (ATPS) Special Paper Series No. 16, 2003, Nairobi, Kenya
23. Kentor, J. & Boswell, T. (2003). Foreign capital dependence and development: A new direction. American sociological review, 68(2), 301-313.
24. Liu, X., Burrige, P. & Sinclair, P.J.N. (2002). Relationships Between Economic Growth, Foreign Direct Investment and Trade: Evidence from China. Applied Economics, 34.1433-1440.
25. Mallampally, P. & Sauvant, K.P. (1999). Direct Investment in Developing Countries, Finance & Development 36 (1).
26. Mamun, K. A. & Nath, H.K. (2004). Export-led Growth in Bangladesh: A Time Series Analysis, Applied Economics Letters, 12(6) ,361-364.
27. Mwilima, N. (2003). Characteristics, Extend and Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on African Local Economic Development, Social Science Research Network Electronic Paper Collection: <http://ssrn.com> , 2003
28. Nunnenkamp, P. & Spatz, J. (2003). Foreign Direct Investment and Economic Growth in Developing Countries: How Relevant are Host – country and Industry characteristics? Kiel working paper no. 1176.
29. Nurkse, R. (1953). Problems of Capital Formation in Underdevelopment Countries. OUP.
30. Odozi, V.A. (1995). An Overview of Foreign Investment in Nigeria 1960-1995. Occasional Paper No. 11. Research Department, Central Bank of Nigeria

31. Oseghale, B.D. & Amonkhienan E.E (1987). Foreign Debt, Oil Export, Foreign Direct Investment (1960 – 1984). *The Nigerian Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, 29(3), 243-250
32. Oyinlola, O. (1995). External Capital and Economic Development in Nigeria (1970 – 1991). *The Nigeria Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, 37(2&3), 20-22.
33. Uwubanmwun, A.E. and Ajao, M.G. (2012). The Determinants and Impacts of Foreign Direct Investment in Nigeria. *International Journal of Business and Management*; 7(24), 67 – 77.
34. Wheeler, D. & Mody, A. (2012). International Investment Location Decisions: The Case of US Firms. *Journal of International Economics* 33(3), 57-76.
35. Yusop, Z. (1992). Factors Influencing Foreign Direct Investment in the Manufacturing Sector of Malaysia. Unpublished Master Thesis, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.



A STUDY OF BURN-OUT IN RELATION TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Dr. Rita Saini *

*Assistant Professor,
UCEK, INDIA.

Email id: Ritasainichhina@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The present study attempts to study the Burn-out among primary school teachers in relation to their demographical variables. The research was carried out with the total of 100 primary school teachers of Faridabad district, Haryana. Maslach Burn-out Inventory (MBI) by Maslach and Jackson (1981) was applied to find out significant difference in burn-out of primary school teachers in relation to Sex and Pay-Scale. The study reveals that burn-out has no impact on the sex. This means this variable don't affect the burn-out of the teachers. But income of teachers is the cause of teachers burn-out at primary school stage. "Education is the preparation for complete living, adjustment to environment, perfection of one's nature, character building and harmonious development of personality." Hence Null hypothesis is accepted. But the calculated' value for total burn-out is significant at both the levels. It means there is significant difference between teachers having high income and low income in relation to their burn-out. Some researchers revealed in their studies that those employees who suffer burn-out are located in lower levels of job satisfaction which cause reduction in their motivational level and performance (Rocca & Konstanski, 2001; Bettina & Piko, 2006). Thus the negative symptoms of job burnout among teachers are harmful to both students and teachers themselves. The effect of this factors make teacher facing unprecedented challenges of a career crisis and survival."

KEYWORDS: *Burn-Out, Income, Primary School Teachers, Sex.*

INTRODUCTION

Education is a lifelong process and potent force for social reconstruction. It is concerned not only with social progress, but also with moral, political, social and economic development. Gandhi ji said, "Education is the preparation for complete living, adjustment to environment, perfection of one's nature, character building and harmonious development of personality."

Teacher is a key figure in the life of a nation. He has a unique place in the society. The member of no other profession is so intimately involved in the task of improving the community-its economic, political, social and cultural life as is the teacher. The quality of the work is affected favorably when the teacher is well adjusted. On the other hand, maladjustment results in the mental tension and unrest which leads to burn-out.

BURN-OUT

Burn-Out in simple words it is an expression for a condition of man marked by severe loss of professional enthusiasm, personal energy and possibly even mental and physical health, due to acute stress and over work. According to Maslach and Jackson (1981) burn-out has three separate aspects- Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization and a feeling of reduced Personal Accomplishment.

BURN-OUT AMONG TEACHERS'

Burn-out among teachers has been defined in a variety of ways in the literature during its nearly 10 years history. Weisk off (1980) defines burn-out by its relationship to six categories of stress often found at teaching work place. They include work overload, lack of perceived success, amount of direct contact with children, staff-child ratio, programme structure and responsibility for others. Increased public demands on education have produced additional pressure and stress on teachers.

STAGES OF TEACHER BURN-OUT

Clouse and Whitaker (1981) point out three stages of teacher burn-out : (1) Loss of Enthusiasm (2) Frustration (3) Alienation

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- 1) To study the mean difference in burn-out and it's dimensions- Personal Accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP) and Emotional Exhaustion (EE) in relation to Sex.
- 2) To study the mean difference in burn-out and it's dimensions- Personal Accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP) and Emotional Exhaustion (EE) in relation Pay Scale.

HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

- 1) There exist no significant differences in burn-out and it's various dimensions-Personal accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP) and Emotional Exhaustion (EE) in relation to their to Sex.
- 2) There exist no significant differences in burn-out and it's various dimensions-Personal accomplishment (PA), Depersonalization (DP) and Emotional Exhaustion (EE) in relation to their to Pay-Scale.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The Teacher burn-out can lead to serious consequences at individual as well as school level. When depressed and dissatisfied, negative attitudinal teachers' are present in a school, it slows down the energy level of others and as a result they become lethargic and discontented. "According to Purkey (1970), teachers need to feel successful and good about themselves and their abilities before they can empower their students to feel the same. Thus the negative symptoms of job burnout among teachers are harmful to both students and teachers themselves. The effect of this factors make teacher facing unprecedented challenges of a career crisis and survival." The results of this research are important in terms of its contribution to decrease the burnout among primary school teachers'.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Chaplain, 1995; Berg, 1994; Brissle, 1988; conducted researches to study the stress among educators and have found that teachers suffer from burn-out. The studies on various dimensions of burn-out in teacher educators are conducted. (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982; Singh et al.,1994; Brewer &Shapard, 2004; Akhavan Anvari et a 2011; Gholipour et al.,2011). Prick, 1986, worked on the for job satisfaction, working conditions, and quality of teachers and found burn-out in secondary school teachers'. Wilson (2000), conducted a study entitled " burnout and satisfaction" and explained the importance of quality of work life programs as a means for reducing or eliminating teachers' burn-out. "Lewin's (1951) theory assumes that a person's behaviour is determined by the interaction between his or her personal characteristics and environmental factors which can influence teachers' satisfaction, thus leading to burnout." Some researchers revealed in their studies that those employees who suffer burn-out are located in lower levels of job satisfaction which cause reduction in their motivational level and performance (Rocca & Konstanski, 2001; Bettina & Piko, 2006).

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Survey method has been used in the present investigation. The method of selecting sample was simple random sampling. Primary teachers of Faridabad area constitute the population of the present study. The sample is made of 100 primary school teachers from ten primary schools consisting of male and female teachers in government, private/public schools.

TOOL USED

1. Maslach Burn-out Inventory (MBI) by Maslach and Jackson (1981).
2. Personal data sheet

STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES USED

To find out the mean differences in burn-out scores of primary school teachers in relation to various demographic variables, investigator used 't-test' and mean difference.

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

- (1) **SEX-WISE DIFFERENCE**

TABLE 1.1
MEAN DIFFERENCE IN BURN-OUT OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS

| Sr. No. | Dimension | Sex | N | Mean | S.D. | S. Ed. | t-ratio | Level of Sig./ Insig. |
|---------|-------------------------|--------|----|-------|-------|--------|---------|-----------------------|
| 1. | Emotional Exhaustion | Male | 44 | 23.03 | 4.66 | 0.739 | 0.3 | Not sig. |
| | | Female | 56 | 23.25 | 5.79 | | | |
| 2. | Depersonalization | Male | 44 | 11.8 | 4.2 | 0.597 | 2.06 | Sig. at .05 level |
| | | Female | 56 | 10.57 | 5.22 | | | |
| 3. | Personal accomplishment | Male | 44 | 29.06 | 5.205 | 0.62 | 1.40 | Not sig. |
| | | Female | 56 | 29.93 | 5.79 | | | |
| 4. | Total burn-out | Male | 44 | 64.66 | 8.83 | 1.28 | 1.37 | Not sig. |
| | | Female | 56 | 62.91 | 9.21 | | | |

INTERPRETATION

Table 1.1 shows that in case of Emotional Exhaustion, Personal Accomplishment and total burn-out calculated 't' value is less than the table value i.e. 1.96. It means there is no significant difference between male and female teachers in relation to emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and total burn-out. Hence Null hypothesis is accepted. But in case of Depersonalization the calculated 't' value is significant at .05 level, it means there is significant difference between male and female teachers in relation to depersonalization. Hence null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore male teachers are more depersonalized than female teachers.

(2) PAY SCALE-WISE DIFFERENCE

TABLE 1.2
MEAN DIFFERENCE IN BURN-OUT OF TEACHERS IN RELATION TO PAY SCALE OF TEACHERS

| Sr. No. | Dimension | Pay scale | N | Mean | S.D. | S. Ed. | t-ratio | Level of Sig./ Insig. |
|---------|-------------------------|-------------|----|-------|------|--------|---------|-----------------------|
| 1. | Emotional exhaustion | High income | 50 | 22.47 | 4.92 | 0.77 | 1.62 | Not sig. |
| | | Low income | 50 | 23.72 | 5.94 | | | |
| 2. | Depersonalization | High income | 50 | 11.81 | 5.26 | 0.70 | 0.29 | Not sig. |
| | | Low income | 50 | 11.67 | 4.64 | | | |
| 3. | Personal accomplishment | High income | 50 | 29.05 | 5.44 | 0.78 | 0.88 | Not sig. |
| | | Low income | 50 | 29.74 | 5.57 | | | |
| 4. | Total burn-out | High income | 50 | 62.03 | 8.65 | 1.25 | 2.82 | Sig. at .05 level |
| | | Low income | 50 | 65.55 | 9.07 | | | |

INTERPRETATION

Table 1.2 shows that calculated 't' ratio for Emotional exhaustion, Depersonalization and Personal Accomplishment is less than the table value at 0.05 level i.e. 1.96. It means there is no significant difference between high income group teachers and low income group teachers in relation to emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and personal accomplishment. Hence Null hypothesis is accepted. But the calculated 't' value for total burn-out is significant at both the levels. It means there is significant difference between teachers having high income and low income in relation to their burn-out. Hence Null hypothesis is rejected. Further the mean scores show that low income group school teachers have significantly higher burn-out as compared to that of high income group school teachers.

MAIN FINDINGS

- 1) There exists no significant difference between male and female school teachers in relation to their emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and total burn-out. But there is significant difference between male and female teachers in relation to their depersonalization. It means female teachers are more depersonalized than male teachers.
- 2) There exist no significant difference between high income teachers and low income teachers in relation to their emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization. But there is significant difference between high income teachers and low income teachers in relation to their total burn-out. It means low income group school teachers have significantly higher burn-out as compared to that of high income group school teachers.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATION

- 1) The study reveals that burn-out has no impact on the sex. This means these variables don't affect the burn-out of the teachers.
- 2) Income of teachers is the cause of teachers burn-out at primary school stage. To get rid of this disturbing feature, some rewards may be given to the teachers as a substitute. For example, teachers with higher educational qualification can be given more increments and higher start. Similarly, the primary teachers can be put in a higher scale.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Blase, J.J. (1982). A Social psychological Grounded Theory of Teacher's Stress and Burn-out. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol.18, 93-113.
- Farber, B.A. (1984). Stress and Burn-out in sub-urban teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 77, 325-331.
- Goswami, Marami (2013). A Study of Burnout of Secondary School Teachers in Relation to their Job Satisfaction. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, 10(1), PP 18-26.
- Gaziel, H.H. & Sabbatical L. (1995). Job burnout and turnover intentions among teachers. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 14 (4), 331-38.
- Jernigan, I.E. & Beggs, J.M. & Kohut, G.F. (2002). Dimensions of work satisfaction as predictors of commitment type. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(7), 564-579.
- Koeske, G.F. & Koeske, R.D. (1989). Construct validity of the Maslach burnout inventory: A critical view and reconceptualization. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Sciences*, 25(2), 131-144.



JUDICIAL ACTIVISM: FORTIFYING SOCIAL JUSTICE

Sonia Panwar*

*M.A, M.Phil.

Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra, INDIA.

Email id: soniapanwar041991@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Judicial activism means instead of judicial restraint, Supreme Court and other lower court become activist and compel the authority to act and sometimes also direct the government and government policies and administration. It is a way through which justice is provided to the disadvantaged and aggrieved citizens. Judicial activism refers to the interference of the judiciary in the legislative and executive fields. It mainly occurs due to the non-activity of the other organs of the government. In recent days the incumbents of parliament become less representative of the will of the people, there has been growing sense of public frustration with the democratic process. That is why Supreme Court has to expend its jurisdiction by, at times, issuing novel direction to the executive. Failure on the part of the legislative and executive wings of the government to provide “good governance” makes judicial activism an imperative.

KEYWORDS: “good governance”, disadvantaged, frustration, interference

INTRODUCTION:

Judicial system in India has come across many cases, where confining to reasonable interpretation of law do not serve the purpose of justice, and then Court takes the responsibility of framing laws. A new rule is formed not only to address and resolve current issue but also to apply broadly to all possible issues, which are not presented before the Court at present moment but is likely to arise in near future. Judicial Activism is when Courts make a shift from its traditional role of giving decision after hearing both parties, and perform the role of legislature and make new laws, new rules, and new policies. India has a history of judicial activism. Though its origin traces back to year 1893, when seed of judicial activism were sowed by Justice Mahmood of Allahabad High Court, it developed after emergency period. Imposing emergency was seen as an attempt of Government to control judiciary. Activism is seen in different areas like interpreting provisions of Constitution, protecting interest of citizens through Public Interest litigation, performing role as guardian of fundamental rights of citizens, judicial review, binding its decision over all (Article 142 of Constitution of India) etc.

Competing rights and conflicting interest of different section of society becomes the subject matter of scrutiny and when Government fails to enact any appropriate law for public, then judiciary tries to fill the vacuum, created by inactiveness, negligence, corruption among other two organs of Government- executive and legislature and judiciary has to expand its ambit and frame policies and take their role. It can be seen as dynamism of judges, or a judicial creativity, social transformation, or as social and Cultural Revolution through judiciary. We have Vishakha guidelines in case of sexual harassment of women at workplace as an example of judicial activism; these guidelines were given by Supreme Court in case of Vishakha v State of Rajasthan.

Delivering justice to a population of over a billion does not sound like and never will be an easy task. It however becomes increasingly difficult in a country like India. Judicial activism has arisen mainly due to the failure of the executive and legislatures to act. Secondly, it has arisen also due to the fact that there is a doubt that the legislature and executive have failed to deliver the goods. Thirdly, it occurs because the entire system has been plagued by ineffectiveness and inactiveness. The violation of basic human rights has also led to judicial activism. Finally, due to the misuse and abuse of some of the provisions of the Constitution, judicial activism has gained significance.

Situations that lead to judicial activism are follows:

- When the legislature fails to discharge its responsibilities.
- In case of a hung parliament where the government is very weak and instable.
- When the governments fail to protect the basic rights of the citizens or provide an honest, efficient and just system of law and administration,
- When the party in power misuses the courts of law for ulterior motives as was done during the Emergency period, and
- Finally, the court may on its own try to expand its jurisdiction and confer on themselves more functions and powers.

Judicial activism is the practice going beyond the normal law for the jury. There are some very important cases where judicial activism plays an important role like Bhopal gas tragedy and the Jessica Lal Murder case are among the top two. Money and muscle power tried to win over the

good. But lately, it was with the help of judicial activism that the case came to at least one decision.

The Judiciary cannot take over the functions of the Executive. The Courts themselves must display prudence and moderation and be conscious of the need for comity of instrumentalities as basic to good governance. Judicial activism has to be welcomed and its implications assimilated in letter and spirit. An activist Court is surely far more effective than a legal positivist conservative Court to protect the society against legislative adventurism and executive tyranny. When our chosen representatives have failed to give us a welfare state, Judiciary plays an active role. In judicial activism, the judge places his final decision with his heart and mind, which is emotionally handled.

DEFINITION OF JUDICIAL ACTIVISM:

Arthur Schlesinger Jr. introduced the term "judicial activism" in a January 1947 Fortune magazine article titled "The Supreme Court: 1947".

The phrase has been controversial since its beginning. An article by Craig Green, "An Intellectual History of Judicial Activism," is critical of Schlesinger's use of the term; "Schlesinger's original introduction of judicial activism was doubly blurred: not only did he fail to explain what counts as activism, he also declined to say whether activism is good or bad." Even before this phrase was first used, the general concept already existed. For example, Thomas Jefferson referred to the "despotic behavior" of Federalist federal judges, in particular Chief Justice John Marshall

Black's Law Dictionary defines judicial activism as a "philosophy of judicial decision-making whereby judges allow their personal views about public policy, among other factors, to guide their decisions." Political science professor Bradley Canon has posited six dimensions along which judge courts may be perceived as activist: majoritarianism, interpretive stability, interpretive fidelity, substance/democratic process, specificity of policy, and availability of an alternate policymaker. David A. Strauss has argued that judicial activism can be narrowly defined as one or more of three possible actions: overturning laws as unconstitutional, overturning judicial precedent, and ruling against a preferred interpretation of the constitution.

Others have been less confident of the term's meaning, finding it instead to be little more than rhetorical shorthand. Kermit Roosevelt III has argued that "in practice 'activist' turns out to be little more than a rhetorically charged shorthand for decisions the speaker disagrees with"; likewise, the solicitor general under George W. Bush, Theodore Olson, said in an interview on Fox News Sunday, in regards to a case for same-sex marriage he had successfully litigated, that "most people use the term 'judicial activism' to explain decisions that they don't like." Supreme Court Justice Anthony Kennedy has said that, "An activist court is a court that makes a decision you don't like."

Judicial activism can be seen in three ways- firstly by overturning any law as unconstitutional, secondly by overturning judicial precedents, and thirdly by interpretation of the Constitution. In simple words, judicial activism can be seen as the political role played by judiciary, just like other two-executive and legislative. Judicial activism is justified on various grounds like collapse of Government which forces judiciary to aid and make policies for public welfare. Conception of activism varies from groups to group, such groups are law teachers, executive, lawyers, police officials, administrative authorities, students etc. Any act which is regarded as activism by one

group but at the same time that may become judicial inactiveness for other groups. For this reason, judicial activism is subject to many debates that have been discussed later in this article. These groups regard judge as 'activist' depending upon their ideologies, values, and perspectives. Concept of judicial activism can be regarded as synonym of judicial absolutism, judicial anarchy, judicial supremacy, and judicial imperialism. Judicial restraint, also known as judicial conservatism is used as antonym of judicial activism. Judicial activism and judicial restraints are terms used to emphasize the 'right role of Courts'.

EVOLUTION AND GROWTH OF JUDICIAL ACTIVISM:

The concept of judicial activism found its roots in the English concepts of equity 'and natural rights'. On the American soil, these concepts found expression in the concept of judicial review'. The first landmark case in this regard was the case of *Marbury v. Madison*. In this case, for the first time the judiciary took an active step and took a step above the legislative actions. Marbury was appointed Judge under the Judiciary Act of 1789 by the U.S. Federal Government. Though the warrant of appointment was signed, it could not be delivered. Marbury brought an action for issue of a writ of mandamus. By then, Marshall became the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court having been appointed by the outgoing President, who lost the election. Justice Marshall faced the imminent prospect of the Government not obeying the judicial fiat if the claim of Marbury was to be upheld. In a rare display of judicial statesmanship asserting the power of the Court to review the actions of the Congress and the Executive, Chief Justice Marshall declined the relief on the ground that Section 13 of the Judiciary Act of 1789, which was the foundation for the claim made by Marbury, was unconstitutional since it conferred in violation of the American Constitution, original jurisdiction on the Supreme Court to issue writs of mandamus.

He observed that the Constitution of the United States confirms and strengthens the principle supposed to be essential to all written Constitutions. That a law repugnant to the Constitution is void and that the courts as well as other departments are bound by that instrument. If there was conflict between a law made by the Congress and the provisions in the Constitution, it was the duty of the court to enforce the Constitution and ignore the law. This judgment received lots of criticisms from different quarters, but judicial review was here, and it was here to stay. In the initial stages, only in respect of substantive laws, the doctrine of due process was applied but later the procedural laws also were brought within its purview.

Between 1898 and 1937, the American Supreme Court declared 50 Congressional enactments and 400 State laws as unconstitutional. With the power of judicial review up in its sleeves, the American judiciary started the modern concept of judicial activism in 1954 with the landmark judgment in *Brown v. Board of Education*. Starting from this judgment and by a series of judgments after this, the Supreme Court of America ruled out all the laws which segregated the Negroes from all the fields of day to day life. The earlier position taken in *Plessy v. Ferguson* that blacks could be treated as a separate class but must be provided with equal facilities – separate but equal-founded on racial discrimination was rejected by the Supreme Court at the risk of disturbing the institutional committee and delicate balance between the three organs of the State. Not only did the Court abolish the laws which did not ascribe to the prescribed Constitutional norms, but also encompassed more rights which were not clearly provided for in the Constitution.

It is very difficult to trace the origin of judicial activism in India. Since the judiciary has come to be recognized as an independent and separate organ of the Government under the Government of India Act, 1935 and subsequently under the Constitution of India, it would be prudent to scan the

period subsequent to 1935 for tracing the origin. However, there are a few instances even prior to that period, where certain selected judges of High Courts established under the Indian High Courts Act, 1861 exhibited certain flashes of judicial activism. Way back in 1893, Justice Mahmood of the Allahabad High Court delivered a dissenting judgment which sowed the seed for judicial activism in India. In that case which dealt with an under trial who could not afford to engage a lawyer, Justice Mahmood held that the pre-condition of the case being —heard would be fulfilled only when somebody speaks.

The concept of judicial activism can be seen to be reflecting from the trends Exemplified by some decisions and orders of the Supreme Court. They are as under:

1. The judiciary since 1973 claims the power to nullify on substantive grounds; even an amendment made to the constitution by the amending body if it changes —the basic structure or framework of the Constitution. This concept of judicial control over the constitution has been evolved by and known to courts in India only.
2. The undoubted privileges of the Legislature even in respect of their internal proceedings have been brought under the purview of judicial review.
3. Power of Judicial review as exercised by the Supreme Court and the High Courts has been recognized by those courts to be an unalterable —basic structure of the Constitution.
4. Eighteen High Courts, with the Supreme Court at the apex, correct the entire gamut of the country's administration.
5. The concept of 'state' for the purpose of enforcement of fundamental rights has been widened by successive judgments of the Supreme Court so as to include all public, quasi-public authorities.
6. The courts have broadened the scope of —Locus Standi in the Public Interest Litigation matters, in the early eighties.
7. The Supreme Court has often resorted to judicial legislation by virtue of its powers under Article 141 to fill the void created by the so-called legislative vacuum.

A thorough analysis of the above list of examples of judicial assertiveness (behavior) makes it amply clear that it would be very difficult to trace the origin of judicial activism in Independent India. A perusal of the catena of decisions rendered by the Indian judiciary after 1950 especially by the Supreme Court compels any researcher to believe that there have been flashes of judicial activism before the 1980's. However, there has been no uniformity in all the areas and jurisdictions of the Supreme Court, in exercise of a greater judicial power.

The amount of activism varied in different areas like interpreting the constitution, guarding the fundamental rights of the citizens, expansion of scope of —Locus Standi in Public Interest Litigation, Omni presence of judicial review, expansion of horizons of Article 21, and construction of certain directive principles as fundamental rights, and so on. Thus, it would be necessary to discuss the activist tendencies of the Supreme Court before the eighties in short and after the eighties in greater detail. But, before embarking on such a dichotomous discussion, it would be quite essential to analyze and discuss the definition of judicial activism, reasons for judicial activism, the frame work, and different dimensions of judicial activism and more importantly the Indian perspectives of judicial activism.

JUDICIAL ACTIVISM IN INDIA:

The significant feature of Indian Constitution is partial separation of powers. –The doctrine of separation of powers was propounded by the French Jurist, Montesquieu. It is partly adopted in India since the executive powers are vested in the president, Legislative powers in the Parliament and the judicial powers in the Supreme Court and subordinate courts. The role of separation of powers in India is simple. The three organs of the Government viz. the Executive, Legislature and the Judiciary are not independently independent but inter-dependently independent. (The executive encroaches upon judicial power, while appointing the judges of Supreme Court and High Courts. Similarly the Judiciary, by its review power examines the law passed by the legislature, parliament and the legislature also, intervenes in respect of impeachment of the President).

As stated earlier, the Judicial Activism in India can be witnessed with reference to the review power of the Supreme Court and High Court under Art. 32 and 226 of the Constitution particularly in public interest litigation cases. The Supreme Court played a crucial role in formulating several principles in public interest litigation cases. For instance, the principle of "absolute liability" was propounded in the Oleum Gas Leak case. Public Trust Doctrine in Kamalnath Case (1998 I SCC 388) etc. Further, the Supreme Court gave a variety of guidelines in various cases of public interest litigation. eg: Ratlam Municipality Case, Oleum Gas Leak Case, Ganga Pollution Case etc.

In India the concept originated after a public interest litigation was filed before the Supreme Court when the then Chief Justice P N Bhagwati took an unknown case directly from the public who did not have any involvement in the case but it was just for the public welfare and also was related to the public in large. Justice P N Bhagwati has said that "One basic and fundamental question that confronts every democracy, run by a rule of law is what is the role or function of a judge. Is it the function of a judge merely to declare law as it exists-or to make law? And this question is very important, for on it depends the scope of judicial activism. The Anglo-Saxon tradition persists in the assertion that a judge does not make law; he merely interprets. Law is existing and eminent; the judge merely finds it. He merely reflects what the legislature has said. This is the photographic theory of the judicial function". It is for the judge to give meaning to what the legislature has said and it is this process of interpretation which constitutes the most creative and thrilling function of a judge.

In the initial years of 1950-67, the Supreme Court adopted the attitude of judicial restraint in which the court gave a strict and literal interpretation of the constitution. Judicial review in India was provided for expressly in the Constitution. Article 13, clause (1) says that all laws in force in the territory of India immediately before the commencement of the Constitution, in so far as they are inconsistent with the provisions containing the fundamental rights, shall, to the extent of such inconsistency, be void. Clause (2) of that article further says that the State shall not make any law that takes away or abridges any of the fundamental rights and any law made in contravention of the above mandate shall, to the extent of the contravention, be void. The Constitution also divides the legislative power between the Centre and the states and forbids either of them to encroach upon the power given to the other. Who is to decide whether a legislature or an executive has acted in excess of its powers or in contravention of any of the restrictions imposed by the Constitution on its power? Obviously, such a function was assigned to the courts. The Constitution was criticized by some members of the Constituent Assembly for being a potential lawyers' paradise.

Dr. B.R. Ambedkar defended the provisions of judicial review as being absolutely necessary and rejected the above criticism. According to him, the provisions for judicial review and particularly for the writ jurisdiction that gave quick relief against the abridgement of fundamental rights constituted the heart of the Constitution, the very soul of it. The nature and scope of judicial review was first examined by the Supreme Court in A.K. Gopalan case where it accepted the principle of judicial subordination to legislative wisdom. But on the whole it limited itself and exercised judicial restraint.

The second phase unfolded with the Golaknath case which resulted in an open conflict between the judiciary and legislature. The parliament asserted its supremacy and the Supreme Court asserted its power of Judicial Review, which resulted in a series of constitutional amendments in which the parliament tried to limit the power of Judicial review. In the Emergency of 1975-77, the judiciary was made subservient to the legislature and executive. In Golaknath case, the Supreme Court gave an unprecedented judgment, which was clearly a case of Judicial Activism. The reason of imposing emergency was the decision of Allahabad High Court setting aside the election of Prime Minister Indira Gandhi to the Lok Sabha.

The 42nd constitutional Amendment Act was also passed which put new limitations on the judiciary. After the emergency the 44th constitutional Act was passed which restored the judiciary's position as it had existed before the emergency. In Minerva Mills case the Supreme Court declared judicial review as part of the basic structure. Since 1980's we saw the emergence of Judicial Activism as a powerful tool in Indian Polity. Thus now we find that the Supreme Court is no longer exercising judicial restraint. But in fact, it has taken up Judicial Activism so much. A court giving new meaning to a provision so as to suit the changing social or economic conditions or expanding the horizons of the right of the individual is said to be an activist court. Thus has given birth to Judicial Activism. In the words of Justice J. S. Varma "The role of the Judiciary in interpreting existing laws according to the needs of the times and filling in the gaps appears to be the true meaning of Judicial Activism."

DIMENSIONS OF JUDICIAL ACTIVISM:

Concept of judicial activism is multidimensional, however there cannot be universal application of these dimensions; they vary according to constitutions and ideologies. Political Science Professor Bradley C. Canon had observed judicial behavior in leading democracies and considered six important dimensions:

- Majoritarianism, Interpretive Stability, Interpretive Fidelity, Substance Democratic-Process Distinction, Specificity of Policy, and Availability of Alternative Possible Maker.

Now whether they are applicable to the Indian judicial scenario or not can be understood by analyzing them in light of judicial decisions.

1. Majoritarianism: While exercising power of judicial review, Court gives preferences to its own policy than legislative enactment. Majoritarianism is violated when any legislative enactment is declared unconstitutional by Court.

2. Interpretive Stability: This is to measure the extent to which Supreme Court upheld or overrules any precedent or any judicial doctrine. An important example can be variance in interpretation of 'personal liberty' under Article 21, from A. K. Gopalan v. State of Madras to Maneka Gandhi v. Union of India.

3. Interpretive Fidelity: This is to measure the judicial activism while interpreting the provisions of Constitution, when general meaning is ignored and a new meaning is assigned to it in accordance with the changing social and economic scenario of the society. More importance is given to the spirit of provisions than to its literal meaning, and in case of provisions having some contradictions a harmonious construction of meaning is emphasized. An important example can be Basic Structure Doctrine that was propounded with an intention to have judicial control over amending power of Parliament.

4. Substance Democratic-Process Distinction: This includes court-made policies to regulate non-political activities of some institutions. In Indian scenario, we have examples like reservation for oppressed classes and its extent, the theory of creamy layer, doctrine of legitimate expectation etc.

5. Specificity of Policy: This category includes policies for taking over the management of schools, hospitals, and other institutions, and also includes the policies that specify behavior to be followed the government agencies. We have judicial decisions like shifting of polluting industries around Taj, stopping of aquaculture, code of conduct for trial of pending criminal case etc.

6. Availability of Alternative Possible Maker: This include the cases when Court frame policies at the place of some another agency which is supposed to do so. Though Supreme Court in India does not play much active role but we have instances of judicial policy making. Supreme Court has framed policies regarding shifting of industries, policies to eradicate child labour and payment of compensation to child labour by their employers, guidelines regarding sexual harassment of women at workplace etc. These dimensions of judicial activism cannot be isolated from each other. They are applicable to the Indian scenario as well.

EXAMPALS OF JUDICIAL ACTIVISM;

Of late the Indian judiciary appears to have become overactive, and is often accused of judicial Overreach. This accusation was usually leveled by politicians or others outside the judicial system, until in 2008 it was leveled by Justice A.K. Mathur and the writer (as Judges of the Supreme Court) in Divisional Manager, Aravalli Golf Course v. Chander Haas. The Indian Supreme Court surely came a long way since Anwar Ali Sarkar Vs. State of West Bengal AIR 1952 SC 75 and A.K. Gopalan Vs. State of Madras where the judiciary refused to indulge in making judicial policy and instead exercised judicial restraint keeping in mind the Doctrine of Separation of Powers. However, the pendulum later swung to the opposite direction. Thus, in Maneka Gandhi vs. Union of India AIR 1978 SC 593 the 7 Judge Bench of the Indian Supreme Court, while overruling the 5 Judge Bench decision in A.K. Gopalan case introduced the due process clause in the Indian Constitution by a judicial pronouncement.

In S. P. Gupta Vs. Union of India ,AIR 1982 SC 149 it was held that: "He [the judge] has to inject flesh and blood in the dry skeleton provided by the legislature and by a process of dynamic interpretation, invest it with a meaning which will harmonize the law with the prevailing concepts and values and make it an effective, instrument for delivery of justice." Similarly, in the case of Supreme Court Advocates on Record Vs. Union of India, 1993 4 SCC 44 it was held that: "It belongs to the Judiciary to ascertain the meaning of the constitutional provisions and the laws enacted by the Legislature."

This was the advent of an over active judiciary which assumed upon itself the need to adjudicate even where it was not perceived to be warranted. Although Article 50(8) of the Indian Constitution expressly provides for Separation of Powers between the different organs of the State, but time and again, the Indian Supreme Court has taken on itself the task of filling in the gaps created by the Legislature and the Executive to do justice". While doing so, the judiciary has been often criticized for overstepping its limits.

In the case of Vineet Narain vs. Union of India, 1998 Cri. L. J. 1208 the Supreme Court had invented a new writ called "continuing mandamus" where it wanted to monitor the investigating agencies which were guilty of inaction to proceed against persons holding high offices in the executive who had committed offences. Furthermore, the Court created by its judicial order a body called the Central Vigilance Commission, which was not contemplated by the statute (the Delhi Special Police Establishment Act, 1946), for supervising the functioning of a statutory body, the Central Bureau of Investigation. The Court also laid down a number of guidelines for the appointments of chiefs of investigating agencies like Central Bureau of Investigation, Central Vigilance Commission and the Enforcement Directorate; apart from the Chiefs of the State Police. These guidelines, apart from being in relation to appointment, were also with regard to their status, transfer and tenure, etc.

The question arises whether this was legitimate exercise of judicial power. In the case of Indian Council for Enviro Legal Action Vs. Union of India, (1996) 5 SCC 281 the Court passed various orders especially directed towards the States requiring them to submit management plans to control pollution to both, the Central Government as well as the Court. Here, the Court held that it was only discharging its judicial functions in ensuring that it remedies the errors of the executive. In the case of M. C. Mehta vs. Union of India, (2001) 3 SCC 763 where a writ was filed with regard to the vehicular pollution in Delhi, the Supreme Court had passed directions for the phasing out of diesel buses and for the conversion to CNG.

When these directions were not complied with due to shortage in supply of CNG, the Court held that orders and directions of the Court could not be nullified or modified by State or Central governments. This was a case where, despite several directions being given by the Supreme Court, the government did not act speedily in responding to the Order. The Court has prescribed norms regarding the running of the prisons and mental institution, instructed the Government to implement labor laws at construction sites, recognized admissions in medical colleges throughout India laying down examination schedules, prescribing hawking zones in metropolitan cities, laid down the guidelines for the retail outlets for essential commodities such as LPG, resolving disputes between public undertakings of Central Government, directed the authorities like C.B.I to conduct and complete investigation expeditiously in cases of national importance, directed the noxious factories to restart on the technical reports on safety measures, prescribed the poverty limits for the low income urban housing or set up an expert panel headed by a retired Supreme Court to study the vehicular pollution level etc.

In these decisions the court did legislate, but in the process was criticized for having infringed upon the executive domain. With due respect to these and other decisions it has to be said that many judges often forget that the judiciary cannot solve all problems in the country. Suppose the Court passes an order that from tomorrow poverty in India, or unemployment, or malnutrition etc. are abolished. Will these orders mean anything? Can they really be implemented? India is a poor country with limited financial resources. Moreover, many such orders e.g. for interlinking

rivers vide In re Networking of Rivers (2012) S.C.C. raise great technical and administrative problems, and are really in the domain of the legislature or executive.

The most recent case on judicial activism was the case of Aruna Ram Chandra Shanbaug Vs. Union of India and Others. JT 2011 (3) SC 300. Aruna Shanbaug, a nurse in 1973, while working at a Hospital at Mumbai, was sexually assaulted and has been in a permanent vegetative state since the assault. In 2011, after she had been in this status for 37 years, the Supreme Court of India heard the petition to the plea for euthanasia filed by a social activist claiming to be Aruna's friend. The Court turned down the petition, but in its landmark judgment (authored by the writer) it allowed passive euthanasia i.e. withdrawal of life support to a person in permanently vegetative state, subject to approval by the High Court.

CONCLUSION:

Definition of judicial activism is not easy, it means different to different persons. Those who oppose this activism argue that it curtails the power of elected branch of Government, and damages rule of law and democracy. However many say that is a legitimate form of judicial review and that interpretation of law should change with changing needs of society. Judicial activism is good when it is for benefit and development of under-advantaged sections of society, but it should not interfere with the policy making power of government, if it converts into a supervisory power to correct policies and government actions, public authorities, then citizens will rush to the Supreme Court and High Courts.

Now if defense of failure of other branches of government is taken, the question can be raised about results of failure of judiciary to meet expectations, and also about its inefficiency. By the same logic, they will take over the functions of judiciary. Justice J. S. Verma said that judicial activism is a sharp tool which has to be used by a skillful surgeon and not as a knife to kill.

It cannot be ignored that this socio-economic movement of court has increased the hope of people for justice. This is necessary for democratic set-up and establishment of rule of law. Because of judicial inertia common people are denied justice. Judicial activism will have to remove such tardiness. This activism should be accompanied with honesty and should win confidence and inspire faith in the minds of public.

There were many laws which are insufficient to interpret by the judiciary hence for this particular reason there must be the existence of judicial activism in the country to have a good grip on the issues raised by the citizens. Judicial activism is an essential aspect of the dynamics of the constitutional court. It must work for the benefit of citizens but within the boundary or within the limits of judicial process. Court has to learn from its experience, adopt itself with social, economical, and cultural changes. While being active, Court has to keep the scales in balance while deciding any dispute.

By evolving the doctrine of Basic Structure of the Constitution, the Hon'ble Supreme Court of India has limited the power of Parliament to amend the constitution. The court's increased activism has been good and contributed a lot for India's democracy. The expensive, technical justice now becomes inexpensive and nontechnical through the growth of Public Interest Litigations. The important question today is not whether the Supreme Court could activate its judicial role, but to what extent the concepts of Judicial Activism and creativity are exercised. A balance between the powers of Judiciary, Legislature and executive is necessary to carry the nation on the true path of democracy.

REFERENCES:

1. Chad M. Old father, “Defining Judicial Inactivism: Models of Adjudication and the Duty to Decide” (2005) 94, Geo. L.J. 121, 122
2. I.P.Massey, —Judicial Activism and The Growth of Administrative Jurisprudence in India – A Retrospect, Indian Bar Review Vol. 17 (1&2): 1990 p.55-56.
3. T.R.Adhyarujina in his book titled —Judicial Activism and Constitutional Democracy in India (Bombay, 1992) .
4. 7 Arthur Selwyn Miller, Toward Increased Judicial Activism: The Political role of the Supreme Court (West Court: Conn 1982).
5. Basic Structure Doctrine was given in case of KeshavanandaBharti v. State of Kerala, AIR 1973 SC 1461
6. The 24th Constitutional Amendment Act was intended to affect the meaning of ‘Law’ under Article 13 and Article 368.
7. JUDICIAL ACTIVISM IN INDIA- An Overview (By Arjun.M, Administrative Assistant, Centre for Public Policy Research)
8. M. C. Mehta v. Union of India, (1986) 2 SCC 176
9. Shantisar Builders Vs. L. Narayan, (1990) 1 SCC 520
10. M. C. Mehta v. Union of India, (1991) 2 SCC 353



CONSUMER PREFERENCES WHILE SELECTING A CAB SERVICE: A CASE STUDY OF OLA AND UBER IN NCR DELHI

Dr Sukhvir Singh*; Mrs Preetinder Kaur**; Mr Inderpreet Singh***

*Assistant Professor,
Department of Commerce,
SGTB Khalsa College, University of Delhi, INDIA.
Email id: sukhvir_singh@rediffmail.com

**Assistant professor,
Department of Commerce
Hansraj College, University of Delhi, INDIA.
Email id: preetbangrh@gmail.com

***Assistant Professor,
Delhi School of Professional,
Studies and Research, GGSIP, INDIA.
Email id: singh.inderpreet05@gmail.com

ABSTRACT:

The objective of the present research paper is to study the factors influencing to the consumers' preferences while selecting a cab services. A comparative analysis between the OLA and Uber Services are also discussed. The primary data has been collected taking a sample of 400 respondents from NCR Delhi. Charts, tables and Pie Diagrams are used to analysis the data. After analyzing the data we found that Consumers prefer Ola and Uber more as compared to other service providers. These two cover major parts of the market share. We also found that Uber is considered better than Ola on the basis car quality, punctuality, driver's navigational skills as well as performance skills and customer care services. We concluded that the regular consumers are giving more preference to the price as compared to other factors also.

KEYWORDS: *Influencing, Punctuality, Navigational, Consumption*

INTRODUCTION:

Consumer is any person in the society who entails in the process of exchange of goods or services, consumer being the receiver. Anyone who has a purchasing power and utilises it is a consumer. However, a consumer still has to decide upon the factors for choosing a particular product/service. Consumers make decisions by allocating their scarce income across all possible goods in order to obtain the greatest satisfaction. Formally, we say that consumers maximize their utility subject to budget constraint. Utility is defined as the satisfaction that a consumer derives from the consumption of a good. As noted above, utility's determinants are decided by a host of noneconomic factors. Consumer value is measured in terms of the relative utilities between goods. These reflect the consumer's preferences. Consumer preferences are defined as the subjective (individual) tastes, as measured by utility, of various bundles of goods. They permit the consumer to rank these bundles of goods according to the levels of utility they give the consumer. Note that preferences are independent of income and prices. Ability to purchase goods does not determine a consumer's likes or dislikes. One can have a preference for Porsches over Fords but only have the financial means to drive a Ford.

These preferences can be modelled and mapped through the use of various diagrams and indifference curves. Theoretically, we assume a two good world. These could be any two goods. One common treatment is to define one good, say food, and let the other good be a composite of all other goods. For expository simplicity (making things easier for me), let's define the two goods as Good X and Good Y. The axes of the graph then measure amounts of Good X on the horizontal, and amounts of Good Y on the vertical. Each point in this Cartesian space then defines some combination of goods X and Y. We call these combinations commodity bundles

The goal of the theory of preferences is for the consumer to be able to rank these commodity bundles according to the amount of utility obtained from them. In other words, the consumer has different preferences over the different combinations of goods defined by the set of commodity bundles.

More than one way to examine consumer preferences can be used. In this report, we will be observing consumer's preferences over cab service providers in India, namely Ola and Uber.

UBER: Uber Technologies Inc. is a transportation network company headquartered in San Francisco, California, United States, operating in 528 cities worldwide. It develops markets and operates the Uber car transportation and food delivery mobile apps. Uber drivers use their own personal cars, although drivers can rent a car to drive with Uber. Uber was founded in 2009 as Uber Cab by Garrett Camp, the cofounder of Stumble Upon, and Travis Kalanick.

Kalanick joined Camp and gives him "full credit for the idea" of Uber. Camp spent \$800 hiring a private driver with friends and had been mulling over ways to decrease the cost of black car services ever since. He realized that sharing the cost with people could make it affordable, and his idea morphed into Uber. Uber's first market was San Francisco and, following a beta launch in May 2010, Uber's services and mobile app officially launched there in 2011. Originally, the application only allowed users to hail a black luxury car and the price was 1.5 times that of a taxi. In 2011, the company changed its name from Uber Cab to Uber.

How it works

Uber provides different types of cab service ranging from economic to luxury travel. The cabs are reserved through a mobile app. This cab service supports both cash and cashless payment

options. By opening the app, selecting your pick and drop location as well as the type of ride, one can simply book a cab.

TYPES OF SERVICES

UBER GO: It include small cars with low fare for one person

UBER X: It includes cars bigger than Uber go with increased no. of passengers (3-4)

Uber XL: It provides bigger car (SUVs) with greater no. of passengers (5-6)

UBER POOL: It involves sharing rides with people having same or similar routes. This leads to splitting of fare thus reducing it by 50%

UBER AIRPORT: It provides ride to the airport.

UBER HIRE: It is available for those wanting to rent a car to travel to nearby cities.

Uber provides many other services worldwide which are yet to be introduced in India. These include:

UBER FRESH: In 2014, with the company experimented online food orders, pilot testing uberFRESH in Santa Monica, California. The service allows users to have meals delivered from participating restaurants by Uber drivers. In April 2015, the name was changed from UBER FRESH to UBER EATS

UBER CHOPPER: In July 2014, Uber partnered with Blade to offer "UBER CHOPPER" helicopter rides from New York City to The Hamptons for \$3,000 each.

UBER BOAT: In June 2015, in Istanbul, Uber launched a water-taxi service called UBERBOAT, allowing users to travel by Beneteau boats across the city's central Bosphorus strait.

FINANCING

The founders invested \$200,000 in seed money upon conception in 2009. In 2010, Uber raised \$1.25 million in additional funding. By the end of 2011, Uber had raised \$44.5 million in funding. In 2013, Google Ventures invested \$258 million in the company based on a \$3.4 billion pre-money valuation. In December 2014, Chinese search engine Baidu made an investment in Uber of an undisclosed amount. The deal also involved connecting Uber with Baidu's mapping apps. In January 2015, Uber raised \$1.6 billion in convertible debt. In May 2015, Uber revealed plans to raise between \$1.5 billion and \$2 billion in new funding, raising the value of the company to \$50 billion or higher. In September that year, Uber raised another \$1.2 billion, led by another investment by Baidu.

In 2016, Toyota made an undisclosed investment in Uber and looked into leasing options, which could potentially aid Uber drivers financially, a move in response to the other partnerships between Toyota's and Uber's counterparts. In June 2016, with plans to expand in the Middle East, Uber received \$3.5 billion from the Public Investment Fund of Saudi Arabia. In July that same year, Uber raised \$1.15 billion in debt financing.

In total, Uber has raised about \$11.5 billion from 14 rounds of venture capital and private equity investors.

| Year | 2014 | 2015 | 1Q'16 | 2Q'16 |
|--------------------|---------------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Net Revenue | \$495.3M ^[123] | \$1.5B | \$960M ^[124] | \$1.1B ^[124] |
| GAAP Loss | -\$671M ^[125] | TBD | -\$520M ^[124] | -\$750M ^[124] |

OLA: ANI Technologies Pvt. Ltd., operating under the trade name Ola, is an Indian transportation network company. Ola was founded as an online cab aggregator in online Mumbai, but is now based in Bangalore. As of September 2015, Ola was valued at \$5 billion. It was founded on 3rd December 2010 by Bhavish Agarwal (currently CEO) and Ankit Bhati. As of 2014, the company had expanded to a network of more than 200,000 cars across 100 cities. In November 2014, Ola expanded to incorporate autos on-trial basis in Bangalore. Post the trial phase, Ola Auto expanded to other cities like Delhi, Pune, Chennai and Hyderabad and Kolkata starting December 2014. In December 2015, Ola expanded its auto services in Chandigarh, Indore, Jaipur and Guwahati, Visakhapatnam. Ola is valued at \$5 billion as of September 2015.

In March 2015, OlaCabs acquired Bangalore based cab service TaxiForSure for about \$200 million. From the 25th of June 2015, Ola users have gained access to TFS cabs via the Ola mobile application. By November 2015, Ola had acquired Geotagg, a trip-planning applications company, for an undisclosed sum to strengthen its new bus-shuttle service.

Ola provides different types of cab service ranging from economic to luxury travel. The cabs are reserved through a mobile app. This cab service supports both cash and cashless payment options with Ola money. It claims to clock an average of more than 150,000 bookings per day and commands 60 percent of the market share in India. November 2014 Ola also started on-demand auto rickshaw service on its mobile app in Bangalore, Pune and few other cities.

TYPES OF SERVICES:

Share: It involves sharing rides with people having same or similar routes. This leads to splitting of fare thus reducing it by 50%

Micro: Includes the most economical mode available.

Mini: It includes comfortable a/c hatchbacks.

Prime: It includes bigger and better cars driven by the top rated drivers. Includes both sedans and SUVs.

Auto: Auto rides available with low fares and convenience charge of Rs. 10

Rentals: it includes renting cars for local tours. Packages available to travel all day.

Luxury: Includes chauffeur driven luxury cars with best facilities.

Outstation: It includes renting a car to travel to other cities at economical rates. Pre booking applies.

E-rick: local rickshaw rides available at the click of a button.

FINANCING

Ola was founded as an online cab aggregator in Mumbai, but is now based in Bangalore. As of September 2015, Ola was valued at \$5 billion.

| Date | Amount / Round | Valuation | Lead Investor | Investors |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----------|
| Feb, 2017 | \$330M / Private Equity | — | SoftBank | 1 |
| Dec, 2015 | \$57.3M / Series G | — | Vanguard | 1 |
| Nov, 2015 | \$500M / Series F | — | Baillie Gifford | 6 |
| Apr, 2015 | \$400M / Series E | — | DST Global | 9 |
| Oct, 2014 | \$210M / Series D | — | SoftBank Capital | 1 |
| Jul, 2014 | \$40M / Series C | — | Sequoia Capital Steadview Capital | 4 |
| Nov, 2013 | \$20M / Series B | — | — | 2 |
| Apr, 2012 | \$5M / Series A | — | Tiger Global Management | 1 |
| Apr, 2011 | \$330k / Angel | — | — | 3 |

■ everyday
 ■ 1-2 times a week
 ■ 1-2 times a month
 ■ never

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives are for the present study:

- To study the comparison between Uber and Ola on the basis of consumer preferences.
- To study various consumers' preferences while choosing a cab service.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Research design: it is an exploratory research as it examines consumer preferences while selecting a cab service provider.

Test frame: NCR Delhi

Sort of sampling: convenience examination

Testing size: this study depends on choices of 300 correspondents

Primary data: This study is based on a standard poll and afterward conclusion arrived at. Consequently, essential information is utilised to gather direct information through surveys. Additionally, perception technique is also utilised to do the same.

Optional data: secondary information is gathered from articles. Newspapers and various Web sites.

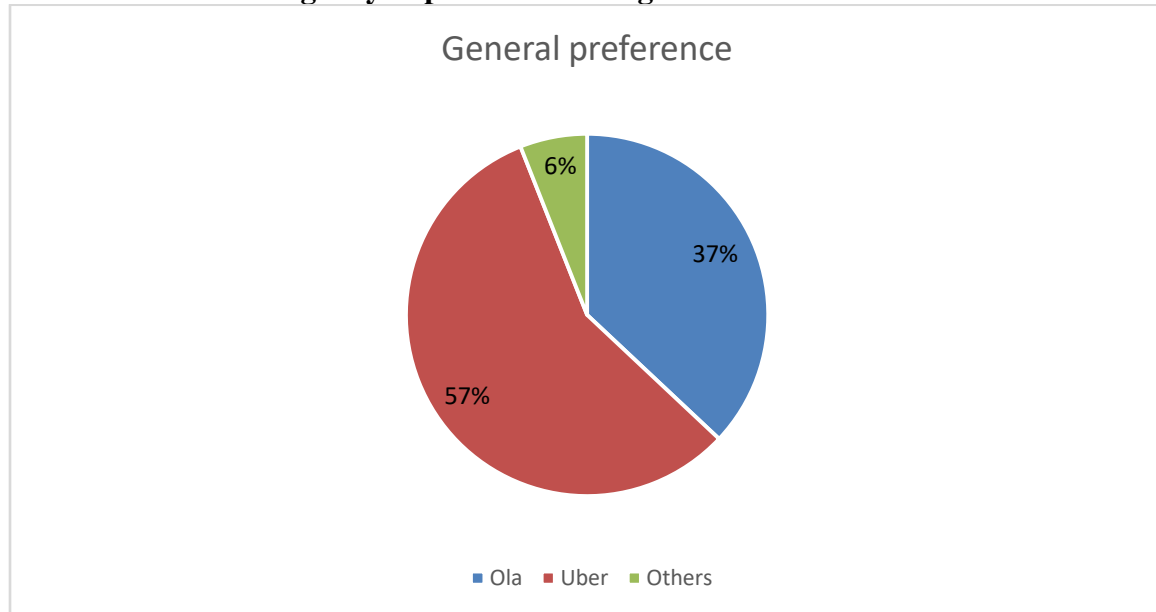
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

1. How often do you use cab services?

Interpretation: From the above data, we can infer that majority of the correspondents in this survey use cab services once or twice a week while only 10% have never used such services. The

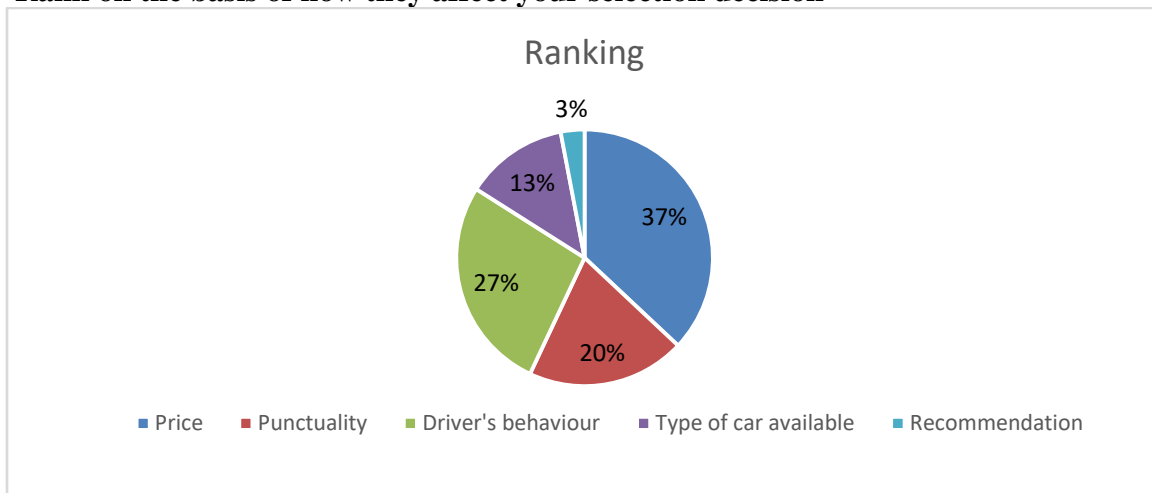
reason for this may be limited to the fact that this survey involves correspondents ranging from the age group of 15 years to 40 years. This includes thus, school going children, working segment of the society and home makers in unequal ratios.

2. Which of the following do you prefer more on general basis?



Interpretation: From the above data, we can infer that Uber is preferred more as compared to Ola. However, no other cab service provider can sustain the market as largely as Ola and Uber. The reason for the same will be examined in the following questions.

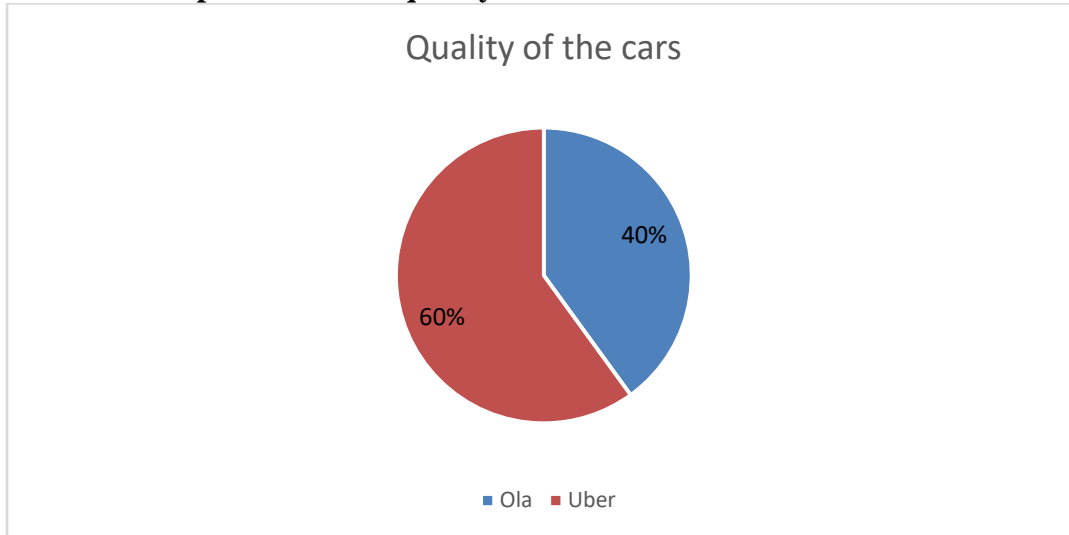
3. Rank on the basis of how they affect your selection decision



Interpretation: The majority of correspondents rank pricing as the major factor affecting their selection decision followed by driver's behaviour, punctuality, type of car and recommendation.

For the regular commuters/rides, price plays a vital role in decision making. However, price alone cannot be the deciding factor. One ensures their safety by checking on driver's behaviour. For this, both Ola and Uber have ratings after each ride with suitable reason to keep their drivers under check. The cab service providers also ensure the can reaches on time i.e. punctual and cancels the ride in case the rider takes more than the appropriate time to check into the cab.

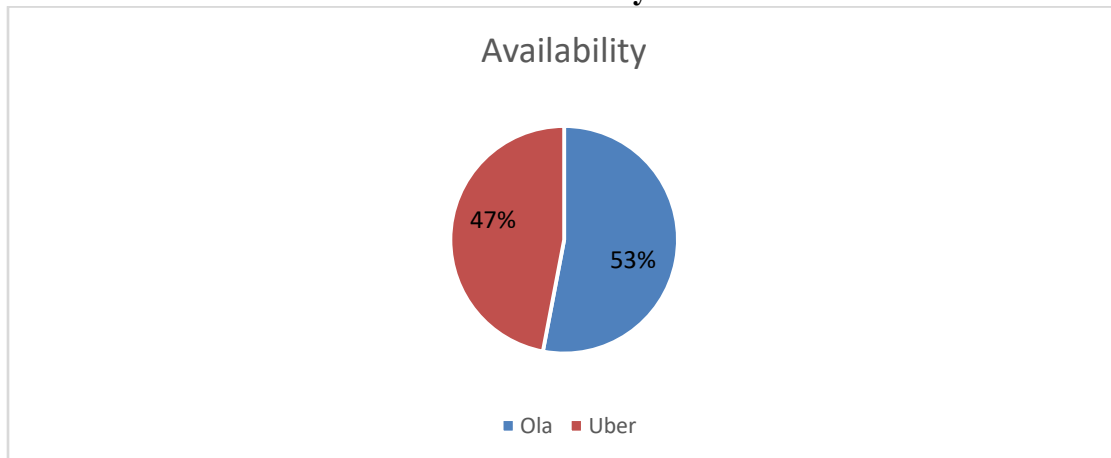
4. Which of the two provide better quality cars?



Interpretation: While 40% of the correspondents vote for Ola cabs providing better quality cars, the majority share i.e. 60% goes with Uber cabs. This may be due to personal as well as social opinion.

However, one may note that the cheapest or the most economic fare ride cars in case of Ola are Maruti Alto, Datsun Go and Hyundai eon while Uber provides Tata Indica, Maruti Suzuki Ritz and Swift Dzire. This proves Uber's quality better than that of Ola. However other factors like cleanliness, proper maintenance and smoke checks also ensure better quality of the cars.

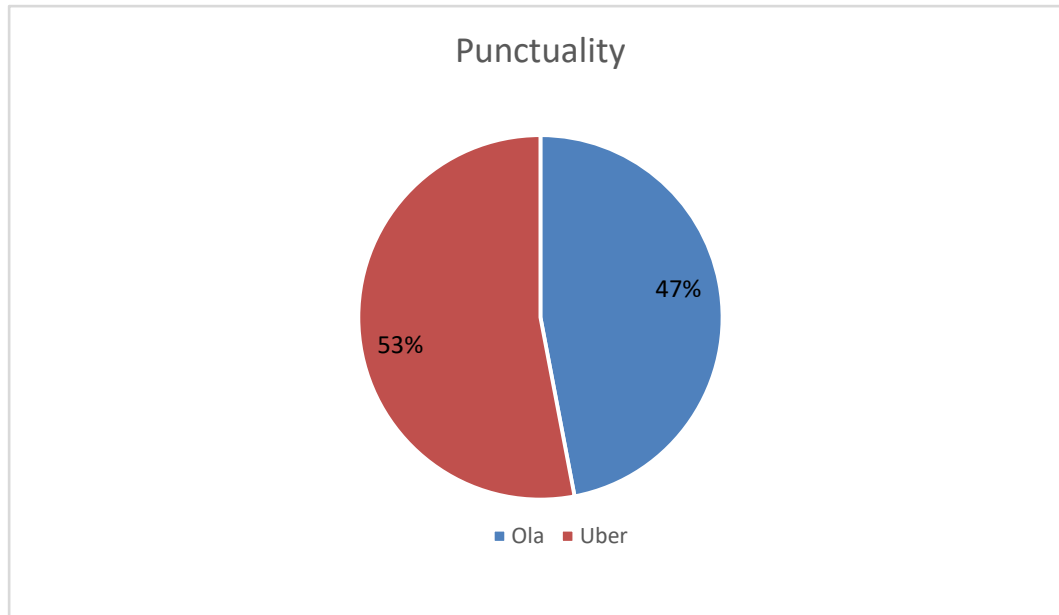
5. Which of the two is better in terms of availability?



Interpretation: From the above data, we can infer that Ola's availability is 53% while that of Uber is considered at 47%. Even through the cut throat competition, Ola wins in terms of availability. This means that one might be able to find more Ola cabs at a location than Uber.

This may be due the various reasons, major being the fact that Ola has 4,50,000 vehicles under its company while Uber has only 2,50,000. Also, Ola is located in 102 Indian cities while Uber covers only 26 cities in India yet.

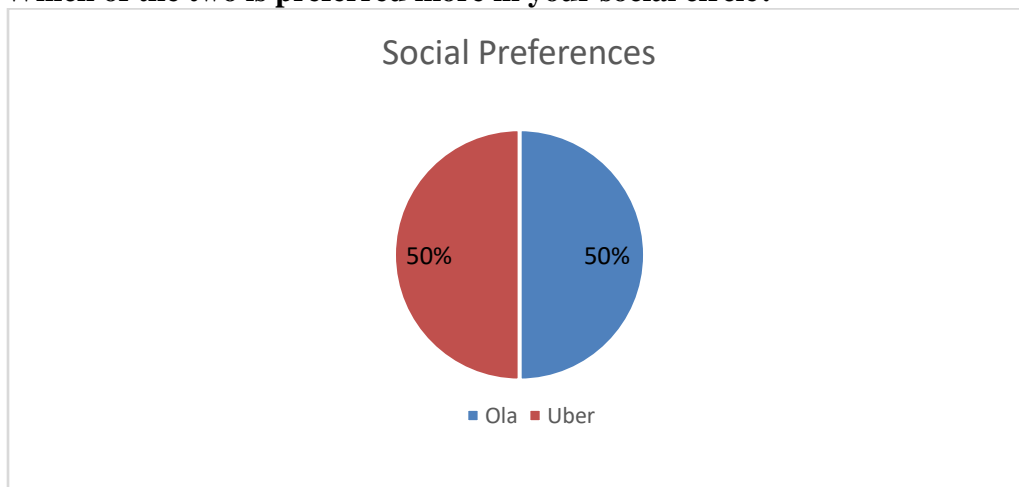
6. Which of the two is better on the basis of punctuality?



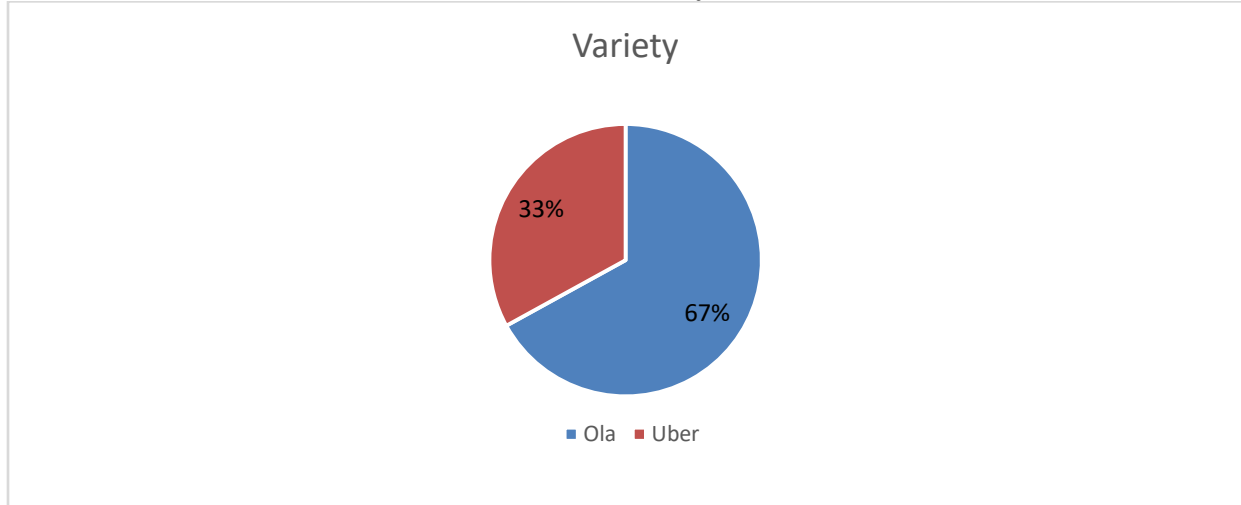
Interpretation: We can see that Ola is considered punctual by 47% of correspondents while Uber is considered punctual by 53%. While there is not much difference in the ratios, Uber is considered more punctual as compared to Ola.

The reasons may again vary on both factual and personal factors. Since we are examining consumer preferences, we have taken into consideration the personal opinion of the correspondents in this case. Majority agrees they have never seen an Uber driver not be punctual. They say that the drivers are always well aware of the navigation routes and take lesser time to reach the pick-up point from the booking time.

7. Which of the two is preferred more in your social circle?

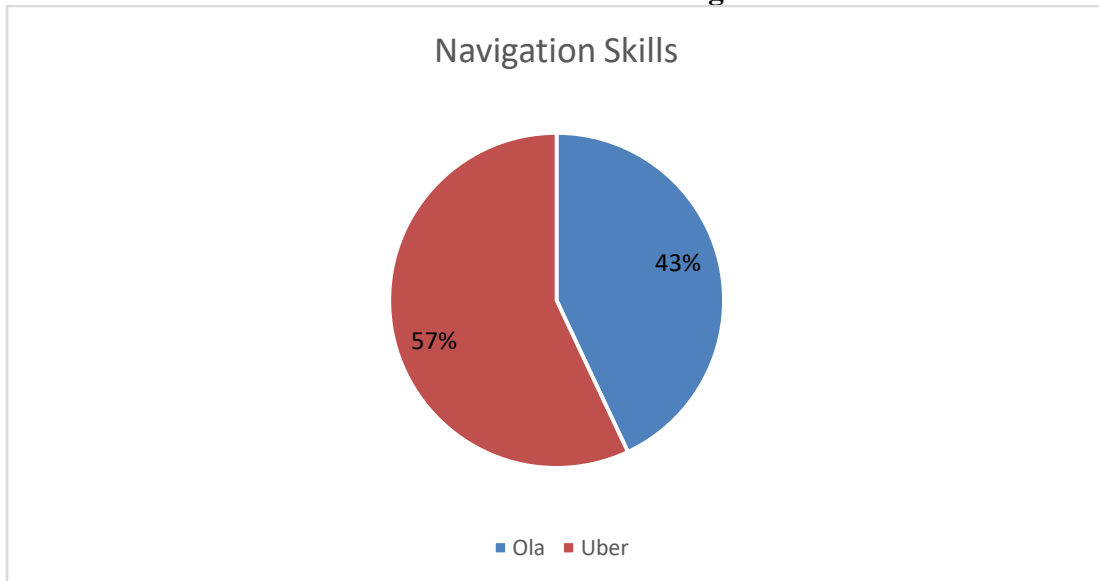


Interpretation: Despite the continuous competition between Ola and Uber, one finds both are equally preferred in their social circle. This may be purely co-incidental or due to the fact that while Uber provides more benefits (as examined above), it was launched later in India making it still a task for the company to create a stronger and larger customer database than Ola. However, with everchanging times, Uber might supersede Ola in the future.

8. Which of the two is better on the basis of variety?

Interpretation: It is inferred that Ola provides more variety according to 67% of the correspondent while uber is preferred by only 33% on the basis of variety.

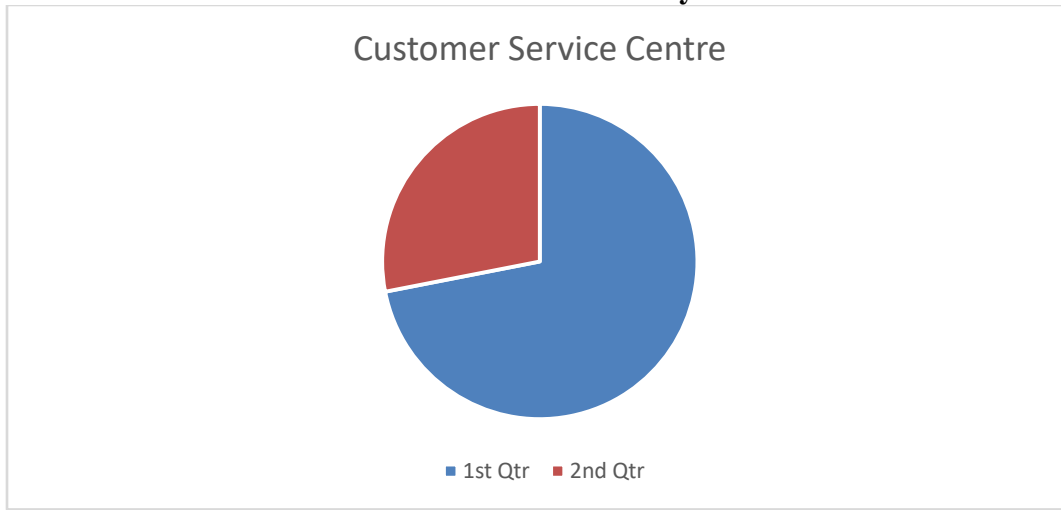
It is factually possible to prove that Ola provides more variety as the number of bifurcations in the app to choose from are way more than those available in Uber. Ola being founded in India also provides Auto and E-rick services which are still very foreign to Uber. Uber has services like UberEats, UberChopper, etc. which have yet not been launched in India.

9. Which of the two has better drivers on the basis of navigation skills?

Interpretation:As we can observe, Uber is preferred by 57% of the correspondents while Ola is preferred by 43% on the basis of the navigation skills of the drivers. As in the above cases, where an Uber driver was considered more punctual due to better skills and efficient performance, similarly, the same is preferred in navigation skills possessed. It was generally observed by these correspondents in their experience that an Uber driver was more efficient with his/her skills and asked less question during the ride time. Also, while both Uber and Ola provide their drivers

with training sessions before commencing their job, Uber provides codes in local language of drivers making it an advantage.

10. Which of the two has a better customer care service system?



Interpretation: While Uber is preferred by 63%, Ola is preferred by only 37% on the basis of customer care facilities. From the personal experiences of the correspondents, it has been observed that one is unable to get through a customer care number in case of Ola in the initial few tries. One has to literally bug the service centre to get through the authorised personnel and yet it takes forever to convey the problem and to find the ultimate solution. However, they say Uber has a much better and faster customer care centre making it widely accepted option.

CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY:

From the analysis of the above given results we can draw the following conclusion:

- Consumers prefer Ola and Uber more as compared to other service providers. These two cover major parts of the market share.
- When selecting a ride, the consumer always takes into various factors, price being the most important for a regular commuter followed by driver's behaviour, punctuality, car quality, etc.
- Even though Ola has more registered vehicles and employees under its companies, consumer is shifting its preference towards Uber.
- Uber is considered better than Ola on the basis car quality, punctuality, driver's navigational skills as well as performance skills and customer care services.
- However, Ola is preferred more than Uber on the basis of availability at any given destination and variety of modes of rides available.
- One cannot simply determine which company occupies a better position as different factors lead to difference in the choice of consumers. Difference in personal preference of each consumer leads to a competitive stage for both the companies where both need to evolve with better facilities in this dynamic environment.

Alas, irrespective of the competition between the two companies, there has been an increase in the ease of transportation facilities provided to the consumer. The increased availability of different modes of transport at economical rates for not only local but long distance travelling has made the consumers life more efficient.

It has not only created value for money but also ensures that the consumer reaches the desired location on time without any hustle.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY: In this study, a sample of 400 correspondents has been taken. This can be said as a constraint for the study.

The study has been conducted by taking individuals from Delhi and NCR region, thus, geographical range is restricted.

A general constrains of an explanatory examination and accommodation testing apes to the study.

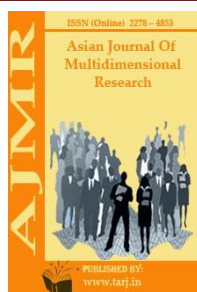
The biased nature of the correspondents due to their personal preferences might be a impediment to the study.

Lastly, the time span in which the exploration and examination has been done for the study might pose as an impediment to the study.

REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY:

- <http://gadgets.ndtv.com/apps/news/now-book-auto-rickshaws-in-bangalore-via-ola-cabs-623314>
- <http://www.businessinsider.com/how-to-get-a-5-star-uber-customer-rating-2015-2>
- <http://www.livemint.com/Companies/okLbTyf5OtqKnO1roYBAeP/Uber-vs-Ola-the-battle-for-dominance-in-Indias-cab-market.html>
- Smith, C. (2016). How Many People Use Uber and 42 Amazing Uber Statistics. [online] DMR. Available at: <http://expandedramblings.com/index.php/uber-statistics/> [Accessed 9 May 2016]
- Lu, C., Geng, W., & Wang, I. (2015). The Role of Self-Service Mobile Technologies in the Creation of Customer Travel Experiences. *Technology Innovation Management Review* , 24-32.
- Peng, L., Wang, H., He, X., Guo, D., & Lin, Y. (2014). Exploring Factors Affecting the User Adoption of Call-taxi App. 25th Australasian Conference on Information Systems. Auckland, New Zealand.
- Rahman, T. (2014). Organized sector radio taxi operator in Guwahati - A case study on "Prime cab". *International Journal of Advance and Innovative Research* , 1 (1), 19-25.
- Upadhyaya, M. (2013). Radio Taxi Services in Jaipur: A Learning Experience From Meri Car. *International Journal of Marketing Principles and Practices* , 3 (2(4)), 37-41.
- Vaithianathan, S., & Bolar, K. P. (2013). Meru cabs: Past, present and future tense. *Emerald's Emerging Markets Case Studies* , 3 (7), 1-12.
- http://articles.economicstimes.indiatimes.com/2014-09-02/news/53479832_1_ola-cabs-taxiforsure-uber
- <http://trak.in/tags/business/2015/05/13/ola-billing-issues/>

<https://www.forbes.com/sites/krnkashyap/2016/09/21/its-uber-vs-ola-for-the-battle-of-supremacy-in-the-indian-market/#13799aa5d99f>



RAJIV GANDHI SCHEME FOR EMPOWERMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRLS (SABLA): A STUDY

Ms. Payal Lamba*

*Assistant Professor,
P.G Department of Public Administration
Guru Nanak, Khalsa College,
Yamuna Nagar, Haryana, INDIA
Email id: payal7lamba@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Our country has a long tradition of social welfare. Its roots can be traced in the social system and in religious and philanthropic sentiments of the people. Welfare was considered to be a personal responsibility, obligation and a mechanism to attain salvation. Welfare appeared to be a part of overall social dynamics. As a consequence social welfare which continued to be an informal and voluntary process is gradually being transferred into a formal system official and voluntary. For empowerment of adolescent girls Central Government sponsored Rajiv Gandhi scheme 'SABLA' which is formally launched by State Govt. in march, 2011 on experiment basis in six districts of Haryana state i.e. Hisar, Ambala, Rohtak, Rewari, Yamuna Nagar and Kaithal. This new comprehensive scheme by merging two schemes nutrition programme for Adolescent girls & Kishori Shakti Yojna.

KEYWORDS: *Obligation, Voluntary, Sentiments, Experiment*

INTRODUCTION

Our country has a long tradition of social welfare. Its roots can be traced in the social system and in religious and philanthropic sentiments of the people. Welfare was considered to be a personal responsibility, obligation and a mechanism to attain salvation. Welfare appeared to be a part of overall social dynamics. The writings of philosophers pronouncements of thinkers and saints and a meticulous analysis of the mores, customs, practices etc. as they prevail in different parts of the country do highlight this reality.

People used to take care of the weak and the needy through a variety of institutional arrangements. In the contemporary era, the process and pace of development seem to have had an impact on the welfare dimensions. As a consequence social welfare which continued to be an informal and voluntary process is gradually being transferred into a formal system official and

voluntary Our Sovereign and Democratic Republic stands devoted to certify Justice, Social economic and political development for the people and to usher in a welfare state. After independence, the conception of social justice has become part and parcel of our constitution and is imitated not only in the Preamble even in the Directive Principles of State Policy and in the main body of the Constitution under various Articles.

For empowerment of adolescent girls Central Government sponsored Rajiv Gandhi scheme 'SABLA' which is formally launched by State Govt. in march, 2011 on experiment basis in six districts of Haryana state i.e. Hisar, Ambala, Rohtak, Rewari, Yamuna Nagar and Kaithal. This new comprehensive scheme by merging two schemes nutrition programme for Adolescent girls & Kishori Shakti Yojna.

Objectives of the schemes SABLA are:

- To qualify the adolescents girls for self-growth.
- To enhance their health status and nutrition level.
- To stimulate consciousness about health, hygiene, nutrition, adolescent reproductive, sexual health (ARSH), family and child care.
- To improve their vocational as well as home-based skills & Life Skills.
- To bestow information / assistance about a step towards learning/education and existing public services such as PHC, CHC, Bank, police station post office, etc.
- To provide formal / non formal education to adolescent girls out of school.

Services under SABLA Schemes:-

Under the SABLA scheme following services are provided to the girls:

➤ Iron and Folic Acid (IFA) Supplementation

The IFA supplementation is provided to out of school girls with convergence of health Department

➤ Health Check-up and Referral Services

On Kishore Diwas General Health check-ups for all school going and out of school girls are conducted at least once in three months.

➤ Nutrition & Health Education (NHED)

All the adolescent girls in the Anganwadi Centers jointly by the ICDS, Health Functionaries and resource Persons are provided nutrition and health related education.

➤ Counseling/Guidance on family welfare, ARSH, Child care practices and home management

Guidance related family welfare and counseling for child care, home arrangement etc. are provided at the Anganwadi Centre by the resource persons from NGOs with the help of Anganwadi Workers.

➤ Life Skill Educations and Accessing Public Services

In collaboration with PRI members, police personnel's, bank officials, post officials, health functionaries etc. Apprehension talks and visits are arranged. In co-ordination with Education Department Information/guidance about entry/re-entry into formal schools and motivation to do the same is also provided

➤ **Vocational Training**

To girls attained the age of 16 years and above gives vocational training under National Skill Development Program (NSDP) for orientation towards self-employment after 18 years of age.

➤ **Beneficiaries**

Adolescent Girls 11-18 years

➤ **Nutrition**

176897 adolescent girls of 11-14 years (out of school) and 14-18 years all girls (School going and out of school) have been targeted for providing supplementary nutrition @ of Rs. 5 per beneficiary for per day in a year.

➤ **Non-Nutrition**

308983 adolescent girls have been targeted to be covered under this component.

Budget Provision and Expenditure

A sum of Rs. 1170.00 lac was provided in the budget for the year 2017-18 and no. of beneficiaries was 119 in 2018 of adolescent girls and no. of beneficiaries has been increased now. There are 141 beneficiaries of adolescent girls in district Yamuna Nagar

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Current research study has been conducted in District Yamuna Nagar & Ambala as Yamuna Nagar. The district is surrounded by the state Himachal Pradesh in the North, Uttar Pradesh in the east, district of Karnal in South East and district Kurukshetra in South West and by Ambala District in West. The Yamuna Nagar District comprises of the Three Sub Division, Four Tehsils, Three Sub Tehsils and Six blocks.

There are number of schemes being implemented by Government of Haryana, presently for women welfare. The Primary data has been composed with the help of questionnaire of women welfare schemes. For this study on the basis of random sampling, in Yamuna Nagar District 50 respondents from SABLA scheme were selected. Collected data through questionnaire has been analysed which has further been portrayed in various tables.

HYPOTHESIS

Following are the hypothesis of the current study:

1. Due to the backwardness & ignorance of the rural people it is hypothesized that organizations are less developed in rural areas as compared to urban areas.
2. It is hypothesized that there is dearth of required information about the policies, schemes/programmes to the public.
3. The programmes/schemes for the women welfare may suffer due to the inherent structural handicaps.
4. The administrative machinery may have an irresponsible attitude towards the beneficiaries.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the current study are:

1. The implementation and evaluation of the welfare schemes going on for women should be examined critically.
2. The bottlenecks or weakness in implementation of schemes to be spotted.
3. To examine the growth, development & origin of ICDS programmes at district level.
4. To suggest the reforms in scheme implementation.

The present study was conducted to ascertain the impact of welfare schemes on socio-economic development of women in Haryana. The respondents asked questions and their response has been tabulated, processed and depicted in the tables given below.

PERCEPTION OF RESPONDENTS REGARDING

ASSISTANCE PROVIDED TO THE BENEFICIARIES:

Government of Haryana is being running a handful schemes through ICDS, Women Development Corporation, Women Welfare Office at District level. Supplementary nutrition and commodities are provided to the beneficiaries in SABLA scheme and cash amount of Rs. 21000/- per year or KisanVikasPatra are provided to the beneficiaries in ABHB scheme. During the survey the respondents were asked some questions:

1. How much amount did you actually obtain from the scheme?
2. Did you receive any of these benefits?
 - i) KVP
 - ii) Cash
 - iii) Supplementary Nutrient
 - iv) Vocational Training
 - v) Post office a/c

Their response is tabulated in Table 1.1

TABLE 1.1 YAMUNA NAGAR DISTRICT VIEWS REGARDING ASSISTANCE PROVIDED TO THE BENEFICIARIES

| Scheme | KVP | Cash | Supplementary Nutrient | Vocational Training | Post Office A/C | Total |
|------------------|-----|------|------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-----------|
| SABLA | - | - | 32 | 18 | - | 50 |
| Total Percentage | - | - | (64%) | (36%) | - | (100%) |

It is evident by table 1.1 that 64% respondents in YNR District supplementary nutrition i.e. (Iron, Folic, Acid etc) and 36% Respondents in YNR district are provided, vocational training and life skills (Clothes, Dupatta for hand work etc.) under SABLA scheme.

PERCEPTION OF THE RESPONDENTS REGARDING

THE PROCEDURE TO AVAIL THESE SCHEMES

It is essential to know whether the procedure is easy or complex to avail the benefits of schemes to the women, even if some privileges are being provided to them.

TABLE 1.2 DISTRICT YAMUNA NAGAR

| Scheme | Views in regard to the procedures to avail these schemes | | |
|------------------|--|-----------|-----------|
| | Easy | Complex | Total |
| SABLA | 28 | 22 | 50 |
| Total Percentage | (56%) | (44%) | (100%) |

Table 1.2 reveals that majority of 56% respondents in YNR district found the procedure easy to avail these benefits, while 44% respondents in YNR district respondents thought it is was very complex and cumbersome.

When beneficiaries go to the government office, they need information about schemes. As majority of citizens are illiterate in our country, they need the assistance of some functionary, to help them and give clarification. The information regarding the schemes can be of use if it is comprehensive, adequate and updated from time to time.

PERCEPTION OF RESPONDENTS

ABOUT THE ATTITUDE OF GOVT. OFFICIALS

The Respondents were asked the questions about the official's behavior towards them.

Their response has been organized in Table 1.3

TABLE 1.3 YAMUNA NAGAR DISTRICT

| Scheme | Attitude of government officials towards these privileges | | |
|------------------|---|------------------|-----------|
| | Co-operative | Non Co-operative | Total |
| SABLA | 22 | 28 | 50 |
| Total Percentage | (44%) | (56%) | (100%) |

Table 1.3 clearly indicates about the attitude of government officials towards beneficiaries. 44% of respondents in YNR district believed that behavior of officials is co-operative while rest 56% in YNR found the government officials are non-co-operative towards them and they told us that they have to go to them a number of times to enquire about the action taken on their application.

FINDINGS:

1. It has been noticed during the study that there is an absence of follow-up mechanism after the cash/KVP and supplementary nutrition has been disbursed. The officers rarely visit the beneficiaries to verify the assets and there is no information about the requirement of other installment of money or commodities.
2. There has been made elaborate arrangements for women welfare by the government but majority of respondents felt 56% in Yamuna Nagar District that due to illiteracy, backwardness and unawareness among the women, complex administrative procedures non-co-operation of government officials, absence of monitoring and follow up of programme, women are not able to gain much benefit from the schemes. Only few officials are helping the beneficiaries with sincerity.
3. It was found during the study that amount of financial assistance provided is quite less than the actual requirement. Moreover the amount sanctioned or demanded by the beneficiary is less. Hence beneficiaries find this amount or commodities insufficient to carry out the activity.
4. As it is clear from the study that beneficiaries faced some organizational problems. There is a

shortage of suitable staff. As the office has not been computerized the staff of the corporations is busy in accounting work and they can't give attention to the monitoring of schemes.

5. It was found during study whenever the applicants face any difficulty in regard to their application they hesitate to go to other officials. They always approach supervisors to make queries. It shows that supervisors have a major role to play in disbursement of benefits.

SUGGESTIONS:

On the basis of field scrutiny and reciprocation of officials /respondents during the fight path of study, some suggestions have been exhibited:

1. Special self -actualization and instigated programmes play very pre-eminent role for the better establishment of entrepreneurship. To make women more individualistic there must exist ever demanding training programmes. Professionally trained social workers should be employed at the project officers' level.
2. The bottlenecks and gaps of the previous plan or scheme should be cross examined so that alternative ameliorated schemes/ programmes can be formulated for the Women Welfare. There must exist inevitable take the plunge schemes.
3. For proper implementation of welfare schemes, officers need to be competent and efficient. In such matter training and blooming programmes are required at district level and State agency should play a progressive role to organize such required programmes for the officers.
4. Standards of service to be provide to the beneficiaries so that they could take legal or other resource in case they are not satisfied. Also all the procedures could be avail in such a systematic way so that dispute in most cases does not have to hand up in front of senior officers.
5. The educational and awareness programmes should be arranged to change the negative social attitudes towards women. The attitude of society needs to be changed about the potential of girls and their due role in society.
6. The programmes require expertise and technical skill, so for instance, women development corporations should be managed by technically qualified people on a commercial basis.

The central objective of welfare administration is to develop and put into effect whatever changes are required to enable the administrative organs of a government to execute public policies in an effective and responsible manner. It is not sufficient to pass the rules, laws, legal provision designed to meet the essential needs of the people, for those needs will not be met in different official unless the system of welfare departments can follow through with prompt and efficient execution. Improvements in different welfare officer and department, therefore, help assure that the intentions of a govt. are actually translated into action. The government should move to justify the trust and faith of the people in the government by taking up the implementation of the above mentioned suggestion.

REFERENCES

1. Annual report of National Commission for Women welfare.
2. Records collected from district level offices.
3. Records collected from (ICDS) at district level.
4. Records of Women Welfare Corporation at district level
5. Annual report of Department of Women & Child Development at state level, Chandigarh: Govt. of Haryana.

6. Annual report of Department of Women & Child Development at District level, Yamuna Nagar District.
7. Report of office of District Programme officer, Women & Child Development, Yamuna Nagar District.
8. Report of office of District Programme officer, Women Corporation, Yamuna Nagar District.
9. www.wcd.nic.in haryana
10. Sachdeva D.R. Social Welfare Administration in India, Kitab Mahal Publication, 2000
11. Siddiqui H.Y., Social Welfare in India, Harman Publications, 1990.

RAJIV GANDHI SCHEME FOR EMPOWERMENT OF ADOLESCENT GIRLS

A CASE STUDY

Interview Schedule for Beneficiaries of SABLA

1. Name : _____
2. Caste : _____
3. Age : _____
4. Do you know that the Government provides some special privileges for the upliftment of women?
(i) Yes (ii) No
5. Do you think that facilities regarding adolescent girl have benefited women?
(i) Very much (ii) To some extent
(iii) Very little (iv) Not at all.
6. Which type of service did you actually receive from the schemes?
(i) Supplementary Nutrition (Iron, Folic Acid, health Checkup, Protein)
(ii) Received in form of commodity (Cloth, Wool, Dupatta etc.)
(iii) Amount in cash
7. What do you feel about the procedure to avail these schemes?
(i) Easy (ii) Complex
8. Do you consider that there are sufficient numbers of employees present in welfare office?
(i) Yes (ii) No
9. What is the attitude of Government Officials?
(i) Co-operative (ii) Non-Co-operative
10. Are you satisfied with the service or help given to you?
(i) Yes (ii) No
11. Are these schemes/programmes for women welfare successful?
(i) Yes (ii) No
12. Any suggestions regarding improvement?

Ans. _____



ECOFEMINIST APPROACHES OF INDIAN WOMEN NOVELISTS

Dr. Ashima Gakhar*

*Associate Professor,
Botany Department
KVA DAV College for Women,
Karnal, Haryana, INDIA
Email id: drashimagakhar@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Ecology is defined as the reciprocal relationship between the living and the nonliving components of the planet. India, with its rich ecological diversity has always been appreciative of nature. Our 'Vedas' and old scriptures are a testimony to the fact that nature and literature have been closely connected since times immemorial. However, the past century has seen a lot of devastation in the name of development namely industrialization, urbanization and non-judicious use of natural resources. Literary folks, especially women, out of their sensitivity and responsibility took the onus of writing about environment. Consequently, the term Ecofeminism was coined. Ecofeminism is an inter-disciplinary approach, drawing information from various thoughts and subjects. This new concept has inculcated the idea of writing, reading and thinking not only about women but also environment. Apparently, women and men relate to nature in distinct ways. Women are the survivors of ecological devastation and providers of insights for better management of the environment. Consequently, their 'work with words' celebrates ecology and environment in many ways. Women have a more intimate relationship with nature, so much so that the renowned writer, Vandana Shiva, opines "the marginalization of women and the destruction of biodiversity go hand in hand." (Staying Alive: Women, Ecology and Survival in India, 2010) My paper, emphasizes on how the nature is an inseparable component of writing especially of the Indian female fiction writers. An attempt has been made to draw interesting inferences from the writings of some authors of the Indian subcontinent. Nature fascinates them and finds an expression through their works at different levels. Nature quite like woman herself portrays many a role. It can be an element of beauty to be appreciated, or a bountiful giver to be revered, or a platform of endurance of change from rural to urban society, or a bouquet of resources to utilize and preserve for our future generations, or a shield that takes the wrath of all human endeavors.

KEYWORDS: *Ecology, Diversity, Resources, Endurance*

INTRODUCTION

The term Ecofeminism is comprised of two words, Eco + Feminism. The word Eco comes from the term Ecology which is defined as the study of reciprocal relationships between the living and the nonliving components of the planet (PD Sharma. Ecology and Environment), while the term feminism means the practice of treating all genders alike. It is about respecting diverse women's experiences, identities, knowledge and strengths judging the merits and faults of something. A literary eco-feminist is the one who tries to textualize this closely knit relationship between nature and women through his/her works. Environmental feminism or Ecofeminism, now considered an emerging field in literary field, has been in existence ever since man started writing, and/or reflecting on other people's writings. However, the past century has seen a lot of environmental devastation in the name of development namely industrialization, urbanization and non-judicious use of natural resources. Literary folks, out of their sensitivity and responsibility took the onus of writing about environment. Ecofeminist thinkers draw on the concept of gender to analyze the relationships between humans and the natural world. The term was coined by the French writer Françoise d'Eaubonne in her book *Le Féminisme ou la Mort* (1974).

Ecofeminism has expanded a writer's world to include the ecosphere in its entirety, its living beings, human beings, plants, animals alike as well as soil, water bodies, mountains, air, stars etc. It derives information methods and suggestions from other subjects, literary, scientific and social and hence is best understood with an inter-disciplinary approach. Ecofeminists explore human behaviour towards the environment as expressed in nature writing. They tend to review literary works in the light of queries such as whether the nature is being represented in a literary text or if the physio-geographical settings of a place find a mention and importance in the work or if the words and expressions are eco-ethically correct and consistent with the ecological wisdom or if in addition to class, gender and race environment should also become a new critical category. Most ecological works and references to nature share a common motive which is to create general awareness that we have stretched the environment to its limits, and also that the human activities are damaging the planet's basic life support structure. This awareness inculcates in us a desire to contribute to environmental restoration, not as a hobby but as a representative of literary society.

Apparently, women and men relate to nature in distinct ways. Women are the survivors of ecological devastation and providers of insights for better management of the environment. Consequently, their 'work with words' celebrate ecology and environment in many ways. Women have a more intimate relationship with nature, so much so that the renowned writer, Vandana Shiva, opines "the marginalization of women and the destruction of biodiversity go hand in hand". Nature fascinates them and finds an expression through their works at different levels.

UNDERSTANDING NATURE THROUGH WOMEN'S WORKS AND WORDS:

Kamala Markandaya (1924-2004), a great Indian novelist used Nature and its elements for her flawless and fascinating writing. She considers nature as a destroyer and preserver both. Her well known novel, "**Nectar in a Sieve**", is a fine case of ecofeminist content in which nature exhibits itself as a bountiful giver as well as a destroyer. The essence of this is found justification as she narrates,

“While the sun shines on you and the fields are green and beautiful to the eye, and your husband sees beauty in you, which no one has seen before, and you have a good store of grain laid away for hard times, a roof over you and a sweet stirring in your body, what more can a woman ask for?” (7)

Rukmani, the protagonist in the novel is appreciative of the simple pleasures that nature offers. She sees the beauty in the shining sun and the greenery in the fields just as her husband, Nathan sees beauty in her that everyone else was oblivious of. She praises the lord for all that nature has offered when she wonders what more a woman could ask for. These lines highlight the close contact between the women and nature and how a women’s true joy comes from fulfilment of basic necessities and not luxuries.

“You will get used to it” Nathan said.” After many sowings and harvesting you will not notice these things.” There have been many sowings and harvestings, but the wonder has not departed. (13)

Here, the author attempts to bring out the difference between man’s and woman’s perception towards basic act of nature. For Rukmani, every germinating seed and unfurling green leaf is a wonderous site while for Nathan, it is just another act of sowing and harvesting. Rukmani sees the harvest as assign of fertility. Her hope springs from her firm belief in nature as is depicted in the line,

“You will see,” he said with confidence. “We will find our strength. One look at the swelling grain will be enough to renew our vigour.”(93)

The novel has its setting in the period of industrial development shortly after India gained independence. This has been beautifully and blatantly utilized by the author to express change from rural to industrial urban world and how this change affects female’s life for good or for worse.

‘It is true, one gets used to anything. I had got used to the noise and the smell of the tannery; they no longer affected me. I had seen the slow, calm beauty of our village wilt in the blast of our town...’ (62)

Nature with its all-pervading power provides a platform of endurance and hope in the works of Markandaya.

Anita Desai (1937 till date), another woman novelist par excellence, works through her characters in complete harmony with nature. All her stories take place in a particular environmental setup which changes and unfolds in various ways through chronological events, flashbacks and flashforwards. She makes her writings interesting and informative using creative examples from the flora and fauna around. Nature is all pervasive in Anita Desai’s “**Clear Light of Day**”. The story describes the psychological pressures and tensions undergone by the members of a post-partition Indian family. References of alterations in their surrounding environment give a new dimension to the theme of the disintegration and re-establishment of human ties. The novel epitomises Anita Desai’s warmth, and tenderness towards her natural surroundings.

Ecofeminist element is noteworthy as the novel starts with an illustration of the garden.

The koels began to call before daylight. (7) and the author emphasises on nature which brings a lot of freshness and entertainment, and more significantly is a reminder of happier childhood

times. On her return to their home, Tara is pained to see the state of her childhood garden. There is lack of maintenance as it is, "overgrown", "neglected" & "uncontrolled" (29)

filled with dirt and dryness, and the flowers of rose bushes are weak. The garden personifies the life of Das siblings which once was well-tended, cared for, full of joy and hope, as when they were small, but now it is neglected, uncared for and depressing.

The author brings out the intricacies of human relationships, especially between Tara, Bim, Raja and Aunt Mira relating them to the non-human co-habitants of nature. For example, when the gardener tends and waters the garden, bringing out the green scent of watered earth and refreshed plants. (26) and mosquitoes are mentioned at the beginning as "singing and stinging". Tara recalls the "rustic pleasures" that she used to derive from the garden, and longs to run to the guava trees and find a whole one to bite into. Aunt Mira and the children are compared to plants and trees, Aunt Mira being the tree that grew at the centre of their lives. (114)

This metaphor is continued when Baba is compared to a "*plant grown underground*", emphasizing the difference between him and his siblings, as he is the autistic child. Aunt Mira and Tara are also compared to birds, on different occasions. Aunt Mira, weak with alcoholism, almost ceased to be human, became bird instead, and old bird with its feathers plucked, its bones jutting out from under the blue tinged skin, too antique, too crushed to move. (102) the comparison of a bird that is too weak to fly appears quite appropriate for a woman who gets widowed and rejected by her in-laws and has no aspirations left.

The author makes emphatic comments when she draws a parallel between the flowing river and human life-

Isn't it strange how life won't flow, like a river, but moves in jumps, as if it were held back by locks that are opened now and then to let it jump forwards in a kind of flood? There are these long still stretches-nothing happens-each day is exactly like the other plodding, uneventful-and then suddenly there is a crash. (47)

Recalling the summer of 1947, Bim makes this remark while talking to Tara. She is comparing life to a river that is contained and controlled, moves slowly, but then a lot of water gushes out at once when it is in its real natural self, before it gets dammed again. The Das siblings mostly had a slow and dull childhood, but occasionally unpredictable times such as the partition times, Raja's illness tore the family apart. These times of turmoil, the author compares with the gushing of water in the river of life.

Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni is one among the most talented women writers of the Indian subcontinent. Nature and its magical powers abound in her book, "**The Mistress of Spices**". As the title of the novel depicts, the spices play a very significant role and the protagonist of the novel, Tilotamma has mastered the ancient art of using the Indian spices in a foreign land. She not only smells the spices but can also sense them. It is noteworthy that the writer starts her novel with a thought-provoking soliloquy...

I am a Mistress of Spices.

I can work the others too. Mineral, metal, earth and sand and stone.

The gems with their cold clear light.

The liquids that burn their hues into your eyes till you see nothing else.

I learned them all on the island.

But the spices are my love. (3)

The novel is divided into 15 chapters of which thirteen chapters are named after different spices such as Turmeric, Cinnamon, Fenugreek, Asafoetida, Fennel, Ginger, Peppercorn, KaloJire, Neem, Red Chilli, Makaradwaj, Lotus Root and Sesame through which the author talks about the hidden powers of these elements of nature and their role in alleviation of human sufferings. The other two chapters are named after Tilo and Maya, the original and the final self of the protagonist of the story, the mistress of these spices. This goes a long way in emphasising that the spices are not just flavouring agents in her book. Rather, they are characters that can talk, suggest, reveal and eventually heal their users at the behest of their mistress...

Peppercorn which has the ability to sweat out your secrets(149);

Adrak ginger, be with me(125);

Fennel, brown as mud and bark and leaf dancing in a fall breeze, smelling of changes to come(149);

I hear the spices crying to me, a sound like hot hands pressed over the ears. Pull away pull away Tilo, before you are welded down(99);

But inside I am praying to the spices(237);

Such is the power of nature in Divakaruni's work presented via these spices.

Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni has beautifully employed five elements of nature the air, water, earth, space, and fire. colours to add details to her story. The Shampati fire (5) which turns Tilo into a spice girl, the sea that belches out Tilo to the Old One, water through which Bhagawati sends messages, the sea mist through which the mistresses are given their new names (7). These names too are guided by elements of nature such as Aprajita after the flower, Piya after Pinal tree.

Her expressions beautify the text and make it so readable. Similarly, colour is another element that has been successfully used by the writer, days of the week have their specific colours, for example Wednesday, the day of Fennel has brown colour (104), yellow colour signifies the new-year, green is for harvest, and red means the luck of bride. Divakaruni has used nature and its elements to her best to make this work magnificent.

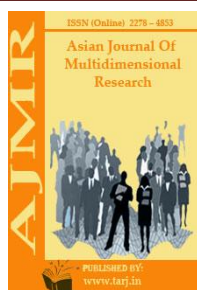
CONCLUSION

To sum it up, Nature is an inseparable component of writing especially of the Indian female fiction writers. It can be an element of beauty to be appreciated, or a bountiful giver to be revered, or a platform of endurance of change from rural to urban society, or a bouquet of resources to utilize and preserve for our future generations, or a shield that takes the wrath of all human endeavors. This is bound to go a long way in creating awareness regarding dwindling eco-balance and understanding the importance of its protection and preservation. The literary works of Indian women writers, in particular, have supported the cause of our environmentalists in their own beautiful way. This calls for a big applause.

REFERENCES

1. (Merchant, Carolyn. "Chapter 8. In Radical ecology: the search for a livable world. New York: Routledge, 1992. 184)

2. Warren, Karen (September 2002). "Karen Warren's Ecofeminism". *Ethics & the Environment*. 7 (2): 12–26.
3. Shiva, Vandana (1988). *Staying alive: women, ecology and development*. London: Zed Book.
4. Anita Desai. *Clear Light of Day*: A Mariner Book, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, New York, 1980
5. Kamala Markandaya. *Nectar In A Sieve*: Jaico Publishing House. Mumbai. 1956
6. Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni. *The Mistress of Spices*: Black Swan.1997
7. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ecofeminism>
8. PD Sharma. *Ecology and Environment*. Rastogi Publications. 2011



THE MYSTERY OF STATE SPONSORED VIOLENCE IN THE SELECT WORKS OF HANNAH ARDENT

Monika Sethi*

*Assistant Professor,
Department of English, Govt. Ranbir College,
Sangrur, Punjab, INDIA

ABSTRACT

The interplay of terror and authority compelled Ardent to re-examine the relevance of “transitional justice” pioneered by the Nuremberg Trials. Her idea of vulnerability versus survivability underscores an unreasoned schism in responsiveness towards certain forms of violence. She grapples with the thought: how some lives are more worthy of protection while others doomed to destruction? When a homicide amounting to the murder of hundreds and thousands of innocent people is summed up as “the final solution” in the name of ethnic cleansing, she finds it hard to accept the spurious claims of the state to be the ultimate protector of peace.

KEYWORDS: *Intellectuals, Military Operations, Sovereignty, Cultural Studies, Holocaust.*

INTRODUCTION

Aim of the Paper

Role of the intellectuals in altering the world to be more equitable and a just abode is one of the most engaging domains of Cultural studies. The paper renders a significant comprehension of this domain and its functionality to intervene into the present in order to remake the future. One of the major issues raised through this research paper is Hannah Ardent and her reflections on the state sponsored violence which is particularly relevant in relation to the new and emergent forms of dominance and repression. The difficulty of tolerance, danger to dissent and multiple resistance movements in India and abroad are testimony to the fact that we have learnt no lessons from history. And, enormous number of people are made vulnerable and isolated by undemocratic political and social events. Ardent’s apparent distrust over sovereign protection of the state emphasizes a relatively more reliable structure created by law and a coherent public realm. Hannah Ardent’s relevance as a critical thinker and her writings on the issues of civil liberties, state sponsored violence, personal responsibilities for atrocities, crimes against humanity, international justice and culture of criminality in politics become all the more crucial

for contemporary world where fanatically stereotypical representational of religion have come to trample down the democratic values of equality and liberty.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Hannah Ardent remains one of the pioneering voices of the holocaust. Her stance particularly regarding the responsibility of the Jews for their tragedy might be controversial to many thinkers. But, her concepts of violence, public realm and individual responsibility have evoked considerable attention from intellectuals. In her book *Between War and Politics: International Relations and Thought of Hannah Ardent*(2007), Patricia Owens renders a forceful case of Hannah Ardent's persistent relevance to the understanding of terror, its perpetrators and its instruments. The book *Hannah Ardent, Totalitarianism, and the Social Sciences*(2010) by Peter Baehr examines Ardent's idea of Totalitarianism in terms of an unprecedented evil. Apart from analyzing Ardent's critique of social sciences, Baehr studies her philosophy in the context of Islamic terrorism and scrutinizes its possibilities to be equated with the Stalinist and social nationalist tendencies of totalitarianism. Danna Villa's *Politics, Philosophy, Terror: Essays on the Thought of Hannah Ardent* (1999) reiterates Ardent's contribution in intensifying our understanding of political evil in the contemporary world. *Hannah Ardent: A Recovery of the Public World* (1979) is an engaging collection of essays edited by Melvyn A. Hill. These reflections in the book configure a critical appraisal of Ardent's political theory and establish her as one of the most influential thinkers of twentieth century. The texts mentioned above evaluate Ardent's political and philosophical thought and adequately contextualize her writings, reinforcing her relevance in the contemporary world but do not take up the question of state ideology or the role of public intellectual.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research paper tries to delve into the conflicts encompassing the role of intellectuals in both the academy and in politics. It involves mapping of the concepts and paradigms formulating Gramsci's "organic intellectual". Hannah Ardent's abiding involvement with the socio-political issues have come to signify her political activism stemming from her intellectual response. In order to bring out Ardent's socio-political issues particularly pertaining to the Nazi violence I would refer to Julien Benda's *The Treason of the Intellectuals* where the central concern is the role of the intellectuals in generating counter-hegemony. Ardent claims that the Nazi regime thrived on propaganda and a fabricated world view. Through the contemporary debates concerning the post truth politics, I have tried to study the conduits of force and coercion manipulated by the institutions of the state. In order to study the varying patterns of political violence explored by Ardent; critical insights will be incorporated from the theory of totalitarianism in the context of Althusser's concept of ideology and the functioning of state machinery. While distinguishing between the "just" and "unjust" war, one confronts a profound question whether we could truly justify war. Michael Walzer's *Just and Unjust Wars* (1977) and *Arguing About War* (2004) are significant to the fundamentals of the aspirations of citizens and requirements of justice in relation to war. Ardent's substantive work on violence and war articulate her distaste for the idea of "justifying" or "humanizing" war.

Introduction

A holocaust survivor and a witness of the two World Wars, Ardent's situation gives her a vantage point from where she could comprehend more than what was visible to the general eye. She claims that advent of nuclear bombs during World War II marks unforeseen limits of

violence and destruction in human history. It foreshadows an apocalyptic end of the world credited to advanced technological instruments accelerating modern warfare. The all-new horrifying face of terror with its myriad cognates manifests the grim excesses of twentieth century political scenario. These include aggressive claims to racial purity, insatiable greed for usurping other national territories, establishing religious supremacy and exerting control over thinking and action which propels a bellicose purposefulness in individuals, groups and states for deploying violence. It is this purposeful violence which Hannah Ardent implicates in her political thought.

The interplay of terror and authority compelled Ardent to re-examine the relevance of transitional justice pioneered by the Nuremberg Trials. Her idea of vulnerability versus survivability underscores an unreasoned schism in responsiveness towards certain forms of violence. She grapples with the thought: how some lives are more worthy of protection while other doomed to destruction? When a homicide amounting to the murder of hundreds and thousands of people is summed up as the final solution in the name of ethnic cleansing, she finds it hard to accept the spurious claims of the state to be the ultimate protector of peace.

The shifting paradigms of “just” and “unjust” war, military operations within and outside the state to put people in line, the detention camps, growing difficulty of tolerance, resurfacing fears inspiring people to incline towards fascism in the two largest democracies of the world are the innumerable incidences of state sponsored violence seeking intellectual intervention and reaffirm Hannah Ardent as a crucially significant thinker in coming to grips with the contemporary political and cultural dilemmas.

Main Article

Historical arguments regarding the role of what Gramsci specified as “organic intellectuals” configure among the core issues in contemporary Cultural Studies. These intellectuals would not only theorize but initiate a counter-hegemonic crusade beyond the confines of academia to shatter the orientations that challenge the legitimacy of the public space. One of the key concerns of this intellectual practice is to deconstruct the phenomena of “politics” surrounded by considerable uncertainty. The new social movements and activism subsumed under such intellectual practice mark a step towards the exoneration of politics from the derogatory connotations it has acquired over time. So much so, that the expression intellectual practice as politics is quite acceptable within the recent debates signifying the role of intellectuals in creating social awakening. In the light of the above description of an intellectual and the associated activism, this project sets out to relocate Hannah Ardent’s contribution towards the pedagogies that propose a different world, a better place thriving on the principles of human plurality and tolerance.

One of the most influential political theorists of twentieth century, Ardent embarks upon a lifelong confrontation with the mystery of state sponsored violence through her writings. Moreover, her allegiances to the Zionist movement before moving to the United States and later on her evident lobbying with the Vietnam War protesters and her unconditional support to the Black students’ Movement during the 1960’s and 70s are symptomatic of her role as both a theorist and an activist. Her exile from Germany in 1933 initiated her preoccupation with the idea of state terror. Her corpus including *The Origins of Totalitarianism* (1951), *On Human Condition* (1958), *On Revolution* (1963), *On Violence* (1969), is instrumental in understanding the dialectics of violence.

Here, the concept of state and notion of enigma in relation to violence perpetuated by state entail a careful examination of both. The philosophical primacy of state as outlined by Kant and later on adopted by Hegel, invites serious contentions while discussing the limitations imposed by the ideological and repressive state apparatus. Hence, the state which once embodied the truly ethical turns out to be devouring experience in terms of the rights of citizens. The prevailing structure of states worldwide including the democratic, communist and the socialist republic defies the basic assumption of a state. It exposes the fundamental disagreement between abstract notions of a state in terms of social, legal and administrative systems committed to ensure the protection of each citizen living under its aegis and the atrocious realities of the contemporary state sustained by violation of human rights and violence. Moreover, using the word enigma or mystery in the context of state endorsed violence might strike as exaggeration of an otherwise evinced and established fact.

Human history stands as a witness to the very idea of the state emerging out of violence; whereby, clearly different provinces welded together by force, consent or coercion come to designate a specific geographical, cultural and economic sphere led by an administration based on shared beliefs. Nonetheless, the multilevel functioning of a state requires a careful investigation into its sovereignty, multitudinous, multidimensional motives and justice. The enigma could be simplified in terms of ethical responsibility, collective crime and collateral damage. Hannah Ardent meditates on the provenance of violence which acquired a rather ubiquitous and banal character during the Nazi regimes. She prioritizes the term “Totalitarianism” over tyranny and dictatorship to describe the unprecedented crimes perpetuated by the Nazi state against Jews, gypsies and the so-called enemies of the state. Hannah Ardent’s intellectual and political tradition has come to signify the site of political critique and intervention. Despite being a Jew, she stands among the pioneers to challenge the authenticity of the Zionist Movement in the state of Israel. She began as a rebel against Nazism and transcends to look at the larger implications of violence.

Ardent’s distinctions between the public and the private realm have been widely challenged and remain one of the prominent issues to be validated. The world wars provided watershed moments for the western intellectuals and how they responded to the patriotic question in their respective positions as writers, teachers and leaders remain debatable. Julien Benda asserts that the foremost duty of an intellectual is to be independent of the ideologies and biases of his/her ethnic, religious or communal identity. It argues that the role of the intellectual is to critically scrutinise the actions of a community and question wherever necessary to uphold the ethics of tolerance and human plurality underscoring the very meaning of civilization.

As a true intellectual, Ardent questions the conventional wisdom of her times and advocates a broad perspective encompassing an unbiased world view. She has tried to seek to examine subtle dichotomies of the menace of violence perpetuated by the state in the garb of a peace maker and patron of humanitarian prospects. She remains susceptible to conferring sovereignty upon the institutions and deprecates the use of violence by authority for attaining social change. Her personal experiences with the holocaust have certain unavoidable bearings on her thought and the most significant reflections on the issue find place in *The Origins of Totalitarianism* (1951). Totalitarianism implied a total denial of existing human values and shattered all beliefs of traditional European thinking. Ardent’s *On Violence* (1970) largely deals with challenge of violence emitting from the state system. Here, the focus is on the instruments of violence, with the nuclear weapons at hand, wars are no longer means to end disputes but to end all life.

One of the primary constituents of Ardent's critique is Ideology. And, this overt form of political lying experiences the most consequential manifestations in totalitarianism. Ardent painstakingly traces the winding path that pushed anti-Semitism into an ideology supporting the Nazi propaganda. The Nazi regime fed on fear and isolation and Jews were relegated to the status of cattle, driven constantly to the ghettos and purged in oblivion. An implacable alliance between the repressive and ideological forms of the state apparatus paves way for a continuous surge of violence.

Hannah Ardent questions the legitimacy of deploying violence as a measure for state control and relevance of the counter-regimes involving the so-called enemies of the state and non-conformists to thwart this control. Here, the challenge is to analyse the perplexities involved in waging war against "apocalyptic terrorism" characterized by unsparing suicidal intent, unwilling to make any distinctions between civilians and armed forces with a proclaimed goal of massive destruction. Ardent draws some relevant distinctions between war and revolution in *On Revolution* (1963) that could provide a foreground to the debate Ardent lays the foundations of while chewing over the incongruity between freedom and tyranny.

A detailed discussion on "Just War Theory" is incorporated to appropriate the comprehensive doctrine of common good. Hannah poses very crucial questions; what could be justifiable about war? How the non-combatant civilians could judge the legitimacy of sending forces of their country to kill and be killed? Who could decide the fate of the seized territory? How far the citizens could be absolved from the responsibility of the repercussions of war because they have consented indirectly through their chosen representatives in most cases? For a society based on the norms of human plurality, reciprocity and mutuality it becomes mandatory to weigh the obligations of ethical responsibility giving way to publicly accepted standards without compromising individual freedom for the common good.

CONCLUSION

The research project endeavours to enhance the comprehension of state sponsored violence as a ubiquitous and precarious political concern transcending boundaries of the occidental and oriental. Manifestations of uncertainty reflecting inherently transitional dimensions engender the legitimacy crisis of the nation state. Re-emergence of nationalism in terms of the reassertion of identity has led to political manipulation and mobilization resulting in rampant violence. The confessions of the prisoners of Guantanamo, the plight of refugees, a near civil-war condition in India, and the latest electoral outcome of the American Democracy are but a few instances of the loss of meaning which could be countered by political discourses that visualize coherence and stability in active citizenship secured by the public realm.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Althusser, Louis. "*Ideology and Ideological State Apparatus,*" *Lenin and Philosophy and other Essays*. Trans. Ben Brewster Monthly Review Press, 1970. Print.

Ardent, Hannah. *The Human Condition*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958. Print.

---. *On Revolution*. London: Penguin, 1990. Print.

---. *The Origins of Totalitarianism*. New York: The World Publishing Co., 1958. Print.

---. *On violence*. New York: Penguin, 1970. Print.

Baehr, Peter. *Introduction. Hannah Ardent, Totalitarianism, and the Social Sciences*. By Baehr. California: Stanford UP, 2010.1-9. Print.

Benda, Julien. *The Treason of the Intellectuals*. Trans. Richard Aldington, Richard. New York: Norton, 1969. Print.

Gramsci, Antonio. "Prison Notebooks: The Intellectuals." *An Anthology of Western Marxism: From Lukacs and Gramsci to Socialist Feminism*. Ed. Roger S. Gottlieb. NY: Oxford UP, 1989.112-119. Print.

Owens, Patricia. *Between War and Politics: International Relations and Thought of Hannah Ardent*. Oxford: Oxford UP, 2007. Print.

Villa, Dana. ed. *The Cambridge Companion to Hannah Ardent*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP, 2000. Print.



LIBERTINE AND GRACEFUL WOMEN: A GLIMPSE INTO MANUSMṚTIḤ AND ITS COMPANION-TEXTS

Dr. Alka Tyagi*

*Associate Professor in English,
Dayal Singh College (Eve),
University of Delhi,
New Delhi, INDIA

ABSTRACT

In this paper, the attempt is to examine those verses from original text of Manusmṛtiḥ in which sage Manu derides women. Does he speak from prejudices against women or from the vantage point of a keeper of dharma for the dharma-based conception of Hindu-society regardless of caste, class and gender? In fact a deeper look into the text reveals that even though Manu is very derisive towards women in some of his infamous statements, his laws for women are actually not aimed to malign women in particular. His discriminations arise from within the context of a patriarchal set-up. He clearly talks about two types of women- libertine as well as gracious in the chapter nine of his famous text, which proves that he actually recognizes the virtues of good women as much as he deprecates the sinful ones. Besides, he ascribes harsh punishment not only to sinful women but also all of those who don't adhere to their dharma within the Varṇāśrama. This paper also looks at the Yājñavalkya and Pārāśara smṛti-s in order to gain a comparative perspective.

KEYWORDS: *Manusmṛtiḥ, Dharmasāstras, Pārāśarasṁṛti, Yājñavalkyasmṛti, Smṛti Literature.*

INTRODUCTION

Women, the Son-Bearing Creatures

The Vedas are Śruti compositions that reveal mantras, invocations, chants and modes of worships of Vedic deities through yajña. Smṛti is a general term used for texts that are remembered and are produced by humans. In this sense Smṛti-s include the entire corpus of literature that comes after Vedas viz. the epics (Rāmāyaṇa, Mahābhārata), and purāṇa-s, bhāṣya-s, and works on ethics and economics etc. fall in the Smṛti category. However, this term became synonymous with literature related to law-manuals popularly known as dharmasāstras. Many wise sages composed such manuals most of which are not extant now, but eighteen Smṛti-s authors mentioned in the Vṛiddhagautam Smṛti are: Manu, Bṛhaspati, Dakṣa, Gautam, Yama, Aṅgīrasa, Yogīśvara [Yājñavalkya], Pracetas, Śātātapa, Pārāśara, Saṁvarta, Ūśnas,

Śankha, Likhita, Atri, Viṣṇu, Āpastamba, and Hārīta.¹ The number of Smṛti –Rishis is not definitive but amongst a few of the *Smṛti* texts that have gained fame and popularity are those of sage Yājñavalkya, sage Pārāśara and sage Manu. The subject of these texts is same i.e. codes of conduct, laws for the varnashramas and the punishment for breach of law; however, the content is dealt differently by different rishis. In this regard sage Pārāśara makes a very interesting statement in his frame narrative, which is a comment not only Indian vision of ‘*Sanātana-dharma*’ but also why Manu is the celebrated prime law-giver. He says that although he is giving these laws for *kāli-yuga* in his own *Pārāśarasṁṛti* but the laws of Manu are the source of laws that are followed in all Yugas. He gives the reason that in all *yugas*, it is Brahma, Vishnu and Mahesh who actually conceive the laws of creation and sage Manu relates them according to the suitability of laws for each Yuga. Thus, sage *Pārāśara* says that he isn’t creating the laws but just recapitulating Manu’s laws for the Kali Yuga².

The focus of *dharmaśāstras* texts has been on creating a manual of instructions for a perfected day-to-day life of people in Hindu society.

The ancient Hindu thinking revolved around creating a well-balanced social set up that focused on a righteous life in which procreation, self-evolution through education, and final liberation. For this reason, the second stage within the four stages of Hindu life, i.e. the householder (*grhasthāśrama*) stage is considered to be the most important stage in the life of a Hindu. Women are the equal half in this man-woman unit that is required for procreation; therefore, ancient law books painstakingly make a format of social ethics for women in which women actually become a medium for son-reproduction. All the other details of their life were woven around this singular fact. Yājñavalkya *smṛti* boldly mentions women should be taken care of because (only) they can produce sons – ‘*putrotpatyartham striyaḥ sevyāḥ ityuktaim*’. In the verse 1.78, the sage gives an insight into general belief about how men want to ensure the immortality for their lineage through sons and grandsons, “Continuity of lineage in this world and attainment of heaven (*svarga*) is assured through sons, grandsons and grand-grandsons. Since only women can perform these two acts, therefore they are ‘*upbhogya*’ (lit. to be consumed, enjoyed); and should be suitably protected.”³

Most of the ancient societies across the world have generally been patriarchal, the reason for which have been discussed at length by historians. Amongst other reasons like control and channeling of women’s sexuality, one of the most significant one was constant wars amongst different social groups that raised value of son-bearing women. If one accepts the widely received theory of Aryans as invaders, then it is clear that they needed armies of men and women’s main function in such a scenario was marriage and motherhood. In the Vedic age, when Aryan’s have become a settled race then there is evidence found in Vedic literature that women’s position was quite respectable. There are hymns like *rātri sūkta* (10:127) and the *vāk sūkta* (10:125) from Rig-Veda where the rishi, the seer is a woman. While these *sūkta* indicate the education along with spiritual and intellectual heights that women could achieve in the Vedic period, there is *akṣa sūkta* (10.34) or a gambler’s lament, which gives an idea that women as wife and mother are very important figures in a man’s life and that he cares for their opinion.

In the Vedic age and post Vedic era, women’s position could have been that of an equal companion in all the religious and worldly undertakings. As Yajna was an essential rite for Brahmin householders, both, wife and husband conducted the fire-rituals. Girls could have the ‘*upanayana-sanskara*’. They were given opportunities for education and they could choose to engage in study throughout their lives. Some women could choose to teach.⁴ Youth was the time

for marriage for women and childhood. However, one doesn't get a clue about the financial rights of women in this age.

Later, in the *purāna* and the *smṛti* period, there was a decline in women's position in the society at all levels –education became restricted, age of marriage was reduced from youth to child-marriage⁵, man's control over wife became supreme and was idealized. The *upanayanasamskāra* was denied to women⁶ and therefore the study of Vedas was also denied. "The marriage is the *Vedic saṃskāra (yajñopavīta)* for women; to serve the husband is her gurukula-stay; and to do the household-chores is her fire-ceremony (*agni-sevā/homa*)."

This notion is reflected in the *mānava-dharamasāstra*, Sage Manu's law-book for the society. This text is from 2nd BC to 3rd AD, and was first amongst the first Sanskrit texts translated by Sir William Jones in 1776. *Manusmṛtiḥ*, as it is popularly known today, is the most renowned law-book that has become ingrained in the psyche of Indian masses and still shapes ideas about customs, manners, rites de passage, penance for sins, ethics and judgments including all kinds of punishments for crimes. These laws and punishments are different for the four different groups of people. There *brahmaṇas* are the most celebrated caste and *sūdras* are very degraded in the *Manusmṛtiḥ*.

In the beginning of chapter nine of *Manusmṛtiḥ* gender roles are defined, and nature of women and their duties and functions are stated. Interestingly, the sage describes two types of women. The first type consists of the fallen ones who should be avoided and the second type are desirable ones who needed to be tamed, protected and ruled over by men. One has to grant Sage Manu the benefit of perspective and must say that the rules set by him are not discriminating against women; he is equally harsh on men if they falter in their respective dharma within the conceived social set-up that is patriarchy. In the following pages, we shall look at how two kinds of women emerge in sage Manu's book of rules. However, his underpinning declaration about women's nature is that it must be tamed.

Libertine Women

There are women who are essentially libertine and sexually proactive. They don't care about character of the man or about the appropriateness of situation; they don't see if the man is good-looking or ugly- whatever kind of man they find, they engage in sex with him (9.14). Such women are frivolous and fickle-minded, they want to have sex with a man as soon as they see one, they are naturally heartless and they act against the will of their husband even if they are extremely well-provided by him (9.15).

Sage Manu says that *vidhātā*, the creator himself, has created them in that fashion, so they should be tamed and protected by men even at the cost of one's life. A woman should never be left independent. In a very famous verse, sage declares that a woman must be protected by her father in her childhood; by her husband in youth; and by her sons in her old age (9.3). However, no one can bind or protect a woman by force, therefore she should be directed to do household chores and activities like managing of household expenditure and savings, cleansing of body etc. cooking, cleaning, and upkeep of the household articles and so on. (9.11).

Then he describes six sins that women commit if they are left free. These six sins of women who are not protected are: drinking, sensual attachment with men of bad character, abandonment of the husband, purposeless roaming, sleeping at odd times and to live in other's homes.

Yājñavalkya's punishment for wanton women is that such a woman should be divested of all her rights. Everything including clothes, jewelry, make-up (kohl etc.) should be taken away from her; and she should be made to sleep on the floor in miserable conditions for the rest of her life. (I.70).

Pure and gracious (like Sri or Lakshmi, the goddess of wealth and prosperity)

In contrast to libertine and wanton women, there are women who are Well-behaved, obedient towards their husbands, bear sons and are sweet-tongued. Such women are to be respected highly. Their status is that of a goddess in the household.

In the twenty-sixth verse of chapter nine, sage Manu, after harshly criticizing self-willed women, confesses that all women are not bad. There are very gracious ones who serve as the second equal and parallel wheel in the cart of *gr̥hasthāśrama*, the householder stage of a man's life – “these women give birth to sons, therefore they are respectable, auspicious, jewel of the household. Just as without Lakshmi (goddess of wealth), the house is totally depraved; in the same way it is depraved without a woman.”(9.26.).

Sage Yājñavalkya also talks about two types of women – the *vyābhicāriṇī*-s (libertine) and the pure ones. He says that god *Soma* has endowed women with purity, *Gandharvas* have endowed them with sweet speech, and god *Agni* has given them the power to get purified on all fronts; therefore women are everywhere and always pure. He goes on to say that even a *vyābhicāriṇī* who has slept with another man becomes pure through her next menstrual cycle. (I.71,72). *Pārāśarasmṛtiḥ* also confirms that a woman becomes pure after her monthly menstrual cycle. Sage *Pārāśara* says that the menstruating woman is like a *Cāṇḍālī* (outcaste of the lowest caste) on the first day of her cycle, *Brahmaghātini* (Brahmin-killer) on the second day, *Rajakī* (like a washerwoman) on the third but she becomes absolutely pure (*Śuddha*) on the fourth day.(7.20).

The idea of purity is so deeply related to idea of liberation (moksha) and women's purity is always emphasized. Along the same lines, in *Pārāśarasmṛtiḥ*, one can find early hints of *sati* custom. The sage states that the woman who gives up her life at the death of her husband lives in heaven for three and a half crore numbers of years which is as many years as there are pores in the skin of human beings. Further, just as snake charmers pull out a snake from its burrow, a *sati* woman pulls up her fallen husband from the meanest space and lives happily with him.⁷

These selections from the *smṛtiḥ* that prescribe rules of conduct for women provide evidence that a common woman's life goal was marriage and service of her husband. As discussed above, these lawgivers state the ideal age of marriage to be as low as eight years. In such a scenario, where is the occasion for women to study. Prof. Altekar confirms that women's education was not a rule but an exception and prevailed only in royal and noble households. He describes that, “the cause of women's education suffered a good deal after about 300 BC on account of the new fashion of child marriage that began to come into vogue...Naturally, this meant a serious handicap to advance studies, which could not be obviously finished before the age of 12 or 13 which was the new marriageable age... by the 8th or 9th century AD, the marriageable age was further reduced to 9 or 10; this gave practically a death blow to any education worth the name. (Altekar, 1994, p-18).”

In the following millennium, first with Muslim rule and later with the British rule, Hindu women's status became fossilized in this primitive framework with some exception here and there. In the Independent India the development of women's education has been very slow.

Therefore, there is a dire need to go back into the root of these customs that keep women still bound to their old roles of son-bearing mothers and husband-serving *sati*-s. *Manusmṛtiḥ* must be reframed in the modern context and new codes of conduct must emerge that allow a dignified life to women.

REFERENCES:

Altekar, A.S. (1938), *The Position of Women in Hindu Civilization*, The Culture Publication House, Banaras Hindu University.

Bhatta, Pandit Rameshwar, (2015), *Manusmṛtiḥ*, Chaukhamba Sanskrit Pratishthana. [Reprint].

Sharma, Pandit Guruprasad, (1998), *Pārāśarasmṛtiḥ with Hindi Tika*, ed. Shri Mannalala Abhimanyu, Chaukhambha Vidyabhavan Varanasi. Second edition.

<https://archive.org/details/parasharsmritiguruprasadsharma/page/n69/mode/2up>

Pandey, Dr. Umesh Chandra, (1994, 5th edition) (edited with the *Prakāśa* Hindi commentary), *Yājñavalkyasmṛti of Yogīśvara Yājñavalkya with Mitākṣarā commentary of Vijñāneśvara*. Chaukhamba Sanskrit Sanskrit Sansthan.

Editorial Board

Dr. SS Narta

Professor
Department of Commerce,
Himachal Pradesh University,
Summerhill, Shimla – 171005,
H.P., India.

Dr. Mamta Mokta

Professor
Department of Public Administration,
Himachal Pradesh University,
Shimla, India.

Prof. Shyam Lal Kaushal

School of Management Studies
Himachal Pradesh University,
Shimla, India.

Dr. Durgesh Nandini

Associate Professor
Department of Public Administration,
IGNOU, Delhi, India.

Dr B. Mohan

Associate Professor in English
S.V. College of Engineering and Technology
Chittoor, Andhra Pradesh, India.

Dr. Dalbir Singh

Assistant Professor
Haryana School of Business,
G.J.U.S & T, Hisar,
Haryana, India.

Dr. Sonia Sharma Uppal

P.G. Department of Commerce and Management
Arya College, Ludhiana,
India.

Nadeera Jayathunga

Senior Lecturer
Department of Social Sciences
Sabaragamuwa University, Belihuloya
Sri Lanka

Mrs. Sabina Dinesh Kumar

Assistant Lecturer
Faculty of Management Studies & Comm.
University of Jaffna,
Sri Lanka

Jumana M. Elhafiz

Assistant Professor
Department of Biochemistry,
Shendi University, Ministry of Health,
Sudan

Dr. Sunil Kumar

Assistant Professor,
Punjab School of Economics,
Guru Nanak Dev University,
Amritsar, Punjab, India

Dr. Ebele P. ifionu

Faculty, Department of Finance and Banking
University of Port Harcourt, Nigeira

Review Process

Each research paper/article submitted to the journal is subject to the following reviewing process:

1. Each research paper/article will be initially evaluated by the editor to check the quality of the research article for the journal. The editor may make use of iThenticate/Viper software to examine the originality of research articles received.
2. The articles passed through screening at this level will be forwarded to two referees for blind peer review.
3. At this stage, two referees will carefully review the research article, each of whom will make a recommendation to publish the article in its present form/modify/reject.
4. The review process may take one/two months.
5. In case of acceptance of the article, journal reserves the right of making amendments in the final draft of the research paper to suit the journal's standard and requirement.

Categories

- Business Management
- Social Science and Humanities
- Education
- Information Technology
- Scientific Fields



Published by

Trans Asian Research Journals

SCO 34, 1st Floor, HUDA Market,
Near Red Cross, Jagadhri - 135 003 (Haryana) INDIA
Website : www.tarj.in

Our other publications :

Trans Asian Journal of Marketing & Management Research (TAJMMR)
ISSN (online) : 2279-0667