

ROLE OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN INDIAN FINANCIAL SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

Corporate governance is essential for India financial sector like banking sector. Indian financial sector has a remarkable role for the growth of economy of the country. Corporate governance is needed to manage and control the financial institutions. Accountability is set under the concept of corporate governance.

Before 1990, a number of corporate scams like Harshal Mehta scam, Satyam scam etc. were observed and it was found that the investors had to lose a lot of amount and no accountability was not ensured at that time. People were losing their trust in Indian financial sector. To gain the trust of the people, the concept of corporate governance was introduced in the financial sector where an organization i.e. Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI) was established. The current paper highlights the role of corporate governance in India financial sector.

KEYWORDS: Corporate, Governance, Financial, Sector

INTRODUCTION

Corporate governance imposes some rules and regulations on the financial institutes and these institutes have to follow these rules so as to preserve the interest of common people. Corporate law is regulated under corporate governance.

Financial sectors provide a number of opportunities for the nation to grow in forward direction. But, before the implementation of corporate governance; financial frauds were observed in some of the financial institutes. As a result of these frauds, investors became insolvents.

Due to frequent cases of financial frauds forced the introduction of corporate governance in Indian financial sector so that more and more investors can be brought in the mainstream. International guidelines are followed under the corporate governance where there is provision of punishment in the corporate law if any financial body tries to violet these guidelines.

Recently, a case is observed where Sahara Corporations is found guilty of looting the investors. SEBI investigated the case and Sahara company is told to return the corresponding money to all the investors otherwise their properties would be sealed. Like this, there are many cases where corporate governance has played a crucial role in saving the public interest.

As a result of corporate governance, a sense of accountability is established among the financial institutes as they understand that if they do any action against the interest of the investors then they would have to pay a heavy price for that.

Indian financial sector is basically dependent on the investors. If investor's trust is there then a trend of growth in the economy is observed. On the other hand, if the investors lose the confidence in the financial sector due to any fraud or any other mis-happening. Hence, it is essential for the financial sector to maintain the trust of investors by managing and controlling these institutes in proper way.

If any financial fraud is detected then it is investigated by the corporate governance body. This investigation is done irrespective of the background of the accused financial body. It is also observed that the trust of common people has increased due to the implementation of corporate governance in the financial sector as the common investors now understand that their shares are safe now and if any fraud is found then their invested money would be returned. This is a really a positive sign for the Indian financial sector as the number of the investors are increasing and they are investing their money in mutual funds, stock markets etc. Now, it is the responsibility of the financial institutes to maintain this trust as everyone know that it is always easy to build trust but it is difficult to carry on this trust.

ROLE OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN INDIAN FINANCIAL SECTOR

Recent episodes of financial instability have highlighted the potential fragility of financial systems and the effect that financial instability can have on the wider economy. In recognition of this, much international attention is now being given to understanding the causes and dynamics of financial crises and to developing policy frameworks for promoting robust and efficient financial systems. An important part of this work relates to corporate governance arrangements and the role that these can play in encouraging sound risk management practices.

The disclosure obligations of the company (including as to the preparation of financial statements, maintenance of accounting systems and audit arrangements). Company law could be expected to specify an obligation for directors to issue financial statements in relation to their company and the group of which it is part. In some countries, this obligation will mesh with a requirement for the financial statements to comply with particular disclosure standards, possibly including mandatory accounting standards, so as to encourage financial statements of high quality and comparability. Directors should be held liable for ensuring that the bank's/company's financial statements and other disclosures are not false or misleading.

Corporate law also provides an important mechanism by which enforcement of corporate governance can be achieved. One of the functions of corporate law is to set out the penalties for non-compliance with corporate governance arrangements. For enforcement to be effective, however, there is a need for more than just a clear, well-developed set of corporate law. There is

also a need for a well-resourced government authority with the power and capacity to enforce breaches of corporate law and a legal system and judiciary capable of facilitating effective enforcement, including through civil claims. The government agencies responsible for enforcement, and the judiciary, need to be accountable for the exercise (or non-exercise) of their powers. Accordingly, structures to facilitate their accountability should be in place, including transparency arrangements with respect to the nature and performance of their responsibilities.

There is a balance to be struck as to the level of detail of corporate governance contained in statutory law. There are risks of excessive inflexibility, and associated compliance and efficiency costs, if statutory law contains an excessive degree of prescription. The level of prescription will depend in large measure on the extent to which non-statutory frameworks operate to promote sound corporate governance. All else being equal, statutory law can be less prescriptive and detailed where sound corporate governance practices are fostered by the existence of strong market disciplines, competitive markets, a corporate governance “culture”, and robust financial disclosure requirements, among other factors. Conversely, if these “environmental” factors are not strongly present, then this may suggest the need for a greater degree of prescription of corporate governance requirements in statute law.

Another mechanism for promoting sound corporate governance in the financial sector is by the encouragement of a corporate governance culture through codes of conduct and principles of good practice. The development of corporate governance principles or guidelines can play a significant role in promoting greater awareness and adoption of sound corporate governance arrangements. Corporate governance principles may be developed by industry associations, institutes of directors, government authorities, or other bodies, such as stock exchanges.

More than in most corporate entities, banks and many other types of financial institution are critically reliant on maintaining the confidence of depositors and other creditors. The economic welfare, and indeed survival, of a bank is very much dependent on maintaining depositor and other counterparty confidence. Therefore, the directors and senior management of banks could be said to have a special duty of care to their bank’s depositors and other creditors – the creditors are extremely important stakeholders in the bank. A bank’s corporate governance arrangements could be expected to reflect this duty of care to creditors in a number of ways, such as in the management of conflicts of interest between shareholders and creditors, in the nature of financial disclosures made to creditors (and others) and in the nature of risk management systems.

DISCUSSION

The importance of creditors to a bank’s welfare suggests the need to have corporate governance and risk management arrangements that enable the bank to maintain strong customer relationships and confidence in the bank’s financial position. Among other factors, this suggests the need for directors and senior management to be attentive to the possible conflicts that might arise between the interests of the bank’s shareholders and creditors. In general, shareholders’ interests are best

served by maximising the long term present value of the bank, although very often there is a tendency to focus on augmenting the short term profit of the bank rather than necessarily focusing on the longer term position. Creditors' interests are best served by the bank taking a somewhat more cautious approach to the management of its risks, such that creditors can be assured that their funds will be available in full upon maturity or on demand.

The structures needed to attend to these potential conflicts will vary depending on a bank's particular circumstances, but may include risk management systems that identify where the particular conflicts could arise and prompt management and directors to satisfy themselves that the conflicts have been appropriately resolved. It is also likely that the inclusion of some independent and non-executive directors on the board of a bank would assist in managing the conflicts between the interests of shareholders and the interests of the bank's creditors. In particular, directors that are not connected with the parent entity or associated companies (where the bank is controlled or significantly influenced by a single entity or group of entities) are likely to be better placed to identify potential conflicts between the shareholders and creditors' interests and to ensure that appropriate controls are in place to manage these conflicts.

Banks also differ from most other companies in terms of the nature and range of their business risks, and the consequences if these risks are poorly managed. Banks face a wide range of risks, many of them complicated in nature, including credit risk, exposure concentration risk, connected exposure risk, interest rate risk, exchange rate risk, equity risk, legal risks, operational risks, defalcation risks, liquidity risks, reputation risks, payment system interface risks and business continuity risks. If these risks are poorly identified and managed, they expose the bank to the potential for financial collapse, particularly given the fact that most banks operate on a thin layer of capitalisation and have substantial maturity mismatches in their balance sheet. Therefore, banks need corporate governance structures that promote effective identification, monitoring and management of all material business risks.

An essential complement to sound corporate governance is the implementation of robust financial disclosure requirements for corporates and financial institutions.

Financial disclosure is essential as a means of strengthening the accountability of directors and senior management and enhancing the incentives for risk management. It is also essential if market participants and observers – particularly the larger creditors of banks, financial news media, financial analysts and rating agencies – are to effectively monitor the performance and soundness of financial institutions and exercise appropriate disciplines on those institutions which do not perform well or fail to meet acceptable prudential standards. Financial disclosure is also essential if smaller creditors, including depositors of banks, are to have any chance of protecting their own interests, particularly in the absence of deposit insurance.

An effective set of disclosure requirements will need to be underpinned by robust accounting standards. These standards should desirably conform to international standards, although national

modifications may well be appropriate. In particular, it is essential for accounting standards to set out meaningful frameworks for measuring credit exposures – preferably based on market values rather than on historic cost or other notional valuations.

CONCLUSION

Accounting standards should also prescribe meaningful and reasonably specific rules for the recognition of income and expenses, for the recognition and classification of off-balance sheet exposures, and for the classification of assets and liabilities. In general, accounting standards should require the disclosure of financial information on the basis of economic substance rather than on the basis of accounting or legal contrivances.

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APPLICATIONS OF FINANCING PRACTICES IN BANKING SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

Financial resources are managed with the help of financial practices of banks. All the monetary transactions are managed under financial practices. Here, the economic resources like capital funds are used efficiently. These practices deal with the all kind of managerial decisions related to the financing of credits whether it is for short duration or longer.

The expected ratio of inflow and out flow is also considered in order to perform the better analysis of the financial practices. Here, the procurement of the funds is done so that better usage of the funds can be done in the banks. The factors like cost, risk and control are very important in financial practices. The current paper highlights the applications of financial practices in banking sector.

KEYWORDS: Financial, Bank, Fund

INTRODUCTION

The factors like risk and control can be proper balanced by managing minimum cost of fund. It is observed that the banks tend to get funds from several sources which sometimes become the problem for the banks as these funds have several features like control, cost and risk.

It is said that the fund which is obtained through the equity share is good as far as risk factor is concerned for the bank because no procedure of repayment is done for the equity capital. On the other hand, in terms of the cost factor, the equity capital is very costly as dividend of the share holders are more in case of rate of interest.

With the introduction of globalization, a trend of mobilizing the funds is observed. In this case, the funds are arranged either from the internal market or international market. Foreign direct investment is supposed to be the best option to raise more funds.

The process of utilization of funds in an effective way comes under the financial practices where fund is either not used or proper utilization of the fund is not made. For a better economy, the need of better financial practices is there. Banks have to suffer a lot due to improper management of the financial activities as whole roots of the financial organizations is based on the financial activities. A proper financial practice has the ability to estimate the final output from the available ratio of funds.

In India, where the resources are limited and demands are very high; in this case, the role of financial management becomes very crucial as any mismanagement under the financial activities can be harmful for the organization.

A sound financial management is suggested for the new financial organization having good growth rate initially as their survival is the guarantee of their market values. For non-profit organizations, the financial practices are essential for better working of the organization.

Generally, there are three main activities are done under financial practices in banks. These activities include financial decision, investment related decisions and dividend related decisions.

Further, the investment related decisions are divided into two more decisions i.e. the decision regarding capital budget and current asset investment. All these decisions constitute the financial management in the banks.

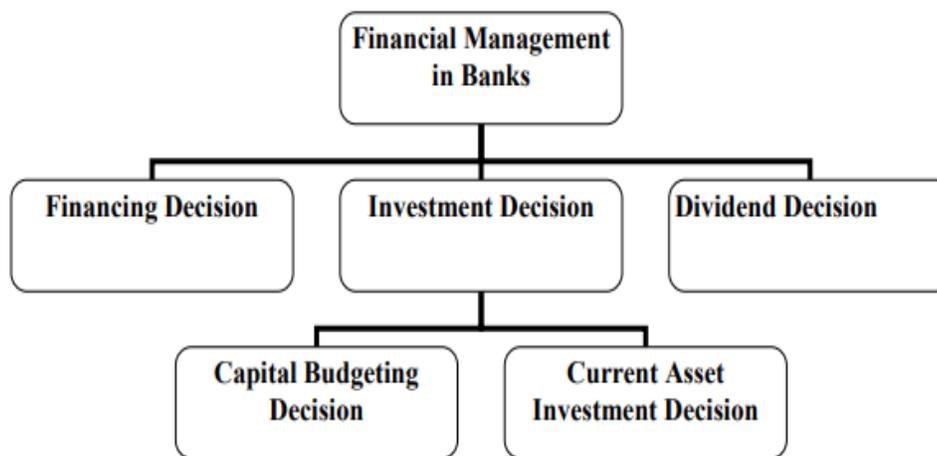


Figure1: Financial Management in Banks

APPLICATIONS OF FINANCING PRACTICES IN BANKING SECTOR

Deposits

The largest source by far of funds for banks is deposits; money that account holders entrust to the bank for safekeeping and use in future transactions, as well as modest amounts of interest. Generally referred to as "core deposits," these are typically the checking and savings accounts that so many people currently have.

In most cases, these deposits have very short terms. While people will typically maintain accounts for years at a time with a particular bank, the customer reserves the right to withdraw the full amount at any time. Customers have the option to withdraw money upon demand and the balances are fully insured, up to \$250,000, therefore, banks do not have to pay much for this money.

Wholesale Deposits

If a bank cannot attract a sufficient level of core deposits, that bank can turn to wholesale sources of funds. In many respects these wholesale funds are much. There is nothing necessarily wrong with wholesale funds, but investors should consider what it says about a bank when it relies on this funding source. While some banks de-emphasize the branch-based deposit-gathering model, in favor of wholesale funding, heavy reliance on this source of capital can be a warning that a bank is not as competitive as its peers.

Investors should also note that the higher cost of wholesale funding means that a bank either has to settle for a narrower interest spread, and lower profits, or pursue higher yields from its lending and investing, which usually means taking on greater risk.

Share Equity

While deposits are the primary source of loan able funds for almost every bank, shareholder equity is an important part of a bank's capital. Several important regulatory ratios are based upon the amount of shareholder capital a bank has and shareholder capital is, in many cases, the only capital that a bank knows will not disappear.

Common equity is straight forward. This is capital that the bank has raised by selling shares to outside investors. While banks, especially larger banks, do often pay dividends on their common shares, there is no requirement for them to do so.

Banks often issue preferred shares to raise capital. As this capital is expensive, and generally issued only in times of trouble, or to facilitate an acquisition, banks will often make these shares callable. This gives the bank the right to buy back the shares at a time when the capital position is stronger, and the bank no longer needs such expensive capital. Equity capital is expensive, therefore, banks generally only issue shares when they need to raise funds for an acquisition, or when they need to repair their capital position, typically after a period of elevated bad loans. Apart from the initial capital raised to fund a new bank, banks do not typically issue equity in order to fund loans.

Debt

Banks will also raise capital through debt issuance. Banks most often use debt to smooth out the ups and downs in their funding needs, and will call upon sources like repurchase agreements to access debt funding on a short term basis.

There is frankly nothing particularly unusual about bank-issued debt, and like regular corporations, bank bonds may be callable and/or convertible. Although debt is relatively common on bank balance sheets, it is not a critical source of capital for most banks.

Loans

For most banks, loans are the primary use of their funds and the principal way in which they earn income. Loans are typically made for fixed terms, at fixed rates and are typically secured with real property; often the property that the loan is going to be used to purchase. While banks will make loans with variable or adjustable interest rates and borrowers can often repay loans early, with little or no penalty, banks generally shy away from these kinds of loans, as it can be difficult to match them with appropriate funding sources.

DISCUSSION

Consumer lending makes up the bulk of North American bank lending, and of this, residential mortgages make up by far the largest share. Mortgages are used to buy residences and the homes themselves are often the security that collateralizes the loan. Mortgages are typically written for 30 year repayment periods and interest rates may be fixed, adjustable, or variable.

Automobile lending is another significant category of secured lending for many banks. Compared to mortgage lending, auto loans are typically for shorter terms and higher rates. Banks face

extensive competition in auto lending from other financial institutions, like captive auto financing operations run by automobile manufacturers and dealers.

Credit cards are another significant lending type and an interesting case. Credit cards are, in essence, personal lines of credit that can be drawn down at any time. While Visa and MasterCard are well-known names in credit cards, they do not actually underwrite any of the lending. Visa and MasterCard simply run the proprietary networks through which money (debits and credits) is moved around between the shopper's bank and the merchant's bank, after a transaction.

Not all banks engage in credit card lending and the rates of default are traditionally much higher than in mortgage lending or other types of secured lending. That said, credit card lending delivers lucrative fees for banks: Interchange fees charged to merchants for accepting the card and entering into the transaction, late-payment fees, currency exchange, over-the-limit and other fees for the card user, as well as elevated rates on the balances that credit card users carry, from one month to the next.

Here the finance manager has to determine about the best financing mix or capital structure. Another factor to determine is about when, where and how to acquire the fund to meet the monetary requirement of the bank's investment. The core issue is to determine the proportion of debt/equity mix and this is called the firm's capital structure. Here, the manager strives to obtain the best financing mix i.e. the optimum capital structure. Optimum capital structure is that combination of debt and equity where the market value of share is maximized.

The equity shares are the best from the risk point of view for the bank. From the cost point of view, equity share capital is the most expensive source of fund. This is because the dividend expectations of shareholders are normally higher than the interest rate. Further the issue of equity shares may dilute the control of the existing shareholders. However, the debenture as a source of fund is comparatively cheaper. Debentures entail a higher degree of risk since they have to be repaid as per the terms of the agreement. The cost of the fund has to be at the minimum but with proper balancing of risk and control factors. Procurement of funds will include the three steps, namely, identification of sources of finance, determination of finance mix and raising of funds.

In the age of globalization, only the procurement of fund is not enough. The resources must be mobilized through innovative ways or such financial products, which caters to the needs of investor's viz. multiple option convertible bonds. Further funds can even be raised from abroad.

Capital budgeting decision is essentially concerned with the evaluation of investment projects requiring long-term commitment of funds so as to ensure long term benefits of the bank. This is done through techniques of capital budgeting decision of allocating the capital in the long-term assets that would yield the return in future. The important aspects to be considered here are evaluation of profitability of new investment and measurement of cut-off rate against which the return on new investment can be compared.

CONCLUSION

The objective of financial management is also considered to be profit maximization. This implies that finance manager must make his decision in such a manner that the profits are maximized.

However it cannot be the sole objective of the banking business. There is another objective of finance manager and that is wealth maximization

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CONSEQUENCES OF MERGER OF BANKS IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

Merger of banks is meant to merge two or more banks with a particular bank. Merger of banks is done in order to provide more strength to the Indian banking sector, specially, public sector banks. The public sector banks tend to perform lower than that of the private sector banks. Hence, the merger of public sector banks into State Bank of India was performed by India government recently.

As a result of this merger process of banking sector, Indian banking sector is transforming itself in order to compete with the global banks. Merger of banks also helps the banks to maintain their short term and long term liquidity. Due to this merger, Indian banks have the opportunity to be recognized in the global market. There are some positive and negative results of merger of banks. The current paper highlights the consequences of merger of banks in India.

KEYWORDS: Merger, Banks, Private, Public

INTRODUCTION

One of the advantages of merger of banks is that the number of public sector banks has been reduced and now, it is easier to manage these banks. As there was unnecessary competition among the public sector banks, now after the merger, this unhealthy competition has ended which is good for the professional market.

Now, private sector banks would be given heavy competition from the public sector banks as few years back, it was observed that the private sector banks were performing well as compared to the public banks. Now, after merger, it has become possible for the public sector banks to challenge the private sector banks.

The share percentage of public sector banks in India is estimated to be approximate 77%. Also, as a result of merger of banks, the transactions related to inter-banks have also reduced causing the saving of time related to the clearing process.

Other big advantage of merger of banks is that now, the central government needs not to recapitalize the public sector banks on regular basis. It is expected that there would be much improvement in the overall profitability of the public sector banks.

Also, the tendency of more savings and profits has been increased as a result of synergy of operational activities and scale of economy. Now, it has become for the top management to take the decision regarding any policy as the decision taking power has centralized.

Due to introduction of new employees as staff members, new kind of thinking and creativity would be helpful for the banking sector as fresh environment is needed for an organization to move in the forward direction.

More funds can be imparted to the union trades which are needed for the strength of an organization. An improvement in the customer satisfaction level can be seen as now, they have to relate with fewer banks. Due to the introduction of technology, the customer service is going to be improved with the time.

As a result of the merger of the banks, it has become easier to control and manage the less number of banks. It is observed that before the task of merger of banks, the government had to manage a number of public sector banks and it was very difficult to control all the activities of the banks.

After the merger, now there is less number of public sector banks in India and hence, it has become easier for the government to keep track of all these banks. Also, the performance of the public sector banks has started to move upward after the process of merger of banks, Therefore, it can be said that it was very bold decision taken by Indian government to merger the banks.

CONSEQUENCES OF MERGER OF BANKS IN INDIA

As a consequence of merger of banks, the stock market value of the public sector banks of India has started to grow up. Also, after the merger, all the public sector banks have started to provide more services to the customers.

The impact of technology on the Indian banking sector can be seen. Now, the banks provide many services with the credit cards and debit cards. Recently, it is also observed that the public sector banks have started to provide more interest of fixed deposits to the customers.

Newer strategies are made by the public sector banks in order to gain more and more customers so that the growth of these banks can be enhanced. Public sector banks have also started providing the services of internet banking to their customers and now, the customers need not to go to banks to perform any kind of the bank related activity as most of the tasks are completed online.

After the merger of banks, the Indian public sector banking has transformed in a big way as their brand value is also increased. This transformation was needed in order to clean the complexity of the public sector banks as there were a number of public sector banks in the country.

Nearly every middle-market bank in the industry is looking to either acquire another bank or be acquired, and it's likely that yours is no exception. Many banks see an acquisition or merger as a chance to expand their reach or scale up operations quicker. Yet, a bank acquisition is not without its drawbacks as well – particularly for the unprepared banking executive.

Union Cabinet decided to merge all the remaining five associate banks of State Bank Group with State Bank of India in 2017. After the Parliament passed the merger Bill, the subsidiary banks have ceased to exist and the State Bank of India (Subsidiary Banks) Act, 1959 and the State Bank of Hyderabad Act, 1956 have been repealed.

Five associates and the Bharatiya Mahila Bank have become the part of State Bank of India (SBI) beginning April 1, 2017. This has placed State Bank of India among the top 50 banks in the world. The five associate banks that were merged are State Bank of Bikaner and Jaipur (SBBJ), State Bank of Hyderabad (SBH), State Bank of Mysore (SBM), State Bank of Patiala (SBP) and State Bank of Travancore (SBT). The other two Associate Banks namely State Bank of Indore and State Bank of Saurashtra had already been merged with State Bank of India. After the merger, the total customer base of SBI increased to 37 crore with a branch network of around 24,000 and around 60,000 ATMs across the country.

The quest to create an Indian bank that will be in the league of global giants is an old one and had been continuing since 1990. However, in February 2017 the government had approved the merger of five associate banks with SBI. Later in March, the Cabinet approved merger of BMB also. SBI first merged State Bank of Saurashtra with itself in 2008. Two years later in 2010, State Bank of Indore was merged with it. The board of SBI earlier approved the merger plan under which SBBJ shareholders will get 28 shares of SBI (Rs1 each) for every 10 shares (Rs10 each) held. Similarly, SBM and SBT shareholders will get 22 shares of SBI for every 10 shares.

Post merger, the SBI has been in the process to rationalise its branch network by relocating some of the branches to maximise reach. This, according to SBI will help the bank optimise its operations and improve profitability. SBI had approved separate schemes of acquisition for State Bank of Patiala and State Bank of Hyderabad. There was not proposed any share swap or cash outgo as they were wholly-owned by the SBI.

Benefits of Bank Merger: Pros

1. The merger will reduce the cost of banking operation.
2. The objectives of financial inclusion and broadening the geographical reach of banking can be achieved better with the merger of large public sector banks and leveraging on their expertise.
3. Merger will result in better NPA and Risk management
4. With the large scale expertise available in every sphere of banking operation, the scale of inefficiency which is more in case of small banks, will be minimised
5. The merger will help the geographically concentrated regionally present banks to expand their coverage.
6. Larger size of the Bank will help the merged banks to offer more products and services and help in integrated growth of the Banking sector.

7. Merger will help in improving the professional standards.
8. A larger SBI can manage its short and long term liquidity better. There will not be any need for overnight borrowings in call money market and from RBI under Liquidity Adjustment Facility (LAF) and Marginal Standing Facility (MSF).
9. In the global market, the Indian banks will gain greater recognition and higher rating.
10. With a larger capital base and higher liquidity, the burden on the central government to recapitalize the public sector banks again and again will come down substantially.
11. Multiple posts of CMD, ED, GM and Zonal Managers will be abolished, resulting in substantial financial savings.
12. Bank staff will be under single umbrella in regard to their service conditions and wages instead of facing disparities.

Merger has its side effects also: Cons

1. Managing Director of Federal Bank, V.A. Joseph is of the view that Co-existence of the big, medium and regional banks would be preferable in the present scenario. According to him most acquisitions in India were borne out of compulsions and over 90 per cent of past acquisitions had failed to achieve the objectives.
2. Many banks focus on regional banking requirements. With the merger the very purpose of establishing the bank to cater to regional needs is lost.
3. Large bank size may create more problems also. Large global banks had collapsed during the global financial crisis while smaller ones had survived the crisis due to their strengths and focus on micro aspects.
4. With the merger, the weaknesses of the small banks are also transferred to the bigger bank.
5. So far small scale losses and recapitalization could revive the capital base of small banks. Now if the giant shaped SBI books huge loss or incurs high NPAs as it had been incurring, it will be difficult for the entire banking system to sustain.

CONCLUSION

Analysis of physical performance of merged banks emphasizes that, there is a significant improvements in Deposits, Advances, Businesses and Number of Employees of all selected banks. Therefore, this result indicates that Mergers can help commercial banks to achieve physical performance. While the analysis of financial performance of merged banks yields mixed results, the results indicates that, a significant improvement in Assets Quality, Management Efficiency, Earnings quality and liquidity of the selected banks and Capital Adequacy of Public sector banks did not indicate improvements, this may be the policy matters of public sectors banks but on an average the overall financial performance of merged banks increased after the merger. So Merger

could be considered as a useful strategy in order to achieve financial performance of commercial banks by achieving economies of scale, competitiveness, and increased efficiency and Market share.

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USAGE OF INTERNET MARKETING IN CURRENT SCENARIO

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ABSTRACT

The number of internet users has increased enormously in India in recent years. India is now at the third position as far as internet population is concerned i.e. India comes at third position in terms of internet users. Hence, India is like a big market for retail companies either domestic or international.

This is like a bigger opportunity for the companies to promote their products with the aid of latest technologies. Also, with the introduction of information technology in Indian market, internet marketing has become the first priority of companies to promote their products as there are a number of internet users in India and this number is going to be increased year by year. The current paper highlights the scenario of internet marketing in India.

KEYWORDS: Internet, Marketing, Technology,

INTRODUCTION

There are many online tools like Facebook, Twitter, Youtube etc. where the retail companies like to promote their products. The conventional way of marketing where hoardings are used for brand promotion is taking over by this new way of marketing i.e. internet marketing.

With the advancement of technology, Indian market has started to adapt itself and a revolution is going on among all the industries in order to compete each other. Many innovative products at the moderate cost are generated by the companies and these products are promoted with the help of internet marketing.

It is reported that India is at fifth position in terms of YouTube users and most of the people prefer online brand promotional videos. These promotional videos can also be seen on other internet platforms like Facebook, Twitter and Instagram etc.

The biggest advantage of internet marketing is that it is cost-effective and the companies don't have to spend much money to promote a brand. It is more feasible as compared to the advertisement run on radio or television.

Also, with the aid of internet marketing; a specific group of consumers can be targeted easily to fulfill the requirements of the people of that particular region. The consumer behavior of a particular region can be analyzed using online data and brands can be promoted using online marketing so that need of the people can be fulfilled in real time with proper planning. Internet marketing is also less time consuming where a consumer just needs to visit an online shopping website and place the order of required products. It takes few minutes to perform this activity which is less time consuming as compared to the offline mode where a consumer has to visit the market physically to purchase anything.

Internet marketing is helpful in building the brand image where a particular brand can be promoted on larger scale so that its availability can be made easier by providing the online as well as offline stores to satisfy the needs of the consumers. It is reported that approximate 60% of internet users in India visit online shopping websites or applications which shows how the trend of internet marketing is growing and it has a positive effect on the purchasing behavior of the consumers. This is really a positive sign for the retail companies all over the country. That's why more and more retail companies have started dealing with the novel way of marketing i.e. internet marketing.

Internet marketing has become an essential part of each growing retail company as it enhances the possibility of further development in the future. There is a fact that the number of mobile users would be more in coming years. Hence, the trend of internet marketing is going to be increased in India in the future.

USAGE OF INTERNET MARKETING IN CURRENT SCENARIO

Handheld devices, such as cell phones, Personal Internet Assistants (PDAs) and other wireless devices, make up the growing mobile device market. Such devices allow customers to stay informed, gather information and communicate with others without being tied to a physical location. While the mobile device market is only beginning to become a viable advertising medium, it may soon offer significant opportunity for marketers to reach customers at anytime and any place.

Also, with geographic positioning features included in newer mobile devices, the medium has the potential to provide marketers with the ability to target customers based on their geographic location. Currently, the most popular advertising delivery method to mobile devices is through plain text messaging, however, over the next few years multimedia advertisements are expected to become the dominant message format.

Internet marketing plays a significant role in today's highly competitive world. Companies, personalities, even voluntary or religious organizations, use it in some form - such as Event management, Image management, Internet marketing, etc. either to promote a product or to promote a point of view.

Specifically, marketers will study consumer behavior in an attempt to understand the many factors that lead to an impact purchase decisions. Those who develop internet marketing strategies begin by

identifying relevant markets and then analyze the relationship between target consumers and the product/service or brand. Often, in an attempt to gain insights, marketers employ techniques borrowed from other disciplines.

India has indeed joined the internet marketing league. There is a vast middle class market numbering as much as 250 million today. The American business week magazine, said in April, 2008, that there were 8% rich Indian having incomes higher than an average American. Even time magazine focused on it in a cover features, "Consumer Boom". If the consumer, exposed to the advertisement, keeps it at the back of his mind or if in the case of non-durable makes a trial purchase and is satisfied, it may result in putting the brand among the most – favoured ones in his 'evoked set, as stated in the 'Howard-Sheth model'. Thus, there is a positive perception to advertisements of new brands as well as to remainders advertisements of older brands. How the consumer makes use of this advertising communication provided by the marketer is a matter in the purview of consumer behaviour. Marketing people consider that, advertising is effective promoting the sales of a company's products and services. However, the relationship between advertising and sales is rather indirect.

It is desirable that the marketer should also measure the effectiveness of internet marketing, and in the face of results, obtained make qualitative changes in his marketing programme. The appraisal of marketing programmes should result in the business becoming economically viable. But, the degree of its effectiveness vis-à-vis the amount spent on internet marketing cannot be measured directly as put rather helplessly by Wanamaker. The potential buyers make the buying decisions not only due to the internet marketing they see but also due to many other economic and social factors. The effectiveness of internet marketing is a function of several variables. The problem is that the organization cannot measure the impact of one variable alone.

Since internet marketing is widely accepted as a significant marketing strategy, it is necessary to design internet advertisements in new forms and formats to make them more effective and accessible through popular media like e-mails, advertisements through social sites like Facebook. Thus the subject of internet marketing is put to research from different angles is evidenced by the literature review. This research study adds new insightful inputs to the promotional strategies of marketing through internet sources.

DISCUSSION

A standardized internet marketing strategy should be more easily produced for products in which individuals share common consumer behaviors than for products used in culturally specific ways. For instance, consumer high-tech goods (computers, mobile phones) may be somewhat similar across cultures whereas food is generally considered to be consumed in traditional and idiosyncratic ways. Beauty-related product advertisements may be more easily standardized than more culture-specific items such as food or automobiles because they focus on similar needs for beauty among a shared audience.

Advertising firms might share certain spokespersons and thus the celebrity will end up promoting more than one brand. An example of this is the actress Catherine Zeta-Jones who promoted both T-Mobile and Elizabeth Arden. Also, the golf champion Tiger Woods endorsed as much as three brands; American Express, Rolex and Nike.

The rate of change in the awareness of the Indian consumer during the last decade has been slow despite the proliferation of the social media and advertising. As the number of brands are increasing in the market, consumers have become choosier, forcing marketers to adopt various strategies to woo target consumers with large investments in advertising/publicity, offering discounts and luring them with freebie schemes. These have only ended up in giving those short-term gains in terms of increasing their turnover and improving their brand equity.

Internet marketing is a paid form of promotion of products and services through an identified sponsor using a internet medium. Internet marketing is that element of promotion mix, which is often considered prominent in the overall marketing matrix. Its high visibility and pervasiveness has made it an important commercial medium in Indian society. It is a means of influencing the consumer to buy products or services through visual or audio persuasion. A product or service is primarily advertised to create awareness of its utility in the minds of potential buyers. As a result of globalization and the consequent changes in consumer buying patterns, the advertising industry has undergone significant transformation in past few years.

The fastest growing media outlet for advertising is the Internet. Compared to spending in other media, the rate of spending for Internet advertising is experiencing tremendous growth. However, total spending for Internet advertising remains relatively small compared to other media. Yet, while Internet advertising is still a small player, its influence continues to expand every year major marketers shift a larger portion of their promotional budget to this medium. Two key reasons for this shift rest with the Internet's ability to: 1) narrowly target an advertising message and 2) track user response to the advertiser's message. The Internet offers many advertising options with messages delivered through websites or by email.

CONCLUSION

Indian consumers have always been open to the idea of trying new products. With the socio-economic changes taking place and the increase in the number of nuclear families and well as twin-income families, there is a dramatic increase in household as well as disposable incomes. To cater to their need marketers are introducing new and advanced products, and positioning them to attract target customers.

A single brand image is the most important reason for standardization. Due to increasing geographic customer mobility (e.g., because of tourism) and media spill over (e.g., global broadcasting). This results in the broadening of the "perception sphere". Cultural, economic, social and other differences make it difficult for companies to define or identify a single brand image that

has a global appeal.

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COINAGE OF BABUR, HUMAUN AND AKBAR

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The mughal metallic coinage was in formal terms, trimetallic; that is, that mints uttered coins in all the three currency metals; the gold *muh*r, the silver *rupriya* and the copper dam. The trimetallic system was formally the creation of Sher Shah, the great Sur Sultan (1540-5). Before his time, there was in the larger part of Northern India, a single billion coinage, its mint being the *tanka* (called *Bahloli* or *Sikandari*). This was a coin of copper with a small silver alloy, which had developed out of a progressive debasement of the silver *tanka* (originally of practically pure silver) of the Delhi Sultans.

Sher Shah is entitled to the honour of establishing the reformed system of currency which lasted throughout the Mughal period, was maintained by the East India Company down to 1835, and in the basis of the existing British Currency.

The usage of coins started during the reign of Babur. Such coins were also issued by Humayun and Akbar (during the first three years of his reign). Babur issued silver 'shahrukhis'. However, these coins were actually introduced by the Timurid ruler. Shah Rukh in early fifteenth century A.D. These coins were thin broad pieces of about 72 grains. On the alternatives side of the coins was the enclosed '*Kalima*' with the names of four '*Khalifas*' and their epithets in the margin. The reverse side of the coin included the king's name and in the margin were his titles along with the mane of the mint and date. The coins of Babur bear the names and titles *Al- sultan al- azam wa al- khakan al- mukarram Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur Badshah Ghazi*. The titles on Humayun's coins were same as on the coins of Babur. *On Humayun's coin the name Mahammad Humayun Badshah Ghazi* was used. On Akbar's coins, he retained the earlier titles and used his name as *Jalaluddin Mahammad Akbar Badshah*.

In reign of Humayun, he had also issued some heavier silver coins that termed as rupee. These coins were known since long but in the absence of clear mint-name on them, they remained ignored. The British Museum secured a coin that belonged on the reign of Humayun with a clear mint name Bangala dated 945 A.H. It had been described that Humayun issued them while he campaigning against Sher Shah in Bengal during the time. According to the historical evidences, Humayun also issued some gold coins of the '*Shahrukhi*' style from Agra and some tiny gold coins. Some anonymous copper coins were also issued by Babur and Humayun and bear only in mint's name on one side and the date on the other. These coins are said to be issued from places where the

'*shahrukhis*' were issued. The copper coins followed the standard established by the Sultan of Delhi, Bahlol Lodi. During his reign, Humayun adopted the new silver and copper standards of the Suris that had become current in the country. The coinage of the subsequent rulers of the dynasty was based on the new standard. Apart from these coins, Humayun has also issued some gold and silver coins during the period of his expatriation. These are said to be the rare coins that bear the names Shah Tahmaspa on one side and Humayun on the flip side of it.

Humayun failed to revive the *shahrukhi* manufacture at the capital, Agra, possible because the city and its mint were lost to the Suris for portions of each of the initial years of the Mughal restoration. Muhammad Adil Shah struck silver rupees in those periods when he held the city (AH 962-4), and the Mughals may have been constrained to do the same three years. In spite of a similar situation in Lahore, where Sikandar Shah struck rupees in AH 962, the Mughals succeeded in converting mint production to *shahrukhis* in the early years, only to have denomination dropped in AH 966. The attempt to mint *shahrukhis* at Delhi was abandoned in AH 964. Only in Kabul, their home city, were *shahrukhis* minted in preference to rupees. Humayun made no attempt to revive the copper *taka* of 10 *masha* weight, about 9.4g, which he had issued in his first reign in India. Instead he adopted the standard Suri *paisa* in the three copper mints which he operated in Delhi (AH 962-3), Lahore (AH 962) and Narnol (AH 962-3). He did maintain one feature of his earlier copper coinage, namely its anonymity. While the Suri coinage gave the emperor's name and dignities, the Mughal copper indicated simply the mint and date. This had been the custom with the later Timurids in Central Asia, for whom copper currency was a local matter of low prestige. On their copper coins, simple minting information was deemed sufficient legend. This feature Akbar maintained on the copper coinage of India until the *Ilahi* reforms in the fourth decade of his reign.

Coins of Akbar include the gold, silver and copper coins. The Mughal emperor used to create the coins that followed the patterns of Suri coinage and gradually the weight and fabric of the coinage were also adopted. The gold coins that were created during the time of Akbar are now known as '*muhars*'. Abu-I Fazl, in *Ain 10*, describes the coins struck by Akbar. He mentions 30 'coins' struck in gold, but points out that only three were struck regularly- the principal one weighing 12 *mashas* 1.75 *surkhs*, along with its half and its quarter. He does not include the 11 *masha* gold coins as part of the regular mintage but numismatics evidence indicates that it was. Furthermore in his description of the first two gold 'coins', actually huge presentation pieces, the value of the first is given in terms of the 12 *masha* 1.75 *surkh* coin, while the value of the second is in terms of the 11 *masha* coin. By implication as well as on the basis of the surviving coins, the 11 *masha* coin in gold was one of the major coins of the system.

In silver, Abu-I Fazl describes nine coins. Two of these (the round rupee and the square rupee) were of same weight, 11.5 *mashas*/177.5 *grains*, and the rest were fractions: 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16, of a rupee, as well as 1/5, 1/10 and 1/20 of a rupee. Only four coins are described: the *dam*, its 1/2, 1/4 and 1/8, but it has been mentioned above that it existed in other fractional pieces as well.

In addition to this description of weights of the coin, Abu-l Fazl explains that there was an accounting unit, not struck as a coin. This unit, the *jital*, was 1/25 of a *dam*; forty *dams* equaled a rupee; and nine rupees equaled the 11 *masha* gold coin, while 10 rupees equaled the 12 *masha* 1.75 *surkh* coin.

The many fractional pieces in silver and especially the very large number of multiples and fractions in gold were a monarch's playthings and were, basically, irrelevant to the success of the system. The strength of the monetary system lay, not in the number of denominations issued, but in the combined characteristics of the system, which will be explained.

The shape of the coins of Akbar was round and later was changed to square for gold and silver coins. The round and square coins were issued simultaneously during 993 A.H. to 998 A.H. Later the square shaped coins were abandoned and almost all the coins of the later period were issued in round shape. Akbar had also issued some commemorative gold coins in Mihrabi shape i.e. hexagonal with oblong upper and lower sides and left and right sides of the shapes of domes. The coins of Akbar were distinguished for the styles he incorporated along with the shape and weight of the coins. The coins gained the distinct characteristics due to the content of their inscriptions. Till 1585 A.D. the gold and silver coins were issued in the '*Kalima*' type. They followed the earlier '*Shahrukh*' coins of the early Mughal emperors like Babur and Humayun. The coins were issued with the '*Kalima*' on the obverse with the names of the four *Khalifas*. On the reverse side of the coin was the emperor with or without the titles, the pious wish, the name of the mint with or without an epithet and the date in the *Hijri* era. The dates in the *Hijri* era were inscribed in a regular manner till 998 A.H. then the word '*Alif*' was put on them to represent 1000.

The coins of Akbar also reflect the change in the religious thinking of the emperor. During this period the '*Kalima*' was removed from the coins and its place was given to the *Ilahi* creed *Allah Akbar Jalla Jalalah*. Including these, the name and the titles of the emperor were also withdrawn.

Akbar introduced the use of metrical legends on some of his gold and silver coins and after Akbar this was practiced by most of his successors as well. The earliest coin with a couple were issued but were suspended shortly after. They were reissued and were continued till the end of his reign. Another metrical legend on gold was used on the coins of Agra mint and the metrical legend were issued on the conquest of Bandhogarh. Akbar also reintroduced the pictorial motifs on some of his coins. The gold coins that were issued to commemorate the conquest of the fortress of Asirgarh, the stronghold of Khandesh, bear a hawk on one side and the mint name and the date on the other side of the coin. Some silver coins of another type manifesting Akbar riding a horse with a hawk were perhaps issued on this occasion. In later years, the mint gold and silver coins were issued. The effigy of Ram and Sita with the words '*Rama Siya*' in Nagri was observed on the top of one side of the coin. Another pictorial coin was also issued in the same year, which bore the picture of duck on the coin.

With some exceptions, the copper coins of Akbar followed the copper coinage of Babur and Humayun in respect of the legends. They only had the name of the mint with the words '*fulus*' or '*Sikka fulus*' on the obverse and the date in Persian words on the reverse. Later with the introduction of *Ilahi* era, the *Ilahi* month and year were placed on this side. When the '*tankah*' and '*tanki*' coins were introduced, the obverse had the value suffixed with the word '*Akbar Shahi*'. The mint name was now placed on the reverse along with the date. In time of Akbar, the mint names got importance and since then they became an integral part of the Mughal coins. The steady territorial expansion of Akbar's empire was accompanied by the expansion of the mints. Over twenty names are seen on the gold coins and about forty five on the silver coins. In the beginning, regular mints for gold coins were situated at the provincial capitals and afterwards Delhi was added to the list. But the mint at Delhi was soon closed and Ahmadabad took the position when Gujarat was conquered. Similarly, coins were issued from Patna after Bihar was attached to the empire. These mint, which struck gold coins, also issued silver and copper coins. In addition to that, there were three or four mints which issued only silver and copper coins. Apart from that, copper coins were issued from many other places.

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COINAGE OF JAHANGIR, SHAHJAHAN AND AURANGZEB

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The Mughal Empire, primarily, witnessed the zenith of success in the time of Akbar. However, coins were given due heed during the reign of Jahangir as well. In fact he took a personal interest to develop his coinage. Jahangir included his innovative qualities in issuing coins and later those became the characteristic of his coinage.

In 1605 A.D., after the demise of Akbar, Jahangir came to the throne. Though he was announced the ruler of the empire, Jahangir ordered not to issue any coin before his formal coronation. Upon his accession, raised the weight of the rupee of 20 per cent, while he also instituted a new weight for the silver coins, whereby the new *rupya-iJahangiri* was supposed to weigh exactly one *tola*. About, or by, the beginning of his 4th regnal year, he ordered the issue of yet another rupee, known as the *sawai*, which was 25 per cent above that of akbar in weight. But in the 6th year, on representations about the inconvenience caused by this multiplicity of issues, he stopped the minting of his innovations and reverted to the older rupee. He did not alter the weight of his silver *tola*, however, so that the restored rupee was officially regarded as weighing 10 *mashas* only.

The coins that were issued in the time of Jahangir bore the name '*Nuruddin Jahangir Shah Akbar Shah*' on one side and the other side followed the *Ilahi* coins of Akbar. These coins bore the mint's name, the *Ilahi* (Persian) month, the regnal and the *Hijri* years. Apart from these coins, couplets inscribed on the coins were also issued from different places of India and some other places outside India. These issues from each of these mints had couplets of their own with some individual characteristics. Later in his ruling period, Jahangir issued some gold coins that had portraits of his own, for being presented to his favourites. These coins were in the same tradition in which he had earlier issued the coins with the portrait of his father. Some coins were issued at the time of Jahangir that bore the bust of the emperor in profile. On some of the coins his posture with a flower or a cup in his right hand was seen. On the reverse side of the coin was a lion either to the right or to the left side. Some coins displayed the emperor seated cross legged on the throne with a cup on the right hand and a legend on the reverse side of the coin.

During the later days of his reign, Jahangir lost his mental and physical stability and then the administration was entrusted to his queen Nurjahan. The coins that were issued from places like Agra, Ahemedabad, Akbarnagar, Allahabad, Kashmir, Patna, Surat etc bore a couplet that signified

that by order of Shah Jahangir gold attained a hundred beauties when the same of Nurjahan Badshah Begum was placed on it. These coins continued till the termination of Jahangir's reigning period and later during the time of Shahjahan, these coins were returned to the mint and melted for carrying the zodiac signs. As a matter of fact, these coins are very rare. The coins of Jahangir had simple legends and the copper coins that were issued in the beginning of the reign follow the pattern of Akbar with the only change that the words 'Shah Salimi' took the place of 'Akbar Shah'. These coins were issued from Ahmadabad.

Some of the coins of Jahangir bore the words like '*Sikka Jahangir*' on the observe and '*Sikka Rawani*' on the reverse. The coins of the later years from the same mint had '*Sikka Jahangiri*' on the observe and the mint name and the date on the reverse. On some coins, the word '*raji*' (current), or '*raji-ul-wakt*' (current in the period) or '*rawan shud*' (in currency) are seen on one side.

Coins of Shah Jahan include the gold and silver coins that had the '*Kalima*' and the mints name on one side and his name and title '*Sahibqiran sani shihabuddin Muhammad Shah Jahan Badshah Ghazi*' on the other.

Primarily the superscriptions on the coins were plain and simple. But later till the end of his reigning period, except the Tattah mint, where the earlier style was retained, Shah Jahan employed a type endless in its varieties. During this time, the names of the four *khalifas* were reintroduced and they appear with epithets in the margin on the observe side of the coin. The reverse margin bore the titles of the emperor. He used a couplet that was introduced during his period connotes, may the coins of Shahjahanabad-be current in the world for ever in the name of the second Lord of the conjunctions.

Coins of Shahjahan in gold, silver and copper metals were issued from Ahmedabad, Akbarabad, Allahabad, Kashmir, Cuttack, Lucknow, Patna, Shahjahanabad, Surat and Ujjain. Gold, copper and silver coins were also issued from different places of India like Ajmer, Aurangabad, Junagarh, Udaipur, etc. After the serious illness of Shahjahan, the conflict for succession to the throne followed. During this time, Shah Shuja and Murad Bakhsh asserted their claims by issuing coins in their names. Shah Shuja issued coins from Akbarnagar in bengal and Murad Bakhsh issued his coins from Ahmadabad, Surat and Khambayat in Gujarat. They used the square type of their father with the '*Kalima*' and the names of the *Khalifas* on one side and their name and title on the other. Both of them styled themselves on the coins as '*Sikandar-sani*'.

After coming to the throne, in 1659 A.D., Aurangzeb proscribed the use of the '*Kalima*' on his coins. Accordingly the '*Kalima*' was withdrawn from the Indian coins. He established his own preference on the coins that were issued during his ruling period.

The coins of Aurangzeb bore his name and title '*Abu-al-zafar Muiuddin Muhammad Bahadur Shah Alarmgir Aurangzeb Badshah Ghazi*' on the observe side of the coin during the early years of his ruling period. Later he introduced a couplet which was composed by Mir Abdul *Baqi*

Shahbai. The couplet came into use at different dates at different mints. Except from Akabarbad, the couplet was used by all mints and continued till the end of reign. The couplet was adopted by Akbarabad very late. The square area like Shah Jahan's coins was used during the early years at Akbarabad and Junagarh. Aurangzeb introduced a separate formula, which carried '*Shah Julus Manus Zarb*' with the name of the mint. The connotation of this phrase was "struck at (mint's name) in the year (regnal year) of the accession associated with prosperity."

In comparison to the copper coins issued during the time of Shah Jahan and Jahangir, copper coins of Aurangzeb stood with a distinct characteristic. His coins were issued in the 'dam' (a small Indian coin) weight till the fifth year of his reign. As per the historical evidences, the weight of the coin was reduced perhaps due to the rise of the metal price during that time. Aurangzeb's coins in copper bore on the obverse, variously, '*Fulus Badshah* (or Shah) *Alamgir*, *Fulus Alamgiri*, *Fulus Aurangzebshahi*, *Aurangzeb Alamgir*, *Sikka Mubark Julus*. The reverse side of the coin had the mint name. The largest number of places was known to have issued the coins of Aurangzeb. The places like Ahmedabad, Akbarabad, Akbarnagar, Azimabad, Bijapur, Burhanpur, Gulbarga, Hyderabad, Cuttack, Lucknow, Shahjanabad, Sholapur, Surat, Ujjain etc. issued coins of gold, silver and copper metals. Moreover, copper coins were exclusively known from Aurangnagar, Bairat and Udaipur. It has also been considered that the coins that were issued in some of these places were not the imperial issues but they had been issued by the local authorities without any imperial sanction.

The coins of Aurangzeb were noted for the distinct features he employed during his reigning period. Aurangzeb was followed by his successors for the inscriptions of their coinage. They adopted uniformly on the reverse the formula '*Sanh julus maimanat Manus*' with the mint name and the regnal year. There was a common pattern for the obverse, which began with the words '*Sikka Mubarak*' (auspicious coin) followed by the name of the king and ended in '*Badshah Ghazi*'. At times, the successors of Aurangzeb preferred to add some couplet on the obverse side of the coin in place of the set pattern of the coin.

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A STUDY ON IMPROVING CHILD SEX RATIO IN HARYANA

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ABSTRACT

Few years back, the sex ratio in Haryana was imbalanced as this ratio was reported to be 879 in 2011 i.e. there were 879 females for 1000 males in Haryana at that time. Sex ratio is considered as an important factor for human development. In most of the countries of the world, the sex ratio is observed to be above 1000 females for 1000 males. But, in India, this sex ratio tends to lower down due to poor mentality of the people regarding the girl child. Now, after some encouraging programs by Indian government, the level of sex ratio has started improving in Haryana and for the first time in last two decades, the sex ratio is observed to be above 900 which is a good sign for the human development in Haryana. The current paper highlights the improving sex ratio in Haryana.

KEYWORDS: Sex ratio, Child, Government

INTRODUCTION

There are a number of factors which are responsible for this improvement in the child sex ratio in Haryana. There are a number of schemes initiated by the Indian Government to encourage the people to have girl child. As in Haryana, most of the people consider girls as burden because girls can't help them financially and also, large amount of dowry is given to the groom's family during her marriage. Hence, people don't prefer to have a girl child.

Hence, Haryana government started a scheme called as 'Sukanya Samridhi'. Under this scheme, the families who are not able to afford the expenses of the girl child, are given the financial aid so that the girls can get essential things.

For the proper implementation of this program, B3P cells are formed by Haryana government and the purpose of this cell is to successfully implement this program so that each and every needed family can get the financial aid. Also, a law against illegal determination of sex was introduced in May 2015 and Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act. 391 FIRs were lodged at that time. Now, according to the laws, it is a crime to pre-determine the sex of the child. This law was introduced due to the fact that some people knew the sex of the child before birth with the help of doctors. If doctors informed that girl child is expected then some people were killed the infant before birth.

Hence, this law was introduced and now, there is a provision of imprisonment for the doctors and people who try to pre-determine the sex the child. This law has also proved to be an effective tool in enhancing the sex ratio in Haryana.

Also, a lot of awareness regarding sex-ratio is spread by the government agencies with the help of advertisements through television and hoardings. Media has also played an important role in awaring the people about sex-ratio.

Also, a lot of girls have emerged from Haryana who have achieved a lot in every field of life. Some of these girls are Kalpana Chawla, Geeta Phogat, Sakshi Malik and Deepa Malik etc. These girls now have become an idol for the people of Haryana and the perception of Haryanavi people towards the girl child has started to change in a positive way causing an effective improvement in the sex ratio in the state.

Also, the facility of free education is provided by the government under the scheme of 'Beti Bachao, Beti Pdhao'. All the essential things regarding the education are provided under this program and families are encouraged to send their girls to the schools.

In 2017, this sex ratio was observed to be 914 i.e. in the year 2017, there were 914 females for 1000 males and this ratio is expected to be better in the coming years.

IMPROVING CHILD SEX RATIO IN HARYANA

Even though the Pre-Conception and Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques (Prohibition of Sex Selection) Act, 1994, which banned prenatal sex determination and punished anyone indulging in such practices with a jail term and fine, has been in force since 1996, little had changed in some of the worst-affected states.

The situation began to change rapidly after 2015 when the Centre announced its flagship 'Beti Bachao, Beti Padhao' scheme and the Haryana government started to heavily clamp down on those running sex determination centres in the state utilising provisions in the PCPNDT Act and Medical Termination of Pregnancy (MTP) Act.

According to the Haryana government, in 2012 five districts had a sex ratio below 800, namely Rewari (780), Narnaul (770), Kurukshetra (743), Jhajjar (781) and Karnal (797). In 2017, there were just four districts that registered a sex ratio below 900, namely Rewari (893), Rohtak (891), Jind (898) and Narnaul (881). Districts like Kurukshetra, meanwhile, have seen their sex ratio rise to 924 in 2017, and Mewat today has seen more girls born than boys.

Going by multiple reports, it seems evident that the secret to the Haryana government's success has been better enforcement of the law since the launch of the BBBP scheme.

According to a joint study cited earlier (Effectiveness of India's National Programme to save the girl child: Experience of Bet Bachao Beti Padhao programme from Haryana state) in the first 12 months since the scheme's launch, more than 250 FIRs were registered while 200 persons indulging

in such practices including doctors, quacks, parents and their relatives have been arrested under the PCPNDT and MTP Acts.

However, according to the same report, authorities in Haryana are unhappy with the ineffectiveness of their counterparts in Punjab in cracking down on sex determination centres. Families from Haryana often travel to the neighbouring state, evading local authorities. Officials in Punjab refute the charge and argue that Haryana counterparts have no jurisdiction to conduct sting operations.

Haryana's battle against its dwindling sex ratio is finally producing some encouraging results. Having said that, the state still has some way to go before it can even match the national average of 943, or possibly reach level terms with some of India's more progressive states like Kerala.

Officials said it was a matter of pride for Haryana as it had recorded a major jump from 2011 when the state had registered the worst sex ratio in the country at 834 girls per 1000 boys.

They said the state witnessed a remarkable increase of 82 points in sex ratio at birth during the last five years, with nine districts improving the SRB by 100 or more points.

Out of the 5,09,290 children born during last year, there were 2,66,064 boys and 2,43,226 girls. The sex ratio rose to 914 girls per 1000 boys. Seventeen districts recorded the SRB of 900 or more but no district was below 880 in 2017.

Panipat with the SRB of 945 topped the list, followed by Yamuna Nagar at 943 which is close to 950, considered ideal from the perspective of public health.

Mahendragarh, Rewari, Sonipat and Jhajjar districts, which recorded sex ratio below 800 as per 2011 census, have shown an improvement of 136, 91, 88, 96 points respectively in their SRBs.

The officials said after the launch of the 'Beti Bachao, Beti Padho' campaign, the government had embarked upon a multi-pronged drive to rectify the skewed sex ratio in Haryana.

DISCUSSION

The BetiBachaoBetiPadhao Scheme was launched from Panipat, Haryana on 22nd January, 2015. The State of Haryana is known for its worst Sex Ratio in the nation. Out of total 100 districts having the lowest Sex Ratio initially selected for the scheme, 12 districts were from Haryana. The performance of the scheme is to be evaluated at the end of 12th five year plan i.e. after 2017. But the government of Haryana has made impressive claims regarding the success of the scheme by declaring that the Sex Ratio at Birth has been touched the 900 mark in December, 2016 from a low level of 834 in 2011. Such a claim raises doubt about the authenticity of the data. The claim is looks like based upon the window dressing of the data and there is a marginal increase in Child Sex Ratio in Haryana. The government machinery is immediately registering the birth of girl child and delaying the registration of male children.

Infamous for the worst sex ratio in the country, Haryana was recently reported to have made improvements in the number of girls per 1,000 boys. But, a latest audit report has unearthed the truth behind this.

To everyone's surprise, the state, which had only 834 girls per 1000 boys in the 2011 Census touched 900 in 2016. And in March this year, it rose to 950.

However, The Times of India reports that an audit of figures reported by eight of 10 districts in the first quarter of this year has found that these numbers were misreported.

They were inflated. In others, newborn girls were registered on priority in the quarter under review while male children were registered in the next quarter to manipulate the final outcome, says the report. In some cases, clerical errors are also to be blamed for the rise in the number of girls. The audit was started by the 'Beti Bachao Beti Padhao' campaign team after it got suspicious of some of these "remarkable" numbers.

The ten districts audited so far are Panipat, Narnaul, Jhajjar, Sonipat, Kaithal, Hisar, Sirsa, Faridabad, Gurgaon and Jind.

Although, the improvement is the positive but the target is yet to achieve. If the strategies followed go on for long run then the situation of imbalance in sex ratio will not only improve at state level but also at national level. The time has come when women are no longer considered a weaker sex. People have to come out of their rigid mindset in order to achieve a greater cause. Educating girls and encouraging them to be at par with boys will help to achieve this goal.

CONCLUSION

Haryana has created an example and footprint for other states to follow, that given greater political will things can be changed in reasonable time. Haryana still has to go a long way to reach a sound overall sex ratio and seems to be in the perfect momentum to achieve it. The war against female foeticide, infanticide and girl child discrimination can be won only if we start this war from our own home. Once we are awake, girls are safe.

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सार्क संगठन की स्थापना एवं भारतीय दृष्टिकोण : 1990 से पूर्व तक की स्थिति का एक वि"लेखनात्मक अध्ययन

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प्रस्तुत शोध प्रपत्र में सार्क संगठन की स्थापना के प्रमुख आयामों की दे"ा और दि"ा के संदर्भों को प्रस्तुत करने का प्रयास किया गया है। सार्क की स्थापना के दौरान भारत, ब्रिटे"ा राज की सदियों की गुलामी से अपने को आजाद कर एक नए भारत के निर्माण का सपना देख रहा था, साथ ही दक्षिण ए"ीया के दे"ों के साथ एक मजबूत रिस्तों को बनाने का प्रयास कर रहा था। उस समय भारत के सामने अपने दे"ा की आन्तरीक समस्याओं का समाधान करना एक चुनौती के समान था ही, साथ ही साथ दे"ा की सुरक्षा भी एक प्रकार की चुनौती थी। भारत को अपनी सुरक्षा की दृष्टि से उसके पड़ोसी दे"ों के साथ नजदीक सम्बन्ध बनाना बहुत ही जरूरी नजर प्रतीत हो रहा था। भारतीय राजनीतिक बदलाव और आन्तरीक समस्याओं के साथ-साथ पड़ोसी मुल्कों के साथ एक मजबूत रिस्तों को बनाए रखना और उसे अपने दे"ा की विदे"ा नीति में स्थान देना, जिससे उसे अपने हितों की पूर्ती की जा सके। किसी भी दे"ा की विदे"ा नीति के लिए विदे"ा नीति का उद्दे"य, विचारधारा, कार्यक्रम, नेतृत्व और संगठन, जन सहभागिता इत्यादि का महत्वपूर्ण स्थान होता है।

अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय राजनीति में एक राज्य किसी दूसरे राज्य के साथ अपने सम्बन्धों को स्थापित करने में जिस नीति का प्रयोग करता है, उसे ही विदेश नीति कहते हैं। इस प्रकार किसी भी राज्य की विदेश नीति को समझने के लिए उस राज्य की प्रशासनिक नीति का अध्ययन किया जाना चाहिए। प्रस्तुत शोध प्रपत्र में सार्क संगठन की स्थापना में भारत की भूमिका और साथ ही सार्क की स्थापना के प्रमुख आयामों का विश्लेषण करने का कार्य किया जा रहा है। इस शोध प्रपत्र में भारत की राजनीति में आए परिवर्तनों का सार्क संगठन पर पड़ने वाले प्रभावों के विशेष सन्दर्भ विश्लेषण करने का प्रयास किया गया है। प्रस्तुत शोध प्रपत्र में भारत की आन्तरिक स्थिति, भारतीय नेतृत्व, अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय परिस्थितियों का प्रभाव इत्यादि का राजनीतिकशास्त्रीय रूप में वि"लेखन करने का प्रयास किया गया है।

मुख्य-शब्द: क्षेत्रीय सहयोग की आव"यकता, भारत की भूमिका, भारतीय नेतृत्व, अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय परिस्थितियों का प्रभाव।

प्रस्तावना

नव अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय अर्थव्यवस्था के निर्माण में विकासशील देशों को पर्याप्त महत्व देने में विकसित देशों की अनिच्छा व उदासीनता ने क्षेत्रीय विकास के लिए क्षेत्रीय सहयोग की नई व्यूह रचना को जन्म दिया है। अफ्रीका, लेटिन अमेरिका, दक्षिण पूर्वी एशिया, पूर्वीयूरोप आदि कई क्षेत्रों में उपस्थित देशों ने मिलकर ऐसे संगठनों का निर्माण किया, जिनमें दक्षिण पूर्व एशियाई राष्ट्रों का संघ (ए.एस.ई.ए.एन.) उत्तरी अमेरिका मुक्त व्यापार क्षेत्र (एन.ए.एफ.टी.ए.) यूरोपीय आर्थिक समुदाय (ई.ई.सी.) दक्षिणी पूर्वी अफ्रीकी साझा बाजार (कोमेसा) आदि प्रमुख हैं। दक्षिण एशियाई क्षेत्रीय सहयोग संगठन (जिसे दक्षेस या सार्क (SAARC) के नाम से भी जाना जाता है) इस श्रृंखला की नवीनतम कड़ियों में से एक है। दक्षेस के गठन में अन्य क्षेत्रीय संगठनों की तुलना में समय का काफी अन्तराल रहा। भारत की विशालता एवं पड़ोसी देशों में उत्पन्न सुरक्षा भय तथा भारत-पाकिस्तान के मध्य तनाव इसके लिए उत्तरदायी कारण रहे हैं। परन्तु प्रमुख दक्षिण एशियाई देशों के राजनेताओं के बयानों व विभिन्न विद्वानों की टिप्पणियों से स्पष्ट है कि दक्षेस के गठन में विलम्ब के बावजूद इस ओर बंगलादेश, श्रीलंका, नेपाल आदि सदस्य देशों की पहल उत्साहप्रद रही। दक्षेस देशों द्वारा सहयोग के विभिन्न क्षेत्रों की पहचान की गई है, जहाँ इन देशों में तकनीकी, औद्योगिक, सामाजिक अन्तःक्रिया व आधारभूत ढांचे में विकास हेतु सहयोग अपेक्षित है। इन सब लक्ष्यों की प्राप्ति एवं दक्षेस को सफल संगठन बनाने में

भारत की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका अपेक्षित है, जो उसकी विशालता, केन्द्रीय स्थिति और प्राकृतिक संसाधनों की प्रचुरता तथा औद्योगिक विकास के उच्च मानदण्डों में निहित है।

दक्षेस संगठन में भारत की महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रही है और भारत का सहयोग भी सभी देशों को इस मंच से प्राप्त हुआ है। दक्षेस की स्थापना के बाद भारत की संगठन में भूमिका और नेपाल के साथ सम्बन्धों को इस अध्याय में विश्लेषण किया गया है। भारत और नेपाल के सम्बन्धों को मजबूत करने एवं भारत का नेपाल में संगठन के स्तर पर क्या योगदान रहा है, उसका विश्लेषण करने का भी प्रयास किया गया है। इस अध्याय में मुख्यरूप से दक्षेस की स्थापना के बाद भारत की भूमिका और नेपाल के साथ सम्बन्धों को केन्द्र में रखकर विश्लेषण करने का प्रयास किया गया है, जिससे दोनों देशों के सम्बन्धों को एवं संगठन क महत्व को रेखांकित किया जाने में सहयोग मिल सके।

क्षेत्रीय सहयोग का स्वरूप एवं कार्यक्रम : भारतीय दृष्टिकोण

राष्ट्रीय स्वतंत्रता आन्दोलन के अन्तिम चरण से ही राष्ट्रीय नेताओं को यह आभाशित होने लगा था कि औद्योगिक युग में विकास के लिए विभिन्न देशों के बीच पारस्परिक सहयोग आवश्यक है तथा साम्राज्यवाद से मुक्त देशों को मिल जुलकर साधन जुटाने होंगे। 1946 में एशियाई सम्बन्ध सम्मेलन को सम्बोधित करते हुए पंडित नेहरू ने कहा था कि "एशिया में पुर्नजागृति आई है। वे दिन गए जब तक एशिया का भाग्य निर्धारण अन्य शक्तियों के द्वारा किया जाता था।" इसी भावना का विस्तार अफ्रेशियाई सम्मेलनों तथा गुटनिरपेक्ष शक्तियों के सम्मेलन में आर्थिक कार्यक्रमों की रूपरेखा निर्माण के माध्यम से किया गया। सत्तर व अस्सी के दशक में पारस्परिक सहयोग की आवश्यकता को भारत ने विश्व मंच से प्रतिपादित किया। संयुक्त राष्ट्र को व्यापार एवं विकास परिषद के विभिन्न सम्मेलनों में उत्तर-दक्षिण सहयोग की असफलता के बाद दक्षिण सहयोग की बात भी भारत ने पुरजोर ढंग से उठाई। परन्तु दक्षिण एशिया के स्तर पर आर्थिक विकास हेतु पारस्परिक सहयोग का प्रश्न भारत ने एक अलग शैली में उठाया है, क्षेत्रीय स्तर पर राजनीतिक मतभेद और लगाव सदैव भारत के लिए संकोच का कारण रहे हैं। पड़ोसी देश भी भारत पर बड़े दादा के व्यवहार का आरोप लगाते रहे हैं। दूसरी तरफ यह भी स्पष्ट है कि भारत के विपुल साधनों को देखते हुए दक्षेस में उसका सहयोग आवश्यक है। ऐसे में यह सहयोग के स्तर एवं स्वरूप के बारे में भारत का क्या दृष्टिकोण है और भारत ने किन आधारों पर अपना विशिष्ट दृष्टिकोण बनाया है।

दक्षेस की स्थापना के समय स्व० प्रधानमंत्री राजीव गांधी ने दक्षिण एशिया में क्षेत्रीय सहयोग के प्रयासों की प्रशंसा की तथा बड़प्पन के अहंकार से मुक्त हर बराबरी एवं विनम्रता के व्यवहार द्वारा निर्णायक भूमिका अदा कि और कहा कि सहयोग के इस नये मंच से दक्षिण एशिया को शान्ति और विकास का क्षेत्र बनाने में मदद मिलेगी।⁹ इस आश्वासन के बावजूद विभिन्न परिस्थितियों के बदलने के साथ-साथ भारतीय दृष्टिकोण में परिवर्तन होना निश्चित है। अतः विश्व में आर्थिक गुटों के प्रभावों को देखते हुए भारत ने दक्षेस के प्रति अपने दृष्टिकोण में उसी परिदृश्य में परिवर्तन किया और सहयोग के विषयों को दक्षेस पर उठाने की पहल की। भारत के प्रधानमंत्री ने दक्षेस के छठवें शिखर सम्मेलन में मुक्त व्यापार क्षेत्र का मामला उठाया और दक्षेस के सात देशों के बीच व्यापार म आपसी रियासतें देने और उदार व्यापार क्षेत्र की स्थापना पर बल दिया।

भारत के संयमपूर्ण दृष्टिकोण के पृथक-पृथक अर्थ भी लगाये गये हैं। दूसरी ओर कई विद्वानों का मानना है कि भारत के पड़ोसियों का प्रयत्न यही रहा है कि क्षेत्रीय सहयोग से तथा सद्भावना की दुहाई देकर भारत से प्राप्त कर और कमोवेश अपने राष्ट्रीय हितों की बलि देने के लिए विवश कर सकें। इसलिए भारत का दृष्टिकोण दक्षेस के प्रति उतार-चढ़ाव का रहा है। भारत का दक्षेस के प्रति समय-समय पर जो दृष्टिकोण आया है उसे समझने के लिए भारत की अपनी आर्थिक क्षमताओं का आकलन आवश्यक है। अपने प्रखंड में इसी मसले का विश्लेषण है, जिससे यह स्पष्ट है कि भारत की सम्बद्धता व सहयोग क्यों आवश्यक है।

भारत की क्षमता/क्षेत्रीय सहयोग के लिए अनिवार्यता

भौगोलिक दृष्टि से दक्षेस के सदस्य देशों की तुलना में भारत एक विशाल देश है। क्षेत्रफल की दृष्टि से भारत पाकिस्तान से 4, बांग्लादेश से 22, नेपाल से 23, श्रीलंका से 50 और भूटान से 50 गुणा अधिक है। जनसंख्या की दृष्टि से भारत पाकिस्तान से 8.5, बांग्लादेश से 7.5, नेपाल से 50, श्रीलंका से 47.5 तथा भूटान से 51.7 गुणा अधिक है। सैनिक दृष्टि से भारत विश्व में चौथा बड़ा शक्तिशाली राष्ट्र है (तथा औद्योगिक दृष्टि से भारत विश्व का दसवां विकसित राष्ट्र है)। भारत, पाकिस्तान से

2.5, बांग्लादेश से 11.5, नेपाल से 45 तथा श्रीलंका से 67.5 गुणा से यह शक्ति सम्पन्न है। दूसरी दृष्टि से तुलना करें तो हम पायेंगे कि विश्व का मात्र 3 प्रतिशत भूमि दक्षिण एशिया में है। जिस पर 22.5 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या निवास करती है। दक्षिण एशिया के कुल क्षेत्र का 72 प्रतिशत भाग तथा कुल जनसंख्या का 77 प्रतिशत भाग भारत में निवास करता है। यहां के सकल राष्ट्रीय उत्पादन महत्वपूर्ण खनिजों में 90 प्रतिशत कोयला, लोहा, पेट्रोलियम, क्रीमियम तथा नमक, 81 प्रतिशत जंगल, 69 प्रतिशत सिंचित भूमि, 84 प्रतिशत खेती योग्य भूमि भारत में है। साथ ही लगभग 100 प्रतिशत खनिज स्रोत (यूरेनियम), कच्चा लोहा, बाक्साइट, मैंगनीज, चांदी, टंगस्टन, जिंक, हीरे, तांबा, सोना आदि भारत में है।

भारत की अर्थव्यवस्था दक्षिण देशों में सबसे बड़ी अर्थव्यवस्था है। दक्षिण एशिया के कुल विश्व व्यापार का आधा भारत द्वारा किया जाता है। भारत के व्यापार सन्तुलन को दक्षिण देशों के साथ देखा जाए तो सभी दक्षिण एशियाई देश भारत से निर्यातों पर निर्भर हैं। व्यापार सन्तुलन भारत के पक्ष में रहता है। भारत में औद्योगिक विकास का स्तर भी अन्य देशों से कई गुना आगे है। यहाँ विशाल वायुयान व अंतरिक्ष यान से लेकर मिसाइल प्रौद्योगिकी और अन्य क्षेत्रों में बड़े-बड़े कारखाने हैं। हरित क्रान्ति में भी देश को सफलता मिली है। उपरोक्त संसाधनों को देखते हुए स्पष्ट है कि दक्षिण एशिया में भारत की स्थिति महत्वपूर्ण है। अतः भारतीय सहयोग के बिना कोई भी संगठन सफल नहीं हो सकता है। अन्य पड़ोसी देशों में भारत से सहयोग प्राप्त कर क्षेत्रीय विकास को बढ़ाया जा सकता है। भारत की विकसित तकनीकें इन देशों के लिए अधिक उपयुक्त है।

भारतीय दृष्टिकोण क्रमिक विकास

सार्क (दक्षिण) अर्थात् 'दक्षिण एशियाई क्षेत्रीय सहयोग संगठन' की स्थापना के 7 दिसम्बर, 1985 को ढाका में दक्षिण एशिया के 7 देशों के राष्ट्राध्यक्षों के सम्मेलन में हुई। ये देश हैं : भारत, पाकिस्तान, बांग्लादेश, नेपाल, भूटान, श्रीलंका और मालदीव। यह दक्षिण एशिया के सात पड़ोसी देशों की विश्व राजनीति में क्षेत्रीय सहयोग की पहली शुरुआत थी। 'दक्षिण' की स्थापना के अवसर पर दक्षिण एशिया के इन नेताओं ने जो भाषण दिये, उनमें आपसी सहयोग बढ़ाने और तनाव समाप्त करने पर जोर दिया गया। उन्होंने यह भी कहा कि नये संगठन के जन्म से इन सात देशों के बीच सद्भावना, भाई चारे और सहयोग का नया युग शुरू होगा। उन्होंने 'क्षेत्रीय सहयोग संघ' के जन्म को 'युगान्तकारी घटना', 'नये युग का शुभारम्भ' तथा सामूहिक सूझबूझ और राजनीतिक इच्छा शक्ति को अभिव्यक्ति बताया।¹⁰

द्वितीय शिखर सम्मेलन 16-17 नवम्बर, 1986 को भारत में हुआ इसमें दक्षिण का सचिवालय काठमांडू (नेपाल) में स्थापित करने का निश्चय किया गया। इस समय दक्षिण एशियाई देशों के आपसी सम्बन्ध कई विवादास्पद विषयों के कारण बिगड़े थे, फिर भी शिखर बैठक झगड़ालू मामलों से मुक्त रही। एक विषय जिस पर सहभागी कुछ आगे बढ़ सके वह था क्षेत्रीय औद्योगिक सहयोग का विषय, भारत ने इस विषय पर जोरदार अपील की, किन्तु पाकिस्तान का विचार था कि दक्षिण के अन्तर्गत वृहत्तर आर्थिक सहयोग से भारत के उत्पादनों के लिए हमारे बाजार खुल जायेंगे। इस बैठक में भारतीय दृष्टिकोण का उछाला गया तो पाक द्वारा बेबुनियाद आरोप लगाकर उनको असफल बना दिया क्योंकि पाकिस्तान मंच पर द्विपक्षीय मुद्दों को उठालना चाहता था, जबकि भारत व अन्य इनका विरोध कर रहे थे।

सार्क के तीसरे शिखर सम्मेलन (2-4 नवम्बर, 1987 काठमांडू) में दक्षिण एशिया अन्न सुरक्षा कोष के लिए 2,00,000 टन अनाज कोष भंडार की व्यवस्था तथा आतंकवाद के नियन्त्रण पर सहमति दर्ज की गई। भारत ने आतंकवाद की समस्या को उठाया आर उसका सभी देशों ने समर्थन किया लेकिन अभी तक आतंकवाद को स्पष्ट रूप से परिभाषित नहीं किया जा सकता है। इस बैठक में पाक ने दक्षिण एशिया को 'परमाणु मुक्त क्षेत्र' के मुद्दे को उठाया तथा भूटान नरेश ने इसका समर्थन किया। लेकिन भारत ने इसे अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय समस्या माना न कि क्षेत्रीय और इसे नामंजूर कर दिया। इस समय तक भारत और अन्य पड़ोसी देशों के आपसी विवादों के कारण दक्षिण की प्रगति काफी धीमी गति से रही।

चौथे शिखर सम्मेलन (20-31 दिसम्बर, 1989) इस्लामाबाद (पाकिस्तान) में भारतीय दृष्टिकोण में बदलाव देखा गया तथा दक्षिण एशियाई योजना 2000 पर जोर दिया गया। इसके तहत शताब्दी के अन्त तक सम्पूर्ण दक्षिण की जनसंख्या को साक्षर करने आवास देने का प्रावधान किया गया। भारत ने मादक द्रव्यों की तस्करी, आतंकवाद आदि को समाप्त करने का आह्वान किया। भारतीय प्रधानमंत्री श्री राजीव गांधी व पाकिस्तान की प्रधानमंत्री श्रीमती बेनजीर भुट्टो ने ही महत्वपूर्ण मुद्दों को रेखांकित किया। राजीव गांधी ने व्यापक आर्थिक सहयोग एवं श्रीमती भुट्टो ने सुरक्षा व्यय में कमी का आग्रह किया व चौथे शिखर सम्मेलन में श्री राजीव गांधी ने अपने भाषण में तीन व्यवहारिक सुधार रखे -

- दक्षेस महोत्सव का सदस्य देशों में आयोजन
- सूचना एवं समाचारों का आदान प्रदान
- निर्बाध आवागमन।

यह पहला अवसर था जब इस क्षेत्र के दो प्रतिद्वन्दी आपस में मिल बैठ कर और सौहार्द के क्षणों का निर्माण हुआ दोनों नेताओं ने कुछ त्वरित प्रगति अपने व्यक्तिगत प्रयासों से की। पांचवे और छठे शिखर बैठक के समय भारत में केन्द्रीय राजनीति की अस्थिरता उधर पाकिस्तान में बेनजीर की बर्खास्तगी से तथा श्रीलंका से भारत के सम्बन्धों में कड़वाहट से दक्षेस की प्रगति को धक्का लगा तथा आपसी विवादों की राजनीति में उलझ गये तथा भारतीय दृष्टिकोण भी कमजोर होने लगा और भारत की रुचि क्षेत्रीय सहयोग में कम दिखाई देने लगी इसके पीछे मुख्य कारण आपसी सम्बन्धों में कड़वाहट ही था।

छठवें दक्षेस शिखर सम्मेलन (दिस., 1991) में क्षेत्रीय सहयोग पर एक बार फिर जोर दिया गया तथा आर्थिक सहयोग का मुद्दा भारत की तरफ से उठाया गया। भारतीय प्रधानमंत्री श्री पी0वी0 नरसिम्हा राव ने अपना पक्ष रखा। भारतीय भूमिका का इस बात से पता चलता है कि तकनीकी सहयोग के 13 सहमत क्षेत्रों के अन्तर्गत वर्ष 1991 के दौरान 'दक्षेस' के 62 कार्यक्रमलाप हुए और इनमें से लगभग एक चौथाई कार्यक्रमलाप भारत में सम्पन्न हुए।¹¹

अतः उपरोक्त अध्ययन से स्पष्ट होता है कि विभिन्न सम्मेलनों में दक्षेस के प्रति भारत के दृष्टिकोण में समय-समय पर उतार-चढ़ाव आये। इन उतार चढ़ावों का मुख्य कारण भारत का पड़ोसी देशों के साथ सम्बन्धों में कड़वाहट है। दक्षेस के मंचों पर द्विपक्षीय मुद्दों को उठाना संगठन पर प्रश्न चिन्ह लगा देते हैं, लेकिन विश्व की परिस्थितियों में बदलाव ने भी भारतीय व अन्य देशों के दृष्टिकोण को बदला है तथा आर्थिक क्षेत्रीय संगठनों की अनिवार्यता महसूस हुई, क्योंकि वर्तमान में कोई भी पूर्ण आत्मनिर्भर नहीं है। अतः भारत ने अपने पड़ोसियों से व्यापार समझौते कर दक्षिण एशिया को मुक्त व्यापार क्षेत्र बनाने में जो पहल की, वह भारत के दक्षेस के प्रति बढ़ते दृष्टिकोण का परिचायक है।

भारतीय दृष्टिकोण की सीमाएँ

जैसा कि हम देख चुके हैं कि दक्षेस के प्रति भारतीय दृष्टिकोण में उतार चढ़ाव रहा है। भारत विभिन्न क्षेत्रों में औद्योगीकरण, तकनीकी आदि में अन्य दक्षेस देशों से आगे है तथा आर्थिक उदारवाद के माध्यम से भारत ने विदेशों से समझौते कर अपने व्यापार एवं औद्योगीकरण को बढ़ाया है। जिसमें यातायात अन्तरिक्ष खोज, समुद्र के गर्भ में खनिज पदार्थों की खोज, बड़े इस्पात कारखाने आदि विभिन्न औद्योगिक क्षेत्रों में भारत ने उपयोगी तकनीक प्राप्त की है, इसके साथ-साथ भारतीय लघु उद्योगों को देखते हुए कुछ सीमाएँ हैं। इससे पहले भारतीय औद्योगीकरण की कछ विशेषताएँ भी हैं यहाँ लघु एवं मध्यम दर्जे के उद्योगों को बढ़ावा दिया गया है। जिनमें प्रति इकाई पूंजी कम है तथा श्रमिक नियोजन एवं रोजगार क्षमता ज्यादा है। दूसरे शब्दों में भारत की तकनीक पूंजी गहनता वाली न होकर श्रमिक गहनता वाली है। उदारीकरण से विदेशी पूंजी का विनियोजन बढ़ने से इन लघु उद्योगों की भारत द्वारा रियासत दी गई है, जिससे ये प्रतिस्पर्धा में रुक सकें और बेरोजगारों को रोजगार उपलब्ध हो सकें। भारतीय दृष्टिकोण की प्रमुख सीमा अन्य क्षेत्रीय एवं पड़ोसी देशों द्वारा भारत के प्रति शंकालू हाना भी है। शंका व भय का प्रमुख कारण भारत का विशालकाय क्षेत्रफल बढ़ता विदेशी व्यापार, सैनिक क्षमता, तकनीकी विकास भी है तथा पड़ोसी देश भारत की भूमिका के प्रति शंकाग्रस्त है कि कहीं भारत उनको अपने शिकंजे में न जकड़ ले।

भारत की तकनीकी से अन्य पड़ोसी देशों में लगाये गये उद्योग धन्धों से वहां के कारखानों पर विपरीत प्रभाव न पड़े इस भय के कारण भारतीय दृष्टिकोण सीमित होता है। अतः इस भय एवं शंका को तोड़ने के लिए आपसी संयम की आवश्यकता है। जब तक भारत के दृष्टिकोण की एक सीमा बनी रहेगी। भारत सैनिक दृष्टि से दक्षिण एशिया सक्षम देश है और ये पाकिस्तान से हुए युद्धों से प्रकट भी हो चुका है। यदि शान्ति एवं सौहार्द का वातावरण बनाकर पड़ोसी देश भारत से सहायता की मांग करे तो वे इससे फायदा उठा सकते हैं लेकिन क्षेत्रीय मतभेद होने के कारण भारतीय दृष्टिकोण सीमित हो जाता है। अतः सुरक्षात्मक मामलों में परस्पर विश्वास पर जोर दिया जाना चाहिए। भारत प्राकृतिक संसाधनों से भरपूर देश है। इस कारण भारत की प्रगति अन्य पड़ोसी देश की बजाय ज्यादा हुई है। जिसके कारण पड़ोसी देश भारत के प्राकृतिक संसाधनों के प्रति शकीय दृष्टिकोण रखते हैं और परस्पर व्यापार में कोई पहल नहीं दिखाते हैं। अतः पड़ोसी देशों की शंका को भारत द्वारा दूर करा चाहिए और पड़ोसी देशों को भी इस कारण शंकित नहीं होना चाहिए।

भारतीय दृष्टिकोण की एक सीमा यह भी है कि भारत द्वारा नवीनतम तकनीक तीसरे देशों से प्राप्त करना चाहता है, क्योंकि नवीनतम तकनीक प्राप्त करना भारत के लिए अति आवश्यक है और प्राप्त करनी भी चाहिए। दक्षिण के देशों में राजनीतिक विवाद रहे हैं। यदि भारत अपनी भूमिका को क्षेत्र में महत्व देता है तो पड़ोसी देश उस पर दादागिरी का आरोप लगाते हैं, जिससे भारत इस आरोप से बचने के कारण अपनी भूमिका में कमी कर देता है तथा ये राजनीतिक सम्बन्ध भी एक द्विपक्षीय विवाद भी भारतीय दृष्टिकोण को सीमित करते हैं। इस प्रकार हम कह सकते हैं कि क्षेत्रीय सहयोग के प्रति भारतीय दृष्टिकोण की विभिन्न सीमा होते हुए भी अपने दृष्टिकोण पर कायम रहा है।

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A STUDY ON THE GEOGRAPHICAL STRUCTURE OF THE HIMALAYAS

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ABSTRACT

The Himalayas are considered as the tallest mountain range of the world. It is spread over an arc of approximate 2400 km. These mountains were evolved due to the collision of two continental tectonic plates. There are a number of superlatives like K2, Nanga ; in the Himalayas. The mountains of the Himalayas play very crucial role in the influence of the fundamental behavior of the climate of India.

The width of the Himalayas range from 240-330 kilometers and these mountains cover the major regions of five Asian countries. The area of the Himalayas is observed to be approximate 750,000 square kilometers. A complex of a number of mountains is observed in the Himalayas and this complex is comprised of the Hind Kush, Tien Shan, and the Pamirs etc. The current paper highlights the geographical structure of the Himalayas.

KEYWORDS:Himalayas, Mountain, Climate

INTRODUCTION

A number of rivers are emerged from the mountains of the Himalayas. A large quantity of snow of the glacier tends to melt which results in the abundance of water in these rivers. These rivers play an important role in providing the water in most of the North India regions for agricultural activities.

It is also said that if there were no mountains of the Himalayas then the survival of people of India specially north India, would have been difficult as there would be less rainfall and as a result, most of the part of North India would become desert due to the lack of water resources. Hence, these mountains are real backbone for India.

Raining in summer is caused by the Himalayas as these mountains are capable of intercepting the monsoons coming from the regions of Bay of Bengal and Arabian Sea. As a result of this interception, the level of the precipitation goes on increasing and results into heavy rain falls in North India during summer monsoons.

In the Himalayas, there are mainly three belts which are placed parallel to each other. These belts are comprised of the Outer Himalayas, Inner Himalayas and the Trans Himalayas. Here, the belt of Outer Himalayas is also known as the Shivaliks and its height is lower than that of other two belts. The Lesser Himalayas is present at the north side of the Outer Himalayas and its height tends to rise up to 20,000 feet. On the other hand, the mountains having the largest height are found in the Trans

Himalayas region. Going from east to west, the Himalayas region is classified into three main areas including western, central and eastern Himalayas.

The fertile level of most of the soil of North India is observed to be excellent as a large quantity of alluvium is found in the soil of these regions and this large amount of alluvium comes from the rivers emerging from the Himalayas.

It is reported that approximately 19 lakh tonnes of silt is carried by the Ganga river and this quantity rises up to 24 lakh tones in case of the Brahmaputra river. This large quantity of silt makes the soil comfortable for the agricultural activities.

Also, huge number of forests is found in the Himalayas region. These forests are ranging from the tropical to the Alpine. A large quantity of wood is obtained from these Himalayan forests. This forest wood is used as fuel by a number of industries.

Due to lack of flat land in the Himalayan region, the possibility of doing farming is very less. It is observed that in most of the parts of the Himalayas, terraced slopes are found which can be used to perform the agricultural activities. Most of the people living in the Himalayan region tend to cultivate the Rice crop in these terraced slopes. The other popular crops of this region are tea, ginger, potatoes and maize etc.

GEOGRAPHICAL STRUCTURE OF THE HIMALAYAS

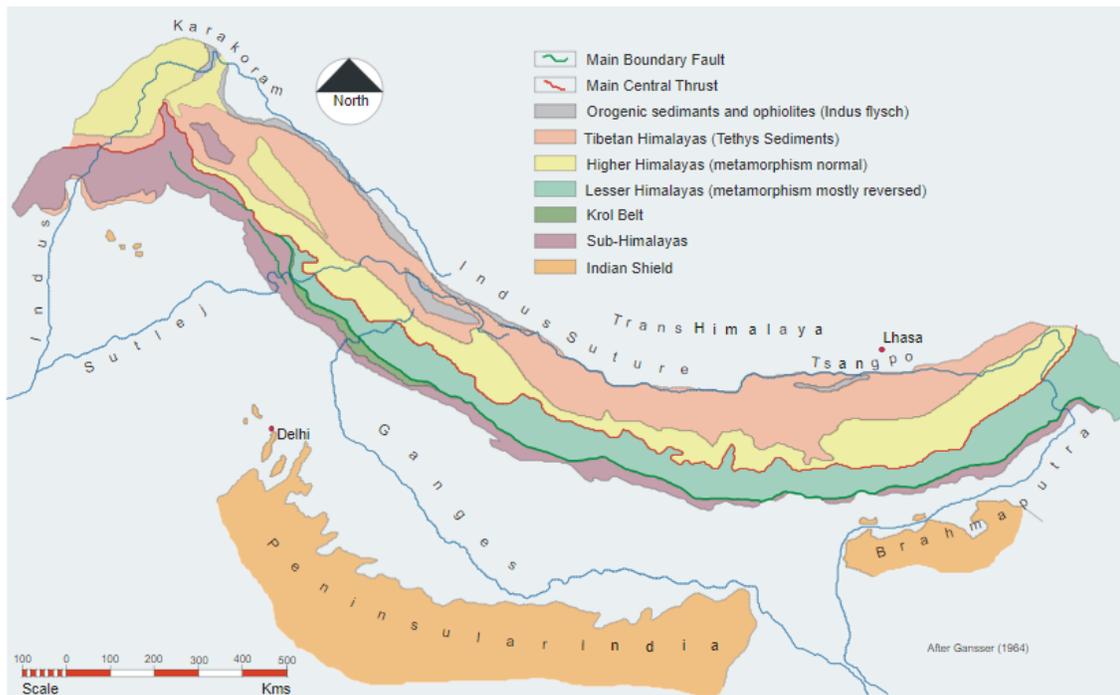
The altitude of the Shiwalik range varies from 600-1500 meters. The distance of the Shiwalik range is found to be approximate 2400 kilometer which geographically covers the region from Potwar Plateau to the Brahmaputra Valley. In Himachal Pradesh, the width of the Shiwaliks is observed to be about 50 kilometers whereas this width shrinks to 15 kilometers in the region of Arunachal Pradesh.

In between the Shiwaliks and the Greater Himalayas, the Middle or the Lower Himalayas is found. The width of the Himalayas is found to be 60-80 kilometer having a length of about 2400 kilometers. However, the altitude of this part of the Himalayas is observed to be ranging from 3500 to 4500 meter above the sea level.

The average elevation of the Central Himalaya is reported to be 6100 meter above sea level having an average width of about 25 kilometer. On the other hand, the average elevation of the Trans Himalayas is observed to be 3000 meter above sea level.

The geology of the Himalayas is a result of its birth process. The continental collision led to a complex structure of deformations of the lithosphere. Multiple litho-tectonic zones/units with distinct rock sequences formed as a result: the Trans-Himalaya, Tethyan Himalaya, Higher Himalaya, Lesser Himalaya and the Sub-Himalaya, bounded by the fault/thrust zones of the Indus-Tsangpo suture zone, South Tibetan Detachment, the Main Central Thrust, Main Boundary Thrust and the Himalayan Frontal Thrust. The base of the Tethys Trench that was compressed and folded

in the process of mountain building, consisted of weak sedimentary rocks that were pierced by the granite and basalt of the Earth's underlying mantle.



The Himalaya contain glaciers on all sides, some intersecting and joining with each other and others ebbing and flowing solitarily with the rapid changes in the mountain weather patterns. The Himalaya are the perfect breeding ground for new glaciers as it is the highest range in the world and can support consistent glacial formation along the majority of its approximate 1,500 mile length. At an average width of 100-150 miles wide the Himalaya provide an imposing geographical barrier between the northern Plateau of Tibet and India to the south.

The Himalayas' largest peaks include Mount Everest (at 29,035 feet tall), Kanchenjunga, Makalu, Dhaulagiri, Nanga Parbat, and Annapurna all of whose summits are above 25,000 feet. The Himalaya range is actually made up of three smaller mountain ranges running very close to each other- the Siwalik Hills, the Lesser Himalaya, and the Greater Himalaya. The ends of these ranges come together to form the Hindu Kush and Karakoram ranges running west and lead into the Indochinese Peninsula to the east. The Himalaya range creates many watersheds and feed into the Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra Rivers flowing through India and onwards to the ocean.

The Himalaya mountain range, along with being a prime destination for mountain climbers and outdoor aficionados from around the world, are a geographical and cartographical wonder that have fascinated scientists and researchers for generations. The sheer height, width, and depth of the

Himalaya serve as a template for the study of current (or present day) effects of the, wind, weather, climate, and affects that mankind may have on the geography of a mountain range.

The Himalaya range is an intense geographical feature full of nooks and crannies, hidden canyons and mysteries that cartographers have been pouring over for years. The socio-political effects of the Himalaya and its boundaries have shaped cultures and world politics, helped create countries and defeat armies.

DISCUSSION

The recent view, however, is that they are mostly Paleozoic or Precambrian in age and represent a geanticline between the unfossiliferous sediments of the Lesser Himalayas to the south and a highly fossiliferous sequence of the Tethys zone in the north. The stratigraphic order in the Tethys zone is well known because of well preserved fossils e.g. productus, ophiceras, etc., whereas in the Lesser Himalayas it is primarily based on structural-setting and lithological control.

There is evidence of continuous Precambrian continental basement extending north of India, through the Himalayas, into Tibet. It appears obvious that the sedimentation of the Himalayas took place in a sunken basement extending north of the Indian shield, which could have been in contact with the southern boundary of the Asian Plate, or the two might have been continuous. Buckling of this basement due to compression formed the barrier between the northern and southern basins, thus separating the two environments in the form of an upthrust wedge. The fact that the Central Crystallines are of Precambrian age supports this theory.

In the middle of the great curve of the Himalayan mountains lie the 8,000 m (26,000 ft) peaks of Dhaulagiri and Annapurna in Nepal, separated by the Kali Gandaki Gorge. The gorge splits the Himalayas into Western and Eastern sections both ecologically and orographically – the pass at the head of the Kali Gandaki, the Kora La is the lowest point on the ridgeline between Everest and K2.

To the east of Annapurna are the 8,000 m (5.0 mi) peaks of Manaslu and across the border in Tibet, Shishapangma. To the south of these lies Kathmandu, the capital of Nepal and the largest city in the Himalayas. East of the Kathmandu Valley lies valley of the Bhote/Sun Kosi river which rises in Tibet and provides the main overland route between Nepal and China – the Araniko Highway/China National Highway 318.

Further east is the Mahalangur Himal with four of the world's six highest mountains, including the highest: Cho Oyu, Everest, Lhotse and Makalu. The Khumbu region, popular for trekking, is found here on the south-western approaches to Everest. The Arun river drains the northern slopes of these mountains, before turning south and flowing through the range to the east of Makalu.

CONCLUSION

The Lesser Himalayas are composed of tectonically compressed blocks of Paleozoic and Mesozoic crystallines, metamorphics, and sedimentary rocks. The Main Central Thrust is a major tectonic

feature of the Himalayas and has brought the crystalline rocks of the Higher Himalayas over the younger sedimentaries. The true amplitude of these movements cannot be determined. Many researchers consider these over thrust over-lappings to be due to large scale movements.

The Higher Himalayas consist of a single range with an average height exceeding 6000 m. The width of this zone, mostly composed of granites and gneisses, is 24 km. The Central Crystallines occupy the core or the 'axis' of this range and were considered to be Tertiary intrusives accompanying the compressional movements responsible for the uplift of the Himalayas by some earlier workers.

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GLOBALIZATION & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: AN ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

Globalization has certainly opened a window for the economic development as a number of opportunities for further development are created due to the globalization. With the introduction of the globalization, now it has become much easier for a country to sell their products in other countries.

Due to this process of the globalization, the consumers get the opportunity to deal with a number of varieties of a particular product. The competition level among the industries has increased due to globalization as in some cases, consumers give preference to the products of other countries with similar features getting in the domestic product. Globalization also improves the economic status of a nation whose products are exported to other countries. The current paper highlights the impact of globalization on the economic development.

KEYWORDS: Development, Globalization, Economy

INTRODUCTION

Good financial status is needed for a country for economic development. Globalization plays an important role in economic status of a nation as a number of products have started to export in other countries. If the exported product is of good quality with reasonable price then the demand of that product tends to increase which certainly helps in the economic development.

Under the concept of globalization, the process of adopting of new technology is also performed where a country can demand for the latest technology from other countries in order to enhance the level of the productivity.

Globalization also helps in creating a number of job opportunities in various sectors as it demands for a number of workforces. Also, an increase in the economic development is observed as a result of the globalization.

Globalization has enhanced the scope of a product as a product can be made available to other countries. For example, China manufactures a lot of electrical products in the country and a number of products are exported to other countries like India. Also, it is observed that the Chinese products are cheaper and most of the people prefer purchasing these Chinese products. A number of effective strategies are implemented by the retail companies in order to promote their products in the international market.

Also, the branding of products is very essential for the promotion of the products. As a result of this globalization, now in India; there are many foreign brands like Peter England, Thomson, Adidas etc available here. Now, the impact of the globalization has increased so much that more foreign brands are looking to make an impact in the Indian domestic market.

This globalization also creates the challenge for the domestic market as it has to directly compete with the foreign market. Hence, level of quality tends to improve in most of the products. Also, while manufacturing a product, the feasibility is investigated and after all the testing process, the product is marketed.

These days, online platforms are used to promote the products. The companies provide a number of offers along with online purchasing of the products. Hence, a lot of strategies are implemented by the companies to attract more and more consumers.

With the advancement of the technology, the production level of the products can be effectively enhanced which consequently improves the economical status of the country. Hence, it can be said that the globalization has proved to be a useful medium for the economic development.

GLOBALIZATION & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Globalization is widely regarded as a means not only of ensuring efficiency and growth, but also of achieving equity and development for those countries operating in the global economy. The book argues that this perception of globalization as the road to development has lost its lustre. The experience of the 1990s belied expectation of the gains, such as faster growth and reduced poverty, which could be achieved through closer integration in the world economy.

The phenomenon of globalization began in a primitive form when humans first settled into different areas of the world; however, it has shown a rather steady and rapid progress in recent times and has become an international dynamic which, due to technological advancements, has increased in speed and scale, so that countries in all five continents have been affected and engaged.

The goal of globalization is to provide organizations a superior competitive position with lower operating costs, to gain greater numbers of products, services and consumers. This approach to competition is gained via diversification of resources, the creation and development of new investment opportunities by opening up additional markets, and accessing new raw materials and resources. Diversification of resources is a business strategy that increases the variety of business products and services within various organizations. Diversification strengthens institutions by lowering organizational risk factors, spreading interests in different areas, taking advantage of market opportunities, and acquiring companies both horizontal and vertical in nature.

Globalization compels businesses to adapt to different strategies based on new ideological trends that try to balance rights and interests of both the individual and the community as a whole. This change enables businesses to compete worldwide and also signifies a dramatic change for business leaders, labor and management by legitimately accepting the participation of workers and

government in developing and implementing company policies and strategies. Risk reduction via diversification can be accomplished through company involvement with international financial institutions and partnering with both local and multinational businesses.

Globalization brings reorganization at the international, national and sub-national levels. Specifically, it brings the reorganization of production, international trade and the integration of financial markets. This affects capitalist economic and social relations, via multilateralism and microeconomic phenomena, such as business competitiveness, at the global level. The transformation of production systems affects the class structure, the labor process, the application of technology and the structure and organization of capital. Globalization is now seen as marginalizing the less educated and low-skilled workers. Business expansion will no longer automatically imply increased employment. Additionally, it can cause high remuneration of capital, due to its higher mobility compared to labor.

In a global economy, power is the ability of a company to command both tangible and intangible assets that create customer loyalty, regardless of location. Independent of size or geographic location, a company can meet global standards and tap into global networks, thrive and act as a world class thinker, maker and trader, by using its greatest assets: its concepts, competence and connections.

The process that has come to be known as globalization .i.e., the progressively greater influence being exerted by worldwide economic, social and cultural processes over national or regional ones— is clearly leaving its mark on the world of today. This is not a new process. Its historical roots run deep. Yet the dramatic changes in terms of space and time being brought about by the communications and information revolution represent a qualitative break with the past.

DISCUSSION

The first is the bias in the current form of market globalization created by the fact that the mobility of capital and the mobility of goods and services exist alongside severe restrictions on the mobility of labor. This is reflected in the asymmetric, incomplete nature of the international agenda that accompanies the globalization process. This agenda does not, for example, include labor mobility.

Nor does it include mechanisms for ensuring the global coherence of the central economies' macroeconomic policies, international standards for the appropriate taxation of capital, or agreements regarding the mobilization of resources to relieve the distributional tensions generated by globalization between and within countries. These shortcomings are the reflection of an even more disturbing problem: the absence of a suitable form of governance in the contemporary world, not only in economic terms (as has become particularly evident in the financial sector) but in many other areas as well. This lack of governance can be attributed, in its turn, to the sharp divergence between global problems and political processes that continue to be pursued within national and, increasingly, local frameworks.

Some economists have a positive outlook regarding the net effects of globalization on economic growth. These effects have been analyzed over the years by several studies attempting to measure the impact of globalization on various nations' economies using variables such as trade, capital flows and their openness, GDP per capita, foreign direct investment (FDI) and more. These studies examined the effects of several components of globalization on growth using time series cross sectional data on trade, FDI and portfolio investment. Although they provide an analysis of individual components of globalization on economic growth, some of the results are inconclusive or even contradictory. However, overall, the findings of those studies seem to be supportive of the economists' positive position, instead of the one held by the public and non-economist view.

Trade among nations via the use of comparative advantage promotes growth, which is attributed to a strong correlation between the openness to trade flows and the affect on economic growth and economic performance. Additionally there is a strong positive relation between capital flows and their impact on economic growth.

Foreign Direct Investment's impact on economic growth has had a positive growth effect in wealthy countries and an increase in trade and FDI, resulting in higher growth rates. Empirical research examining the effects of several components of globalization on growth, using time series and cross sectional data on trade, FDI and portfolio investment, found that a country tends to have a lower degree of globalization if it generates higher revenues from trade taxes. Further evidence indicates that there is a positive growth-effect in countries that are sufficiently rich, as are most of the developed nations.

Non-economists and the wide public expect the costs associated with globalization to outweigh the benefits, especially in the short-run. Less wealthy countries from those among the industrialized nations may not have the same highly-accentuated beneficial effect from globalization as more wealthy countries, measured by GDP per capita etc. Although free trade increases opportunities for international trade, it also increases the risk of failure for smaller companies that cannot compete globally. Additionally, free trade may drive up production and labor costs, including higher wages for more skilled workforce, which again can lead to outsourcing of jobs from countries with higher wages.

CONCLUSION

One of the major potential benefits of globalization is to provide opportunities for reducing macroeconomic volatility on output and consumption via diversification of risk. The overall evidence of the globalization effect on macroeconomic volatility of output indicates that although direct effects are ambiguous in theoretical models, financial integration helps in a nation's production base diversification, and leads to an increase in specialization of production. However, the specialization of production, based on the concept of comparative advantage, can also lead to higher volatility in specific industries within an economy and society of a nation. As time passes, successful companies, independent of size, will be the ones that are part of the global economy.

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A STUDY ON THE GROWTH OF E-COMMERCE IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

E-commerce is an emerging industry in India. Its growth is increasing year by year as more and more consumers are connecting with e-commerce. In e-commerce, the products are ordered online through web-links and consumers have the option of paying of the order either online or at the time of the delivery of the order.

The trend of e-commerce is more in urban cities of India as the consumers of these areas are supposed to be more technology lover and they prefer using technology in every field. Hence, e-commerce companies need to pay more attention to attract the more consumers from the rural areas as well so that their growth can be more stable. The current paper highlights the growth of e-commerce in India.

KEYWORDS:E-commerce, Consumer, Online

INTRODUCTION

E-commerce is the future of Indian market where most of the retail companies would be engaging to provide online services to the consumers so that consumers can get new way of commerce which is supposed to be more secure and less time consuming.

The popularity of e-commerce is increasing at a rapid speed in India. Specially, the youth of age from 18-28 years are influenced by e-commerce and they like dealing most of their shopping activities through e-commerce.

The reason behind this increasing popularity of e-commerce among the consumers is that e-commerce consumes few minutes of the users to place the order as the consumer's just need to select the required items and place an order.

There are many e-commerce companies like Flipkart, Amazon and Snapdeal etc. These companies provide the facility of e-commerce to the consumers on large scale. The products sold through these e-commerce sites are approved and of good quality. But, in some cases, it is observed that some defected items are received by the consumers which raises some questions on this type of trade.

Although, these companies provide the facility of returning the damaged items; but still a lot of things needed to be done by these companies in order to gain more trust of the consumers.

Trust and brand image are the big factors for a business to success. Initially, when these e-commerce companies were launched in India, then people have no trust on them and very few people like to buy things through e-commerce.

But, then, as the consumers started doing e-commerce and they start getting quality products with proper delivery, they start trusting on these companies. Now, this trust has become so huge that a

number of consumers prefer e-commerce. This is very positive response from the consumers and hence, e-commerce industry is growing with some satisfactory results.

In India, two major e-commerce competitors are Flipkart and Amazon. Both of these companies offer a lot of discounts to the consumers to compete each other. During the festive seasons like Diwali, Holi and Christmas; these companies organize online sales of the retail products where heavy discounts ranging from 20% to 70% are offered to the consumers.

A number of strategies are made by these e-commerce companies in order to attract more consumers. In some cases, these companies provide exchange offer on the sale of brand new smart phone where a consumer just needs to give the currently using smart phone to get a new smart phone with revised cost lower than the original. These kinds of strategies are adopted by e-commerce companies to gain more consumers so that their growth level can be maintained.

GROWTH OF E-COMMERCE IN INDIA

For the current research work, the responses of 600 consumers were taken and analyzed further. The area of research work was Delhi-NCR where four major cities like Noida, Gurgaon, Faridabad and Ghaziabad were included. 150 respondents from each of these cities with 75 males and 75 females were included for the current research work.

Table 1: Mean Scores, S.D and t- ratio of Feedback on whether online shopping provides better services

Level of Participation	Performance	Feedback	Mean	S.D.	M.D.	S.E.	t-ratio
Noida	N=75 (Males)	40	24.61	2.01	2.51	0.681	3.68*
	N=75 (Females)	20	22.00	2.16			
Gurgaon	N=75 (Males)	70	25.57	2.27	2.21	0.722	3.06*
	N=75 (Females)	10	23.26	2.16			
Faridabad	N=75 (Males)	50	27.26	2.59	2.33	0.808	2.86*
	N=75 (Females)	10	24.83	2.38			
Ghaziabad	N=75 (Males)	15	27.86	2.83	2.42	0.942	2.16*
	N=75 (Females)	35	25.00	2.54			

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

In the case of Noida, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 24.61, S.D. 2.01, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 22.00, S.D. 2.16, the 't' ratio 3.68 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In the case of Gurgaon, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 25.57, S.D. 2.27, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 23.26, S.D. 2.16, the 't' ratio 3.06 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Faridabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 27.26, S.D. 2.59, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 24.83, S.D. 2.38, the 't' ratio 2.86 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Ghaziabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 27.86, S.D. 2.83, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides better services is 25.00, S.D. 2.54, the 't' ratio 2.16 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

Table 2: Mean Scores, S.D and t- ratio of Feedback on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior

Level of Participation	Performance	Feedback	Mean	S.D.	M.D.	S.E.	t-ratio
Noida	N=75 (Males)	10	36.03	3.00	3.01	1.080	2.85*
	N=75 (Females)	45	39.14	3.66			
Gurgaon	N=75 (Males)	37	31.46	2.67	2.95	0.888	3.30*
	N=75 (Females)	45	34.51	2.81			
Faridabad	N=75 (Males)	45	23.35	1.86	0.84	0.636	1.35*
	N=75 (Females)	50	24.29	2.02			
Ghaziabad	N=75 (Males)	40	15.08	0.57	0.43	0.441	0.84*
	N=75 (Females)	30	12.02	1.47			

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

In the case of Noida, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 36.03, S.D. 3.00, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 39.14, S.D. 3.66, the 't' ratio 2.85 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In the case of Gurgaon, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 31.46, S.D. 2.67, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 34.51, S.D. 2.81, the 't' ratio 3.30 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Faridabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 23.35, S.D. 1.86 the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 24.29, S.D. 2.02, the 't' ratio 1.35 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Ghaziabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 15.08, S.D. 0.57, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping has the power to influence consumer behavior is 12.02, S.D. 1.47, the 't' ratio 0.84 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

Table 3: Mean Scores, S.D and t- ratio of Feedback on whether online shopping provides products of better quality

Level of Participation	Performance	Feedback	Mean	S.D.	M.D.	S.E.	t-ratio
Noida	N=75 (Boys)	32	32.03	1.96	2.42	0.506	3.35*
	N=75 (Girls)	30	30.14	1.92			
Gurgaon	N=75 (Boys)	40	33.06	2.63	2.31	0.684	2.70*
	N=75 (Girls)	10	30.51	2.08			
Faridabad	N=75 (Boys)	40	34.35	2.82	2.27	0.832	2.35*
	N=75 (Girls)	15	31.29	2.18			
Ghaziabad	N=75 (Boys)	30	35.08	3.00	2.05	0.937	1.84*
	N=75 (Girls)	35	32.00	2.43			

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

In the case of Noida, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 32.03, S.D. 1.96, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 30.14, S.D. 1.92, the 't' ratio 3.35 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In the case of Gurgaon, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 33.06, S.D. 2.63, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 30.51, S.D. 2.08, the 't' ratio 2.70 was found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Faridabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 34.35, S.D. 2.82 the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 31.29, S.D. 2.18, the 't' ratio 2.35 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

In Ghaziabad, the mean scores of feedback of male respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 35.08, S.D. 3.00, the mean scores of feedback of female respondents on whether online shopping provides products of better quality is 32.00, S.D. 2.43, the 't' ratio 1.84 was again found significant at 0.05 level of confidence.

CONCLUSION

Internet connectivity has become basic obligation in not only urban cities but also in rural ones. The rapid growth of ecommerce is challenged by legal hassles, logistics and many factors which need to address early. Ecommerce growth is inevitable as Indian ecommerce industry is having access to funds both local and international investments. The ecommerce industry will be faced with challenges as it matures but there is potential for growth owing to rising internet users and advancement in technology. Companies will need to work harder to provide better service to customer as more companies will be foraying in commerce business in future.

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BENEFITS OF SURYA NAMASKAR

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Abstract

Surya Namaskar or Sun Salutation, is a Yoga practice incorporating a sequence of gracefully linked asanas. Nomenclature refers to the symbolism of Sun as the soul and the source of all life. Sun Salutation or Surya Namaskara literally means salute to the sun. It finds its roots in worship of Surya, the sun god. Surya Namaskar is a series of twelve physical postures. These alternating backward and forward bending postures flex and stretch the spinal column through their maximum range giving profound stretch to the whole body. Surya Namaskar has a deep effect in detoxifying the organs through copious oxygenation and has a deeper relaxing effect.

Keywords: Sun Salutation, posture, detoxifying

Introduction

Surya Namaskar is consisted of two words: Surya and Namaskar. Surya means Sun and Namaskar means salutation or worship. Thus it is the salutation to the Sun god. Sun salutation is one of the finest yoga modules for the overall development of the body, mind and soul. Practicing this dynamic yoga exercise, which comprises 12 yoga postures, helps in physical, mental, spiritual and social domains of health for the concerned practitioner. This wonderful practice revitalizes the whole body and an excellent source to extract the maximum benefits from subsequent asanas, pranayama and meditation. It fresh and refresh all the body organs and body systems through stretching, toning compressing, harmonizing and synchronizing of body-mind complex. It can be practiced any time of the day. It helps to restore vitality, excellent antidote for stress & depression thus greatly help to overcome emotional disturbances.

Sun salutation is the single yoga exercise that impacts all the organ systems of the body. The main benefited systems of the body from this wonderful module are digestive system, excretory system, circulatory system, respiratory system, endocrine system, nervous system and skeleton system. Regular practice of Surya Namaskar enhances the size of the solar plexus. This, in turn, increases our creativity, intuitive abilities, decision-making, confidence and leadership skills.

It can do at any time of the day. However, it is best to do it at sunrise. This is when the sun rays help revitalize the body and refresh the mind. There are benefits of doing Surya Namaskar at other times of the day too.

Benefits of Surya Namaskar

The benefits of Surya Namaskar are manifold. It helps in better functioning of the body and mental faculties. Here are a few benefits which is given below:

- The postures are a right blend of warm-ups and asanas
- It helps to keep you disease-free and healthy
- Regular practice promotes balance in the body
- Improves blood circulation
- Strengthens the heart
- Tones the digestive tract
- Stimulates abdominal muscles, respiratory system, lymphatic system, spinal nerves and other internal organs
- Tones the spine, neck, shoulder, arms, hands, wrist, back and leg muscles, thereby promoting overall flexibility
- Psychologically, it regulates the interconnectedness of body, breath, and mind, thus making you calmer and boosting the energy levels with sharpened awareness

Surya Namaskar is also immensely beneficial for losing weight, skincare and hair care.

Benefits of Surya Namaskar for weight loss

- It is an intensive physical exercise that works on every part of the body
- You can increase the number of rounds slowly and watch the pounds start to disappear. The bends and stretches help you lose flab evenly

Benefits of Surya Namaskar for hair

- Surya Namaskar improves blood circulation to the scalp, thereby preventing hair loss
- The increased blood circulation nourishes the head and enables a healthy hair growth
- Different poses help prevent graying of hair

Benefits of Surya Namaskar for glowing skin

- Surya Namaskar improves blood circulation to all parts of the body, thus keeping the skin young
- It increases energy and vitality, thereby making your face glow with radiance. This helps the skin retain its firmness
- Surya Namaskar prevents the onset of wrinkles by relieving the body and mind of stress

How can children benefit of Surya Namaskar?

Children are exposed to stress and anxiety at an early age. Surya Namaskar helps children calm their mind, improve concentration, and build endurance. It reduces the feeling of anxiety and restlessness, especially during exams. Regular practice of Surya Namaskar also gives strength and vitality to the body. It also aids in muscle growth and making the body more flexible.

Why should women do Surya Namaskar?

Surya Namaskar is a boon for any health-conscious person. Some of the Sun Salutation poses help lose extra fat around the belly and let you stay in shape, naturally. These poses stimulate sluggish glands like the thyroid gland and induce it to increase hormonal secretions. A regular practice of Surya Namaskar helps women regulate irregular menstrual cycles and assist in childbirth. Further, it helps the face glow and also prevents wrinkles.

Surya Namaskar enhances intuition

A regular practice of Surya Namaskar and meditation helps the almond-sized solar plexus grow and become as big as one's palm. This expansion of the solar plexus helps develop your intuitive ability and bring more focus. On the other hand, contraction of the solar plexus can lead to depression and other negative tendencies.

Physical Benefits of Sun Salutation

Sun Salutation comprises a sequence of 12 yoga postures, best done at sunrise. If done fast, it provides a good cardiovascular workout. If done at a slower pace, these postures help tone the muscles and can relax the system and meditative. Regular practice of Sun Salutation improves the functions of the heart, liver, intestine, stomach, chest, throat, and legs – basically, the whole body. The process purifies the blood and improves blood circulation throughout the system and ensures proper functioning of the stomach, bowel, and nerve centers. Practicing Sun Salutation daily helps balance the three constitutions – Vata, Pitha and Kapha – that the body is made up of, according to Ayurvedic science. Sun Salutation is also known to enhance the physical strength of a person.

Variations of Surya Namaskar

There are many variations of Sun Salutations. The sequence presented below is often referred to as "Sun Salutation A" (*Surya Namaskara A*). It includes the basic components of a Sun Salutation as understood in most styles of yoga. Always breathe through your nose only, as this warms the air and provides a meditative aspect to your practice.

1. Standing Mountain Pose — *Tadasana*

Stand with your feet hip-width apart. Press your palms together in prayer position. Rest your thumbs on your sternum and take several breaths.

2. Upward Salute — *Urdhva Hastasana*

Inhale as you sweep your arms out to the side and overhead. Gently arch your back and gaze toward the sky.

3. Standing Forward Fold — *Uttanasana*

Exhale as you fold forward from the hips. Bend your knees if necessary. Rest your hands beside your feet and bring your nose to your knees.

4. Half Standing Forward Fold — *Ardha Uttanasana*

Inhale as you lift your torso halfway, lengthening your spine forward so your back is flat. Your torso should be parallel to the floor. Keep your fingertips on the floor, or bring them to your shins.

5. Four-Limbed Staff Pose — *Chaturanga Dandasana*

Exhale as you step or jump back into Plank Pose (High Push-Up Pose), with your hands under your shoulders and feet hip-distance apart. Continue exhaling as you lower your body toward the floor. Keep your elbows tucked in toward your sides. If needed, come to your knees for Half *Chaturanga*. Otherwise, keep your legs straight and reach back through your heels.

6. Upward-Facing Dog Pose — *Urdhva Mukha Svanasana*

Inhale as you draw your chest forward and straighten your arms. Draw your shoulders back and lift your heart to the sky. Press through the tops of your feet, lifting your thighs off the floor and fully engaging your leg muscles. Keep your elbows tucked in toward your sides.

7. Downward-Facing Dog Pose — *Adho Mukha Svanasana*

Exhale as you lift your hips and roll over your toes, placing the soles of your feet on the floor. Your heels do not need to touch the ground. Ground down through your hands and the soles of your feet as you lengthen your spine. Lift your belly and sit bones toward the sky. Stay here for five breaths. On your last exhalation, bend your knees and look between your hands.

8. Half Standing Forward Fold — *Ardha Uttanasana*

Inhale as you step or jump both feet between your hands. Lift your torso halfway, lengthening your spine forward so your back is flat. Your torso should be parallel to the floor. Keep your fingertips on the floor, or bring them to your shins.

9. Standing Forward Fold — *Uttanasana*

Exhale as you fold your torso over your thighs. Bend your knees if necessary. Rest your hands beside your feet and bring your nose to your knees.

10. Upward Salute — *Urdhva Hastasana*

Inhale as you sweep your arms out to the side and extend up once again. Gently arch your back and gaze toward the sky.

11. Mountain Pose — *Tadasana*

Exhale as you come back into Mountain Pose. Bring your hands into prayer position. Rest your thumbs on your sternum. Repeat the sequence two or more times.



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सूफी मत में जात सिफ़त की अवधारण तथा साधना पद्धति

प्रतिभा सिंह, शोध छात्रा

दर्शनशास्त्र विभाग, इलाहाबाद विश्वविद्यालय

वेदान्त सिद्धान्तों के अनुरूप सूफी मत के सिद्धान्तों को ब्रह्म की अनुभूति साधकों के हृदय में अन्तः पक्ष से मानी गयी। कर्मकाण्ड और आचार्य की विशिष्टता का उतना अधिक महत्व नहीं है जितना हृदय की अनुभूतियों से आत्म-समर्पण का है किन्तु यह कहना कि सूफी मत साधना पक्ष का अभाव है सत्य से दूर होगा में वह साधना पक्ष क्या है? ब्रह्म की अनुभूति के लिए किन अवस्थाओं से होकर जाना पड़ता है इस पर हम प्रकाश डालने की चेष्टा करेंगे पहले हम सूफी मत के अनुसार ब्रह्म (जाते-वहत) भावना पर विचार करते हैं।

सूफी मत का ब्रह्म से भिन्न नहीं है जिस प्रकार वेदान्त का ब्रह्म एक है उसके अतिरिक्त कोई दूसरी सत्ता नहीं है। “एको ब्रह्म द्वितीयो नास्ति”।

उसी प्रकार सूफी मत में भी ब्रह्म एक है—वह हस्तिय-मुतलक है। वह किसी रूपी आकार से रहित है वह सर्वव्यापी है किन्तु किसी वस्तु विशेष में केन्द्रीय भूत नहीं है। वह अगोचर है और अज्ञेय है। वह असीम है उसमें कोई परिवर्तन व विनाश नहीं है। उसके अतिरिक्त अन्य कोई भी सत्य नहीं है। अतः वह एकान्त रूप से एक ही है और अन्य कोई सत्ता उसके समकक्ष नहीं है। ऐसी परिस्थिति में ब्रह्म का जो ज्ञान होता है वह किसी भौतिक साधन से न होकर आत्मानुभूति से ही होता है। हम ब्रह्म के अनन्त गुणों को जानकार ही उसके सम्बन्ध में अपनी कल्पना कर सकते हैं। उसके विभव में ही हम उसके लोकोत्तर रूप का अनुमान कर सकते हैं। इस रूप की भावना जो केवल एक रूप में समझी गयी है।

सूफी मत में ‘जात’ संज्ञा अविदित है इस ‘जात’ का परिचय उसकी ‘सिफ़त’ में है यह सिफ़त जात की वह शक्ति है जिससे वह सृष्टि की रचना करता है। सृष्टि के अनन्त रूप वाली समस्त सामाग्री है। ‘सिफ़त’ उसके द्वारा हम ‘जात’ की सत्ता का परिचय प्राप्त कर सकते हैं इसे हम वेदान्त में माया, मात्रमतु, कात्स्यैनाभिव्यक्तस्वस्यात के रूप में मान सकते हैं तुलसी के शब्दों में मन् माया वशवर्ती विश्वालिखलंम् की मापन भी यही हैं इतना होते हुए भी भावना सिफ़त जात से किसी प्रकार भिन्न नहीं है। किन्तु सिफ़त ही जात नहीं है। सिफ़त के अनेक रूप भिन्न होते हुए भी एक है। हम से सिफ़त को जात से उद्भूत गुण मान सकते हैं। जिस प्रकार किसी सुगन्धित पुष्प की सुगन्ध पुष्प से उद्भूत होते हुए भी पुष्प नहीं है यद्यपि हम सुगन्धित और पुष्प को किसी प्रकार विभाजित नहीं कर सकते फूल की भावना में ही सुगन्ध ही है और सुगन्ध की भावना में ही पुष्प का परिचय है। किन्तु यह सब विज्ञान किसी प्रकार भी जात को सीमाबद्ध नहीं कर सकता कबीर ने इसी भावना में सगुण वाद का विरोध करते हुए लिखा था—

‘जाके मुख माया नहीं नाहीं रूप कुरूप।

पुहुप बाँस पातरा, ऐसा तत्व अनूप’ सारवी’

इस प्रकार हम इस निष्कर्ष पर पहुँचते हैं कि ब्रह्म जा जात का अस्तित्व हमें केवल सिफ़ल या सृष्टि करने वाली शक्ति से ही ज्ञात होता है यदि उसकी सिफ़त हमारे समक्ष न हो तो हम उसकी वास्तविक अनुभूति से वंचित रहेंगे।

इस रहस्य में ही उपासना मार्ग दिया है। खुदा या ब्रह्म की इबादत का तात्पर्य ही एक निश्चित साधना में है। अतः सूफ़ी मत में सिद्धि के अन्तर्गत ही साधना का मार्ग व्यंजित यह साधना दो रूप ग्रहण करती है :-

- (1) साधारण
- (2) विशिष्ट

साधारण मार्ग में तो कुछ ही सिद्धान्त है जो विधि निषेध के अन्तर्गत है—करणीय और अकरणीय की आज्ञाओं में इस मार्ग की रूपरेखा है। अवागमि (विधि) और नवाही (निषेध) का ही विधान इस साधारण साधना पक्ष में है। यह मनुष्य मात्र के साधारण धार्मिक जीवन के लिए आवश्यक है। कोई भी मनुष्य अपने अस्तित्व को तभी सफल मान सकता है जब वह इस विधि और निषेध मय आदेशों के अनुसार अपने जीवन को सुचारु रूप से संचालित कर सके इस प्रकार के जीवन में संयम (रियाजत) की बड़ी आवश्यकता मानी गयी है। साथ ही आध्यात्मिकता के लिए जीवन को अधिक से अधिक अलौकिक सत्त के समीप लाने की आवश्यकता है। इसके लिए ही नमाज की आयोजना दिन के पाँच भागों में है अपने को ईश्वर के सम्पर्क में लाने के लिए नमाज का विधान रखा गया है। यह आचरण उन लोगों के लिए अत्यन्त आवश्यक है जो संसार में जीवन व्यतीत करते हुए ईश्वरीय सत्ता की ओर आकर्षित ह। अर्थात् इस प्रकार के व्यक्तियों के जीवन में सांसारिक और आध्यात्मिक दोनों प्रकार के पक्ष हैं। किन्तु मनुष्यों में एक वर्ग ऐसा भी है जो केवल आध्यात्मिक पक्ष में ही संतोष मानता है उसके लिए लौकिक पक्ष को कोई मूल्य नहीं है। उसे संसार में कोई वस्तु ऐसी नहीं दिख पड़ती तो उसे स्थायी सुख और शक्ति दे सके।

हम सिफत को जाति का एक प्रकट रूप या उसकी अभिव्यक्ति मानते हैं। कुरान सरीफ के शब्दों में आत्मा या रूह अमरे रब या ब्रह्म अनुज्ञा है हदीस में लिखा हुआ है कि जाते बहत (निर्गुण ब्रह्म ने) आत्मा को अपने रूप के अनुसार हो उत्पन्न किया है। किन्तु इसलिए कि ब्रह्म का कोई रूप नहीं है। आत्मा का भी कोई रूप नहीं हो सकता जिस प्रकार हम ब्रह्म की सत्यता का परिचय परोक्ष रूप में ही प्राप्त कर सकते हैं उसके किसी विशिष्ट आकार से परिचित नहीं हो सकते उसी प्रकार हम आत्मा के भी किसी रूप को नहीं जान सकते क्योंकि उसका कोई रूप या आकार नहीं है। यह आत्मा एक है जिस प्रकार सूर्य की किरणों में किसी प्रकार की भिन्नता नहीं है। उसी प्रकार ब्रह्म से उत्पन्न जीवात्माओं में भी किसी प्रकार भिन्नता नहीं हो सकती प्रत्येक किरण में जैसे सूर्य का रूप दिखाई पड़ता है। ठोक उसी प्रकार प्रत्येक आत्म में ब्रह्म का रूप दिखलाई पड़ता है। संक्षेप में हम कह सकते हैं कि आत्म वह दर्पण है जिसमें ब्रह्म प्रतिबिम्बित होता है। प्रश्न उठता है सृष्टि का रहस्य क्या है?

कुरान सरीफ के अनुसार—माखलक तल इन्सवा जिन्द इल्ललाले आबदून। (मैंने ही पै किय मनुष्य और देवताओं को शिवा इबादत के लिए ही सृष्टि निर्माण का रहस्य है अर्थात् खुदा ने अपनी शक्ति से जिस सृष्टि का विधान किया है उसके लिए स्वानुभूति के अतिरिक्त कौन मार्ग हो सकता है जो सृष्टि ब्रह्म मय है उसका स्वधर्म ही ब्रह्म उपासना होना चाहिए यही सिद्धान्त कुरान शरोफ का है यदि ध्यान से देखा जाय तो सृष्टि निर्माण वे इस संसार को क्षण भंगुर मानते हैं। इसके सुखों के मृगतृष्णा और इसकी आशाओं को इन्द्रधनुष की भांति आधारहीन समझते हैं। उनके लिए संसार का अस्तित्व वास्तविक नहीं है।

अतः लौकिक पक्ष उनके सामने कोई महत्व नहीं रखता वे एक मात्र लौकिक या आध्यात्मिक पक्ष को ही सार्थकता मानते हैं और इसी में उन्हें परम सुख और आनन्द की चरम प्राप्ति होती है। यह लौकिक या आध्यात्मिक पक्ष ईश्वर के जय या स्मरण में ही माना जाता है। यह स्मरण दो प्रकार से मान्य है प्रथम ईश्वर के नाम व गुणों का जाप इस प्रकार हो कि उससे समस्त जीवन ओत—प्रोत हो जाये शरीर के प्रत्येक भाग में उसी अलौकिक सत्य का संचार हो (भोग में इसी स्थिति को अजपा जाप कहते हैं) द्वितीय साधक ईश्वरीय तत्व का चिन्तन दार्शनिक रूप से करे वह आत्मा और परात्मा के पारस्परिक सम्बन्ध पर विचार करें और दोनों के स्वरूप निर्धारण में लीन हो इन दो विभागों पर विस्तार से विचार करने पर इसके अन्तर्गत जप के अनेकों

रूप मिलते हैं। मनुष्य की जितनी सांसें हैं। उतने ही अधिक साधना के मार्ग हैं। किन्तु हम संक्षेप में कुछ ही मार्गों को विचार में रखते हैं उनका पद्धतियों का अनुकरण करेंगे।

तवज्जह (ध्यान)—इस साधना में मुसिद (गुरु) मुरीद (शिष्य) को अपने सामने घुटने मोड़ कर बैठावे और स्वयं भी उसके सामने उसी प्रकार बैठे फिर हृदय को समस्त भावनाओं से रहित एवं एकाग्र करके अल्लाह का नाम एक सौ एक सांस में अनुमान से शिष्य के हृदय पर अनुलेखित करें और यह विचार करें कि अल्लाह के नाम का प्रभाव मेरी ओर से शिष्य की ओर प्रेरित हो रहा है। इस प्रकार एक या अनेक प्रयोगों में शिष्य के हृदय में आलोक छा जायेगा और उसके हृदय में जागृति इस प्रकार हो जायेगी कि वह उपासना का पूर्ण अधिकारी बन सकेगा सूफी मत के सिद्धान्त चार वर्ग के हैं— (1) चिशतियाँ (2) कादरिया (3) सुहरवर्दिया (4) नक्शबन्दियाँ

जिक्र जेहर— इस साधना का सम्बन्ध चिशतियाँ वंश से है और यह साधना अधिकतर गोपनीय रखी जाती है इस तहज्जुद के बाद ही व्यक्त कर सकते हैं।

जिक्रे पासे अन्फास— इस साधना के अनेक रूप हैं जिनमें केवल दो दृष्टव्य हैं— (1) नफी या इस बात का पासे अन्फास अर्थात् जब भीतर को साँस जाये ला इल्लिल्लाह कहे और जब बाहर का साँस आये तो इल्लिल्लाह कहे सिर्फ साँस से ही यह उच्चारण हो।

हब्जे दम— यह साधना समान रूप से सभी सूफियों में माना है। विशेष कर चिशती और कादरी इस साधना के विशेष पक्ष में है। नक्शबन्दी इसे परम आवश्यक तो नहीं मानते तथापि वे इसकी उपयोगिता में विश्वास रखते हैं यह साँस का अभ्यास है। (हठ योग के प्रणायाम का रूप भी इसी प्रकार है) मानसिक उन्नति के साथ शारीरिक उन्नति का यह मूल मंत्र है इसके अभ्यास का ढंग यह है कि नाक और मुँह बन्दकर साँस के रोकने की शक्ति बढ़ाई जावे।

शगले नसीर— यह ख्वाजा मुइनुद्दीन चिशती का विशेष साधन है इससे मानसिक व्याधियाँ दूर होती हैं इसका प्रचार यह है कि सायं, प्रातः अपने जानुओं पर बैठकर मन को एकाग्र कर दोनों आँखों की सृष्टि नासिका के अग्र भाग पर जमावे और निर्मिशेष होकर देखे। इस दृष्टि में अपरिमित ज्योति का अनुमान को प्रारम्भ में नेत्र में पीड़ा हो सकती है।

शगले महमूदा— इस साधना में दृष्टि को भौहों के बीच में जमाना चाहिए यद्यपि यह साधना पहले कठिन जान सकती है। किन्तु इससे हृदय चैतन्य हो जाता है। पतंजलि के योग सूत्र में त्रिकुटी का विधान इसी प्रकार का है।

सुल्तानुल अजकार— इसके अनेक रूप हैं किन्तु सबसे सरल रूप यह है कि आँख नाक, कान मुख को हाथ की उंगलियों से बन्द करके साँस को नाभि से खींचें और मस्तक तक ले जावे वहाँ उसे रोककर शक्ति के अनुसार कुम्भक करें जब साँस को नाभि से ऊपर ले जाने लगे तो वह अल्लाह का उच्चारण करे जब साँस को मस्तिष्क में स्थपित करें तो हूँ कहे 'हूँ' कहते समय आँख को हृदय की ओर स्थिर करे जब कुम्भक में साँस की शक्ति घटने लगे तो उसे नाक के मार्ग से निकाल दे और इसी का पुनः अभ्यास करें।

शगले शौते सरमदी— इस साधना में आँख, नाक, कान और मुख को बन्द करके स्थान से नीचे स्थान को गिरने वाली जलधारा के शब्द का अनुमान करें इस अनुमान के साथ इसमें 'जात' (ईश्वर के नाम पर ध्यान रखे क्रमशः यह अनुमान सत्य में परिणित हो जायेगा और वह आध्यात्मिक नाम सुन पड़ेगा जो प्रत्येक साधक का आदर्श है (योग शास्त्र में इसके सम्मान ही अनहद नाद की व्यवस्था है)।

मुरातबा—

यह एक विशेष साधना है जो अनुमान की शक्ति बढ़ाने और किसी वस्तु विशेष के रूप में हृदयगम करने के लिए की जाती है हर मुरातबे में जानुहुओं पर बैठना गर्दन झुकाना आँखे बन्द कर ध्यान करना आवश्यक है अनेके मुरातबों में से एक मुरातबे का वर्णन किया जाता है उससे अन्य मुरातबों का अनुमान किया जा सकता है।

मुरातबा इस्में जात इसका यहढंग है वजू करके पश्चिम की ओर बैठ जाये और विस्मल्लाह पढ़ कर गर्दन झुकाकर इसमें जात का ध्यान करें इसमें अल्लाह पर एकाग्रचित हो इससे इन्द्रिय की चंचलता नष्ट होगी यदि सांसारिक सम्बन्ध की ओर चित दौड़े तो अपने गुरु की ओर ध्यान एकाग्र करें प्रारम्भ में इस अभ्यास के करने में कठिनाई होगी किन्तु वह अभ्यास से धीरे-धीरे दूर हो जायेगी और मन शान्त हो जायेगा।

यह कहा जा सकता है कि सूफ़ी मत के चार वर्गों के अनुसार साधना के अनेक रूप माने गये हैं किन्तु हमने यह मुख्य साधनाओं का उल्लेख किया जो सभी वर्गों में मान्य है। इन साधनाओं पर दृष्टि डालकर सरलता से निष्कर्ष निकाला जा सकता है कि सूफ़ी मत का साधना भाग हिन्दू धर्म के साधना भाग में कितने अनुरूप हैं। यह तो दोनों धर्मों का दृष्टिकोण है कि बिना तपस्या और साधना के सांसारिक आकर्षण और मोह नष्ट नहीं हो सकते और आत्मा के अनन्त ज्योति की किरण दृष्टिगत नहीं होती जिसके प्रकाश में साधक अपना साम्य परमात्मा से कर सकता है आत्मा की शक्ति को विकसित कर इसे ईश्वरीय ज्योति से विभूषित करना है इन साधनाओं का उद्देश्य प्रेम प्रतीक के सहारे चलने वाले सूफ़ियों की साधना के सम्बन्ध में ध्यान देने वाली बात यह है उनमें से कुछ तो इस्लाम के विधि विधानों को मानते हुए प्रेम के मैदान में उतरते हैं। तो कुछ सीधे प्रेम के अखाड़े में आ धमकते हैं और इस्लाम की साधना को अनिवार्य नहीं समझते जो इस्लाम को लिए-दिए आगे बढ़ते हैं उनकी इस्लाम में पूरी प्रतिष्ठा होती है और वे देखे भी पूज्य दृष्टि से जाते हैं पर जो इस्लाम की उपेक्षा कर अपना आसन जमाते हैं उन्हें इस्लाम में जगह नहीं मिलती फलतः उन्हें बेशरा, जिन्दीक या अजाद कटु नाम से याद किया जाता है। आज्ञाद सूफ़ियों को साधना के विषय में कुछ विशेष रूप से कहने की आवश्यकता नहीं दिखाई देती अन्य सूफ़ियों के साथ उनका भी उल्लेख होता रहेगा बाशरा सूफ़ियों के बारे में भी कभी यह न सोचना चाहिए सचमुच उनकी निष्ठा इस्लाम ही है नहीं कदापि नहीं उनका पक्ष केवल इतना ही है कि सभी विधि विधानों में दैवीय और अन्तिम होने के कारण इस्लाम की श्रेष्ठ है। इस्लाम के अनुष्ठान से सिद्धि की प्राप्ति शीघ्र ही हो जाती है। बस इसके आगे इस्लाम के लिए कोई आग्रह नहीं।

सूफ़ी वस्तुतः मधुकरी वृत्ति के जीव होते हैं। उनकी आँखें सदा खुली रहती हैं जहाँ कही जाते हैं। अपने काम की बातें लेते हैं। रस लेते और सींठी को छोड़ देते हैं और इसलिए उनकी साधना में भी नाना प्रकार के रंगों की समायी हो जाती है और यह भी उन्हीं की भांति बहुरंगी हो जाती है पर यह उन रंगों की सुनवाई न होगी। भारत ने कब और किस प्रकार तस्वुफ को अनुप्रमाणित किया यह इतिहास का विषय है और काल की कड़ोरता और अपनी अवहेलना के कारण खोज का विषय बन गया है अतएव इस यही छोड़ इतना और जान लीजिए कि हमारी योग साधना से सूफ़ी बराबर प्रभावित होते रहे हैं और मलिक मुहम्मद जायसी आदि सूफ़ी कवियों ने तो हठ योग की चर्चा भी खूब की है उनका कहना है कि—

नवो खण्ड नव पवरी, औतह वज्र केवार

चारि बसेरे सौ चढ़े, सत सौह उतरहिं पार पद्मावत

जायसी का प्रकृत कथन उनकी साधना का परिचायक है पर यह निश्चित रूप से नहीं कहा जा सकता है कि उनकी यह साधना इस्लामी है या हठयोगी उन्होंने अन्यत्र अखरावट पृ० 356 पर इसी को इस रूप में व्यक्त किया है।

“वॉक चढ़ाव सात खण्ड ऊँचा, चारि बसेरे जादू पहुँचा।”

खण्डों की बात अलग रखिये चार बसरो से जायसी का तात्पर्य क्या है? हम आप तो अपनी रूचि के अनुसार इसका अर्थ अलग-अलग लगा लेंगे यदि ध्यान, धारण, प्रत्याहार और समाधि का नाम लेंगे तो हम मैत्री करुणा, मुदिता और उपेक्षा का यदि माप यम, नियम, आसन और प्रणायम का उल्लेख करेंगे तो हम जागृत, स्वप्न, सुसुप्ति और तुरीय का अर्थात् सब लोग अपनी-अपनी साधना के अनुसार अर्थ करेंगे पर क्या हम जानते हैं कि स्वयं जायसी यह इस्लामी सूफी इसका अर्थ क्या करेगा—

ना नमाज है दीनक धूनि, पढ़ई नमाज सोइ बढुगुनी
कही तरीकत चिश्ती पीरु उघटित असरफ और जहगीरु
राह हकीकत परई न भूमि, पैचि मारफत मार पुड़की
ढुढ़ि समाई लै मानिक मोती, जाई समाई ज्योति मह ज्योति

अस्तु परम ज्योति में समा जाने के लिए ज्योति को 'नमाज', 'तरीकत', 'हकीकत', मारफत का अनुष्ठान करना चाहिए नमाज के प्रसंग में ध्यान देने की बात यह है कि मलिक मुहम्मद जायसी ने इस्लाम के पंच स्तम्भों में से केवल शरीयत यानि नमाज को लिया है शेष चार को छोड़ क्यों दिया? क्या सूफी साधना में सौम, जकात, हज और तौहीद का कोई स्थान नहीं?

नहीं ऐसी बात नहीं है तौहीद का संकेत तो 'जाई समाई ज्योति में ज्योति' में कर दिया हो रही सौम जकात और हज की बात तो उसके विषय में वही आगे चलकर स्पष्ट कर दिया कि –

साँची राह शरीयत जेहिं विश्वास न होई
पाँव राखि तेहि सीढ़ी निभराम पहुँचे सोई

अतः मानना पड़ता है कि सूफी साधना के चार बसरे, शरीअत, गरीअत, तरीकत हकीकत और मारफत है। शरीअत के भीतर रोज़ा नमाज ज़कात और हज़ भी आ जाते हैं रोज़ा और नमाज़ का अरबी नाम सौम और सलात है। इन साधना चतुष्टयों में तौहीद की गणना नहीं की जा सकती। तौहीद साधन नहीं प्रस्तुत साध्य है इला तौहीद की प्राप्ति के लिए अन्य साधनायें की जाती हैं।

उस अनल हक का मान होगा और वह ब्रह्म विहार में मग्न होगा अब उसे तौहीदका सच्चा आनन्द मिलेगा किन्तु इस्लाम की रक्षा और दीन प्रतिष्ठा चाहने वाला अनलहक की घोषणा न कर स्वतः इस्लाम के सभी अंगों का पालन करेगा।

“परगट लोक मार कहूँ बाता, गुपुत मन जालौ राता”

को चरितार्थ करेगा पर जो इस्लाम का भक्त नहीं केवल प्रेम का पुजारी और जान का प्रचारक वह वह स्पष्ट रूप से उसकी घोषणा करेगा और फिर किसी क्रियाकलाप के फेर न पड़ेगा मुल्ला और काज़ी उसे जिन्दीक कहेंगे प्राण दण्ड के विधान से वह तिल भी न डरेगा और शौक से शूलों के तख्ते पर परम प्रिय का आलिंगन कर उसी में मग्न हो जायेगा उसकी साधना सफल हो जायेगी और उसके आलोक से लोक का उद्धार होगा।

A NOTE ON INFLATION AND ITS HISTORY

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Abstract

“At a time when Inflation seems a dreary word, often on the verge of controversy in economic and political arena this article attempts to trace the evolution of the meaning that the word has conveyed over time. Has it always been a statement about prices or not? This article probes into the evolutionary history and extends itself till RE hypothesis linking shocks to fluctuations in price level. While undertaking this assessment this article also ponders on the significance attached to the notion of a general increase in price level, which might as well explain the limelight that it generally enjoys. It also explores the relation of price level with interest rate, rate of growth to contextualize the contributions made by early thinkers like Wicksell, Keynes and Pigou. We don't cover cost push and hybrid theories of inflation considering the fact that these theories implicitly led us to ponder on the condition of price and are sufficiently explored elsewhere in the literature.”

JEL Classification: B1, B3, B31, E30

Introduction

Among the various cornerstones of macroeconomic theory, one finds Inflation held at high helm of affairs. There is a vast literature spanning across centuries treating the subject matter and as usual with epochs the meaning and significance of the word “Inflation” seems to have changed. For many years the word Inflation was not a statement about prices rather a condition of *paper money*, which is a description about monetary policy. A testimony of it can be seen via these two quotes: *Inflation is the process of making addition to currencies not based on a commensurate increase in the production of goods.* —Federal Reserve Bulletin (1919) *Most prominent among these inflationary forces were a drop in the exchange rate of the dollar, a considerable increase in labour costs, and severe weather.* —Federal Reserve Bulletin (1978) So what was once described as a monetary cause is now described as a price outcome. Well it also appears that in USA (1978) inflation was about things other than excessive money growth. As a condition of money stock, its treatment lies in central bank curtailing the rate of growth of money supply but as a condition of price level which may have its origin in other factors (e.g. severe weather, depreciating currency, supply shocks, etc.) the solution to and the discretion to squeeze inflation is much less clear.

In pre classical literature money almost always referred to metallic coin while the notion changed with Smith referring mostly to paper currency due to invasion of paper currency in nation states most notably America.

Currency Inflation

The word inflation began to emerge in the literature during mid-1830, commonly referred as ‘free banking era’ not in reference to something which happens to prices rather as something which happens to paper currency. “The astonishing proportion between the amount of paper circulation representing money, and the amount of specie actually in the Banks, during the past few years, has been a matter of serious concern ... [This] inflation of the currency makes prices rise.” —From the

Bee (1855). Now, one can see the notion is intrinsically attached to a Depreciation of a currency caused by change in quantity of currency relative to metal that constitutes the nation's money.

Price Inflation

By the late nineteenth century, however, the distinction between “currency” and “money” was becoming blurred. At the turn of the century, economists tended to refer to any circulating medium as money, and any change in the circulating medium relative to trade needs as an inflation of money. But this shift in meaning introduced another problem. Although it is easy to determine the amount of currency relative to the stock of a precious metal, how does one know when the amount of the circulating medium exceeds “trade needs”? Well via seeing the change in price level! In other words, an inflated money supply will reveal itself through its effect on the price level. When Keynesian economic theory challenged the direct link between money and the price level, inflation lost its association with money and came to be chiefly understood as a condition of prices. Indeed, Keynes spoke about different “types” of inflation, including income, profit, commodity, and capital inflation. Technically speaking if there is inflation and all prices in the broadest sense of the term rise equally and simultaneously then it just confirms to the quantity theory at the micro/individual level, i.e. money in neutral and it just leads to a change in unit of account whereby every commodity has a new price now. This remains perfectly valid as long as additional money infused into the economy is amortized in all hands and is simultaneously spent on goods and services but in reality this is not the case so there are changes in relative prices and leads to redistribution of wealth (for money acts as a store of value also) making the onset of inflation a trouble for everyone. Also following a general price increase/decrease the relation b/w debtors and creditors become more contentious, creating more chaos and upsetting expectations. There is another reason why inflation assumes so much significance, particularly with its relation to growth. Empirically it's been true that with high price level there are more variations and unpredictability in the prices while at lower price levels one finds less fluctuating tendencies in prices, importantly it has to do with investment sentiments which are contingent on profitability which in turn is connected with rate of interest which is further connected with the price level. The last of the two must hold a relation between them, for the whole practice of loan transactions is dominated by the fact that both sides of transactions are in money form and the amount of money in the economy has a role to play in determining the level of prices and lastly continuing inflation comes at the cost of losing elections! So it seems justified why the subject under consideration attracts so much attention.

One can trace the inflation theories under these heads whereby one looks at (1) Demand side inflation having its roots in Aggregate demand analysis and (2) Cost inflation whereby average wage rate being pushed up without labour shortage are seen as its causes. (3) Mixed demand cost inflation. The demand side inflation can further be divided into three relations, relation between interest and prices, relation between money and prices and finally introducing expectations into prices thus relation between expectations, prices and interest rates.

Now we will take a historical tour of thoughts emerging over the subject matter in connection with the historical events which mark periods of epoch in economic analysis. Historically one looks back at the ‘Bullionism’ in 16th-18th century Europe for studying price level fluctuations. Adherence to

Bullionism led countries to engage in securing trade surplus and export as much as possible. The underlying ideology was bullion/specie is important as they represent wealth. Soon it came under attack for its inconsistency and logical fallacy by pre-classical economists most notably by Hume, who emphasized the real and nominal variables and the famous classical dichotomy whereby nominal variables can't affect the real variables and thus wealth of nations isn't determined by accumulation of bullions than it's determined by stocks of factors of production and techniques of production. The attack on bullionism led classical economists to stress that money had no intrinsic value and it played a role only in facilitating exchange. The quantity theory of money depicts quantity equations equating a flow on money payments to flow of goods and services. From the time of Smith to the great depression, the transaction version formulated by Newcomb (1885) and popularised by Irving Fisher (1911) and the Cambridge cash-balance approach developed by Pigou (1911) remained dominant. The difference b/w the two can be understood by simply understanding that in the former "act of purchasing by money" assumes significance while in the later "possession of purchasing power interim between sale and purchase" is emphasized. The QTM takes for granted that the real quantity rather than the nominal quantity of money is what ultimately matters to holders of money and, second, that in any given circumstances people wish to hold a fairly definite real quantity of money. So starting from an equilibrium situation (nominal quantity they hold correspond to real quantity at current prices they wish to hold) say there is unexpected infusion of money, now everyone would try spending what they regard as excess money balance, but they as a group can't succeed since ones' payment is receipt of other and the society as a whole can't spend more than what it has received, leading either to output expansion or price rise. One can pick from here that quantity theory lacks explanation of the channel by which an increase in M produces an increase in money spending, which in case of maximum output, bids up prices. This was explained by Wicksell, who saw new money coming into the economy in the forms of bank loans to businesses, to finance investment in excess of current rate of saving. This represents a net increase in aggregate demand from an unchanged supply of goods (already at max production), bidding up the prices of all goods and extracting forced saving from the community as a whole, whose money income were based on the earlier price level. Which is fairly logical provided after a lag, money income would rise in proportion to prices, which leaves consumers in same position as before to compete with investors for the limited supply of goods. If the lending institutions still infuse new loans to the investors the inflationary process would continue. Otherwise if they stopped lending thus ceasing the money supply the market rate of interest would have to rise to natural rate crowding out the extra investment demand and stimulating saving, thus halting inflation. Wicksellian analysis also propounded relation between interest and prices whereby cause of price fluctuation was attributed to the difference in loan rate of interest and natural rate of interest.

First round effects and Keynes' attack: The quantity theory neglects any effect on the outcome, of the source of changes in money supply. Tobin and Mill also emphasized that the way the quantity of money is increased affects the outcome in some measure or other. Say, if the newly printed money is spent on the first round for goods and services, it adds directly at that point to the demand

for such goods and services, whereas if it is spent on purchasing debt, or simply held temporarily as a buffer stock, it delays effect on the demand for goods and services. One way to characterize the Keynesian approach in the wake of the great depression (1929) is that it gives almost exclusive importance to the first-round effect by putting primary emphasis on flows of spending rather than on stocks of assets whereby one does invoke the non-neutrality of money to stimulate employment and output generation.

Stagflation, Friedman, and the return of classical? The apparent success during the 1950s and 1960s of governments committed to a Keynesian full-employment policy in achieving rapid economic growth, economic stability, and relatively stable prices and interest rates, led the belief in the initial Keynesian views about the unimportance of variations in the nominal quantity of money, I must tell here though Friedman himself has acknowledged despite Keynes stressing the consumption function stability and investment spending the received wisdom within and outside the economics profession became, "Money doesn't matter", so one shouldn't blame for the catastrophe thereafter to Keynes!

"The 1970s administered a decisive blow to these views and fostered a revival of belief in the quantity theory. Rapid monetary growth was accompanied not only by accelerated inflation but also by rising, not falling, average levels of unemployment" (Friedman, 1977) and by rising, not declining, interest rates.

"Keynesian orthodoxy ... appears to be giving seriously wrong answers to the most basic questions of macroeconomic policy. Proponents of a class of models which promised 3½ to 4½ percent unemployment to a society willing to tolerate annual inflation rates of 4 to 5 percent have some explaining to do after a decade [i.e., the 1970s] such as we have just come through. A forecast error of this magnitude and central importance to policy has consequences". Lucas (1981)

Well this was a blow to the golden age of capitalism and debates over non-neutrality of money affecting prices assumed a centre stage again. This phenomenon of inflation and unemployment together crashed the belief that the price level could be at any rate as determined by forces other than money; and that absolute liquidity preference was a normal state. Needless to say Irving Fisher's famous nominal and real interest rate distinction re-entered prevailing doctrine. It would become clear that differences between Keynesian and quantity theorist were more about range of assets to be used as reference for Interest rate.

The Keynesians for a given increase in money believe interest rates to be affected first which are defined over a narrower set of assets which would be affecting consumption spending while for quantity theorists the excess money balance would be disposed on everything, thus raising the prices of assets and thus reducing interest rates whereby again encouraging investment and asset creation. This increase in spending tends to raise prices of goods and services which by lowering the real value of the quantity of money and of nominal assets, tends to counter the initial decline in interest rates, even overshooting in the process. This difference over range of assets can be understood in terms of 'price rigidity' whereby treating prices as rigid or institutional datum

reduces the no of assets for speculation demand, also it appears close to reality since it's unusual to think of interest in sales of chicken, hen, clothes, etc. hence the prices were assumed institutional datum for a large set of commodities while for monetarists there was no such inhibition so it was evident why they interpret transmission mechanism in terms of relative price movements over a broad range rather than narrowly defined interest rates.

Extensions:

Abraham Lincoln had said, "you can't fool all of the people all of the time".

- Phillips curve & Natural rate hypothesis: The evolution of this doctrine prior to 1975 is widely accepted and no longer triggers much debate. The discovery by Phillips and his disciples Samuelson-Solow of an inverse relationship b/w inflation and unemployment suggested an exploitable policy that was destroyed by the Friedman-Phelps natural rate hypothesis of the late 1960s. The quantity theory distinction between real and nominal magnitudes implies that the Phillips curve is theoretically flawed. The nominal wage rate that corresponds to any given real wage rate depends on the level of prices. Whether that nominal wage rate is rising or falling, depends on whether prices are rising or falling. If wages and prices change at the same rate, the real wage rate remains the same. Hence, in the long run, there need be no relation between the rate of change of *nominal* wages and the rate of change of *real* wages, and hence between the rate of change of nominal wages and the level of unemployment, a proposition that came to be termed the Natural Rate Hypothesis.
- Rational Expectations: The authorities can affect the course of events only by "fooling" the participants, that is, by acting in an unpredictable, ad hoc way. But, in general, such strictly ad hoc intervention will destabilize the economy, not stabilize it, serving simply to introduce another series of random shocks into the economy to which participants must adapt and which reduce their ability to form precise and accurate expectations. This when applied to monetary policy regime, random shocks manifest in the form of inflationary or deflationary pressures, and this is the crossroad where we are standing today.

Beside these theories as mentioned earlier there exist cost inflation theories and hybrid theories which depart from AD analysis. We conclude by stating that the word Inflation has meant and touched different cords at specific points in monetary history commensurate with the understanding behind it. In recent times when price rise became synonymous with inflation it is needed that we briefly visit the word and its associated meaning along with the debates which shaped our understanding about it.

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Diplomatic and Diligent Role of HRM in Manpower Making

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Abstract

“Human resource planning is the system of matching the supply of people, internally (existing employees) and externally (those to be hired and searched for) with over a given time frame” (Watters cited in Byars & Rue, 1991). Human resource planning has two objectives; the optimum utilization of currently employed human resources and providing future HR needs in the areas of skills and numbers (Harvey & Bowin, 1996). Human resource planning is usually performed by both human resource managers and operating managers.

Keywords: Employing Suitable Workers, Applying Diplomatic Method, Synthesising, Synergising, Systematising,

Introduction

Human Resource Management Practices

In this section, the sub-fields of human resource management such as job analysis and design, recruitment, selection, orientation, training, performance appraisal, career planning and development, human resource planning, compensation management, employee health and safety, and union relations would be described in details.

Job Analysis and Design

“Job analysis is a method of for describing jobs and/or the human attributes necessary to perform them” (Spector, 2003, p.54). The results of a job analysis are used to form job description and job specifications. Job description involves knowledge about tasks, duties, and responsibilities of a particular job. Job specifications, on the other hand, are composed of knowledge, skills and abilities that are required to perform the job efficiently (Harvey & Bowin, 1996). Many human resource management activities make use of job analysis. Among them are recruitment, selection and placement, orientation, training, career counselling, performance appraisal, and compensation (Spector, 2003, p.54).

In addition, information obtained from job analysis can be used in designing jobs. Job design is the process of structuring work to achieve the objectives of the business plan (Byars & Rue, 1991). Job design is basically structuring the work of an organization. It involves continuous process of dividing activities, assigning responsibility to groups or individuals, coordinating performance, and specifying the relationships among newly created jobs. The specific work tasks of an individual or group of individuals, question of how the job is to be performed, who is to perform it and where is to be performed are defined within process of job design. The process of job design can be classified as three parts. First, the individual tasks are specified. Then the method of

performing each task is specified. Lastly, individual tasks are combined into specific jobs to be assigned to individuals (Byars & Rue, 1991). Practices of job analysis and design reveal that job is such an important part of any organization's effectiveness that it needs to be clearly understood and designed in a way that allows employee productivity and satisfaction.

Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment is a process of seeking and attracting a pool of people in order to select qualified candidates for vacant positions within the organization (Byars & Rue, 1991). During recruitment process, organizations may use both internal and external sources to fill vacant positions. Internal recruiting is looking for candidates among employees already working in the organization. It involves techniques like job posting. In this method, notices about vacant positions are posted in central locations throughout the organization and employees are given a time to apply these positions. Another method used in internal recruiting is to seek recommendations from present employees regarding friends who might fill vacancies. External recruiting, on the other hand, seeks for candidates from outside the organization. The methods of external recruiting can be listed as follows; media advertisements, campus recruiting, working with employment agencies or executive search firms, using computer databases (Ivancevich, 1992).

Organizations are better to use realistic job previews in order to improve the effectiveness of recruitment process. Realistic job preview is a way to provide complete information including positive and negative things about the organization to the job applicant (Ivancevich, 1992).

After recruiting qualified applicants, the selection process begins. "Selection is the process of choosing from a pool of applicants the individual or individuals who best fit the selecting criteria for a position" (Harvey & Brown, 1996, p. 120). Generally, in the organizations selection process begins with the completion of the application form by the applicant. The second step is preliminary screening interview in which minimum qualifications of applicants are screened and a brief personal interview is conducted to form general impression of the applicants, and obtain key information about them. The third step is to make employment tests such as cognitive or psychomotor ability tests, knowledge and skill tests, emotional intelligence tests, integrity tests, personality tests, vocational interest tests, and performance simulations. The validity studies of these tests demonstrate that integrity tests have an operational validity of .41 (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). Moreover, the validity of cognitive ability tests to predict performance is around .51 (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). As a fourth step, employment interviews are conducted. These interviews can be in different formats; structured, unstructured, or semistructured. In the structured interview, the interviewee received a set of questions that have been prepared in advance by the interviewer and the interviewer leads the course of the interview. However, in unstructured interviews, the candidates control the flow of the conversation. The interviewers do not direct the interviewee; they repeat the statements made by the candidates to encourage further discussion. Unfortunately, unstructured interviews are subject to the interviewer's interpretations (Harvey & Brown, 1996). The validity of unstructured interview has been shown to be relatively low whereas the validity of structured interview is higher and similar to assessment center validities (Lowry,

1994). There are also other kinds of interviews such as panel, situational and stress interviews. In panel interviews, the applicant is interviewed by a panel or group of individuals. In situational interviews, the applicants solve a particular problem or describe how they would behave in a specific job situation. The validity of situational interviews has been shown to range between .14 and .46 (Cesare, 1996). Lastly, in stress interviews, recruit is subjected to the stresses and strains supposedly encountered in the job situation (Harvey & Brown, 1996).

The next step is to check references or recommendation letters that are submitted by the applicants. As another step, some organizations require applicants take a physical examination tests or drug tests. The final hiring decision is made based on the results of the selection process.

In addition, there are some other tools that used in selection process such as work samples and assessment centers. A work sample is a selection tool that requires the candidates to show how well they perform the tasks involved in a job under standardized conditions. On the other hand, assessment centers measures how well a recruit is able to perform the tasks of a specific job and they include exercises like inbasket exercise, leaderless group exercise, problem solving simulation, and role-play exercise. Additionally, according to Schmitt, Gooding, Noe, and Kirsch (1984), the work samples have true validity of .38 and average validity of assessment centers is around .40 (Howard, 1997).

Orientation and Employee Training

Orientation is a planned introduction of employees to the organization, work unit, their job, and co-workers. It should be conducted in two separate levels; general company orientation and departmental or job orientation. There are many purposes of the orientation process. Among them are reducing the anxiety of new employee, reducing employee turnover, saving time of supervisors or co-workers, developing realistic job expectations, developing positive attitudes toward organization, and improving job satisfaction (Ivancevich, 1992).

In orientation process HR department cooperates with new employee's manager. HR department initiates and coordinates general company orientation and departmental and job orientation, trains line managers in procedures for conducting department and job orientation, conducts general company orientation and follows up the initial orientation with the new employee. The line managers, on the other hand, are responsible for conducting job and departmental orientation.

After a comprehensive orientation, new employees may not be able to perform satisfactorily, so they have to be trained in the duties they are expected to do. Training is a learning process that involves the acquisition of skills, knowledge, concepts or attitudes to increase employee performance (Byars & Rue, 1991). Before training programs are developed, the needs of both employees and organization are assessed in order to determine what objectives should be sought. Prior to needs assessment phase organizational support is provided. Salas and Cannon-Bowers (2001) stated that the need assessment involves the analysis of job and task. The job/task analysis determines the work functions to be performed on the job, the conditions of the job, and knowledge, skill, ability and other requirements (KSAO's) needed to perform those tasks. Moreover, needs assessment phase involves organizational analysis that determines training climate, identifies goals

of the organization, and external and legal constraints (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Need assessment process also includes requirement analysis in which the targeted job is defined, methods of need assessment are chosen, participants are determined, and a protocol is developed.

The methods of training can be classified into two: on-site methods and offsite methods. On-site training involves techniques such as job rotation, vestibule training, on the job training, and apprenticeship training. Off-site training methods are seminars or lectures, programmed instruction, computer-assisted instructions, audiovisual techniques, machine simulators, and behavioural modifications (Riggio, 2003). Additional methods such as management games, case study, role playing, behavioural role modelling, laboratory training, achievement motivation training, and leader match training are particularly used in training managerial and interpersonal skills.

After employees receive training, it should be evaluated. Evaluation of training is composed of comparing the results of training with the objectives of training expected by managers, employees, and trainers. The evaluation of training can be made using four levels of criteria; reaction, learning, behaviour, and results (Kirkpatrick, 1977). Reaction refers to feeling of employees towards training program whether they like it or not. Learning criterion assesses to what extents the trainee has learned the principles, facts, and approaches that are included in the training program. Behaviour criterion evaluates the job behaviour of the trainee. That is, whether the behaviour has changed in the desired direction as a result of the program. Lastly, the results part is related to tangible results that are achieved as a result of the training program, such as reduction in cost or turnover, improvement in production. Another study conducted by Alliger, Tannenbaum, Bennett, Traver & Shotland (1997) divided the training reactions into affective and utility reactions, and learning into post training measures of learning, retention, and behaviour/skill demonstration.

Performance Appraisal

Performance management is a strategic approach to increasing the effectiveness of organizations by improving the performance of the employees and by developing the capabilities of teams and individual contributors (Baron & Armstrong, 1998).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) conceptualized job performance as comprising task performance and contextual performance. They suggested that task performance relates to the proficiency, with which employees perform core technical activities that are important for their jobs, whereas contextual performance is defined as extra task proficiency that contributes more to the organizational, social, and psychological environment to help achieving organizational goals. Contextual factors include aspects like persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort, volunteering to carry out duties not formally part of one's job, and endorsing and supporting organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo 1993).

Performance appraisal is the process that determines how an employee is performing on the job and communicates that information to the employee back. Performance appraisal systems provide data for other HRM activities such as promotion, layoffs, firing, and merit pay increases. Performance appraisal information can also provide input for training and development needs of employees. Additionally, it provides input for the validation of selection procedures and human resource

planning (Riggio, 2003). Finally, Cleveland, Murphy and Williams (1989) stated that the results of performance appraisal are used to give feedback to employees about their performance and to develop employee's performance.

The performance of the employees is evaluated by their supervisors, peers or outside sources like customers and employees themselves. Muchinsky (1999) stated that there are different methods for performance appraisal. These methods are classified in three groups. The first group is Graphic Rating Scales (GRS), which are the most commonly used techniques of performance appraisal. In GRS, employees are rated on a number of traits or factors. The rater judges how much each factor or trait the employee has. Usually, employees are judged on a 5- or 7- point scale. The number of factors ranges between 5 and 20 (Muchinsky, 1999).

The second group of methods is employee comparison methods that involve rank-order, paired comparisons, and forced distribution. These rating scales are norm referenced; that is, employees are evaluated against each other. With the rank-order method, employees are rated from high to low on a given performance dimension. However, since rank-order data have ordinal scale characteristics, the level of performance is not known exactly. Additionally, in paired comparison method, each employee is compared with every other employee and rater selects which of the two is better on the dimension that is being evaluated. The method is typically used to assess employees on overall ability to perform the job. Lastly, forced distribution method is most useful when the number of employees being evaluated is high. In this method, the raters assign employees to established categories ranging from poor to good on the basis of comparison with all the other employees in the group (Riggio, 2003). However, this method is criticised because it creates artificial distinctions between employees. The third group of performance appraisal methods is named as behavioural checklists and scales. This group is composed of the techniques like behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS), behavioural-observation scales (BOS), and mixed standard rating scales (Muchinsky, 1999).

Firstly, BARS is a combination of behavioural incident and rating scale methods. In BARS, employee performance is rated on a scale in which scale points are anchored with actual work behaviours. Raters read a number of behavioural statements and then circle the number that corresponds to the statement that best describes the employee's behaviour. Unfortunately, the development of BARS is time consuming.

Secondly, BOS is developed as an attempt to improve BARS. The assessor rates the employee on the frequency of critical incidents or specific employee behaviours. The rater observes the employee for a certain period of time and evaluates him or her on a critical incident scale recording how often they observed the behaviour (Muchinsky, 1999).

Finally, on mixed standard rating scales, the nature of performance dimension and the levels of performance described by the behavioural examples are disguised. The employee score is calculated after on the basis of rater responses to items forming a specific dimension. Raters respond to behavioural statements that demonstrate high, low, and average performance for each dimension.

For each statement, raters evaluate the employee's performance whether it is better than, equal to, or lower than the behaviour reflected in the statement (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

It is agreed that performance evaluation is a two way communication process. That is, it involves an active communication between employees and supervisors about performance. Therefore, feedback interviews that take place after performance appraisals are important parts of the evaluation process. These interviews include review of the strengths, needed improvements, as well as the overall progress of the employee. The problems that are encountered are discussed and afterwards the employee and the supervisor focus on the ways to improve performance. The issue of how current performance fits with career goals of the employee is also discussed. Finally, specific action plans are prepared for following term (Beardwell & Holden, 2001).

Career Planing and Development

Career planning and development aims to develop employees and to match the employee's knowledge, skills, abilities, and experience with the improvement opportunities that are provided by the organization. Gutteridge (1986) stated that organizations have some important reasons to have career planning and development programs. First career planning is an effective way to deal with problems such as voluntary turnover among managers and low level of productivity.

Conclusion

There are two perspectives of career planning process; organizational centered vs. individual centered career planning. Organizational centered career planning focuses on jobs and constructing career paths that provide logical progression of individuals between jobs (Mathis & Jackson, 1991). Individual centered career planning, on the other hand, focuses directly on employees. Their skills and goals are at the hearth of the analysis.

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A STUDY ON SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND HEALTH STATUS OF SCHEDULED CASTE WOMEN IN JAIPUR DISTRICT, RAJASTHAN

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to study the socio-economic and health status of the scheduled castes in Jaipur district, Rajasthan. The sample of the study consists of 324 respondents, which were selected by Multistage Random Sampling Method. The major objectives of the study are:- 1. To portray the socio-economic conditions of the scheduled castes in the study area 2. To find out the morbidity pattern of the scheduled castes in the study area 3. To examine the health care practices of the scheduled castes in the study area. The socio-economic status of the scheduled caste population is substantially lower than the general people. They are living in miserable conditions with no electricity, no road connectivity and no water supply available. The primary health centre is not located in the study region and people spend more money for private health sources for the treatment of general and acute diseases. The low income and the poor socio-economic background of the scheduled castes is the reason that they visit the Govt. hospitals for their treatment of diseases. It is interesting to note that first they approach private clinics or private medical shops for the treatment of common or acute diseases and then they visit the government hospitals for the treatment of the diseases. They have to travel longer distances by buses to reach the Govt. hospitals for the treatment of the diseases, because the health centre is very far away from the study area. The health problems of the scheduled castes need special attention because the tribal people have distinctive health problem. The major insight of scheduled caste population on health, health need and health care services are lack of infrastructures, inaccessibility to health institutions, ill-treated by government hospitals staff, acceptability and affordability are some of the main problems contributing to their poor health status. The inaccessibility to health care and reluctance to seek help for health issues remain a significant problem in scheduled caste areas. In considering priorities for health, greater effort and resources are required to increase their awareness and change attitudes towards health issues.

Keywords: Scheduled Castes, Socio-Economic Status, Health status, Health facilities, Morbidity pattern, Sources of treatment.

INTRODUCTION

The scheduled castes in India vary in features as geographical isolation, simple technology and conditions of living, general backwardness to the practice of animism, physical features etc. The criteria were used in one context and quite different in another context the result is that the list includes groups and communities strikingly different from each other, not only size of the population but also the level of technology and other characteristics. The scheduled castes are socially, economically and educationally disadvantaged and lack their own financial resources and in fulfilling their basic needs. In addition to the poor socio-economic status, low literacy levels and lack of awareness does play a major role in prioritizing health and the utilization of healthcare services among this community. Health information seeking behaviour is an important factor in health management, but this is often ignored while considering schemes for providing health

facilities to people. As a result, new schemes for providing health care information do not get the desired acceptance of the community and therefore rendered unsuccessful. The decision makers in the health sector are recognizing the need for understanding the health seeking behaviour of the community and its acceptance and usage of traditional and modern methods, such as perception of the community regarding the service delivery. This becomes especially relevant among traditional society.

Health is the major pathway to human development, which is the cornerstone for a healthy, wealthy and prosperous life. Health is also a well reflected and self-evident in the proverbial saying “Health is Wealth”. There is no magical mechanism, which can bring good health overnight. It is a gradual process, which takes time and hinges on many things. As a multifaceted aspects health has been defined by WHO as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely an absence of disease or infirmity”. The health of an individual or of a community is concerned not only with physical and mental status, but also with social and economic relationship (Chakrabarty 1999). Ackernocht (1947) has rightly pointed out: “Disease and its treatment are only in the abstract purely biological process. Actually, such facts as whether a person gets sick at all. What kind of disease he acquires and what kind of treatment he receives depend largely upon social factors”. The common trust, customs and practices connected with health and disease have found to be intimately related with the treatment of disease (Majhi et. al, 2004). In order to bring holistic development of a society the cultural dimension of the health of a community should be given importance.

The health problems need special attention in the context of tribal communities of India. The available research studies point out that the scheduled caste population has distinctive health problems which are mainly governed by their habitat, difficult terrains and ecologically variable niches. The health, nutrition and medico-genetic problems of diverse groups have been found to be the unique and present a formidable challenge for which appropriate solutions have to be found out by planning and evolving relevant research studies. Scheduled caste groups of India have special health problems and genetic abnormalities like sickle cell anaemia, G-6-PD red cell enzyme deficiency and sexually transmitted disease (STD). Insanitary conditions, ignorance, lack of personal hygiene and health education are the main factors responsible for their ill health (Basu, 2000).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Krishna Kumar (1983) study on “Educational Experience of Scheduled Castes and Tribes” argument that education introduces bourgeois values among the oppressed, and thereby curbs their potential for radical expression, is based on the impact of education on an extremely small minority perceived from the point of view of non-SC/ST educators; and both the tone and the substance of the claim show a wrong choice. In a society where bourgeois values have high prestige, the acceptance of such values by a few members of oppressed groups can hardly be seen as a sign of regression unless we insist on ignoring the point of view from which the oppressed would look at their own successful brethren. What we should be worried about is not the fate of this tiny minority, but that of the vast numbers of SC and ST children who stop going to school long before the carrot of a middle class job can appear before them, and whose brief and demeaning educational experience merely proves to them that they are what they were alleged to be. The experience of education, under prevailing curricular norms, serves to assist SC and ST children to internalise the symbols of 'backward' behaviour.

Santha Kumari (1983) in her study on “Scheduled Castes and Welfare Measures” found that education has enabled the respondents to learn the habits of high castes like cleanliness, method of preparation of food so that this would make their food acceptable to high caste guests. In a study on “New Horizons and SCs” by Parvathamma and Satyanarayana (1984) found that more than half of the fathers of the Scheduled Caste college students were illiterates and nearly three fourths of the mothers of the students are illiterates. They found further revealed that majority of the fathers of those students work in the villages as agricultural labourers and their mothers had no occupation. Furthermore, it is found from their study that more than half of the respondents were hailed from villages.

Suma Chitnis (1975) in her study on “Education of Scheduled Castes” found that Scheduled Castes enrolled at schools and colleges come from privileged families, namely, literate homes. She also reveals that Scheduled Caste females who have access to higher education come from privileged families compared to their Scheduled Caste male counterparts. She further found that special programmes for the educational development of the Scheduled Castes are giving rise to new inequalities within their castes. She suggested that it would be useful to examine whether the Scheduled Castes students are economically well off as well.

A study on “Higher Education for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes” by **Viney Kirpal (1978)** stated that the Scheduled Castes and they are treated as outcasts and untouchables for centuries at a stretch. These castes have had little contact with the world of education. Even when the British endeavoured to disseminate education among the Indian people, the Scheduled Castes were virtually denied this benefit because of the traditional prejudices of higher castes against them. He further expressed that though educational facilities and incentives offered to the Scheduled Castes are substantial, yet the community remains educationally backward.

Suneila Malik (1979) study on “Social Integration of Scheduled Castes” investigated the relative impacts of changing educational and occupational levels on the life-pattern of the scheduled castes by highlighting the effectiveness of developmental measures taken so far. He found that the developmental measures have aided social mobility among the scheduled castes to some extent. Still a large majority of the Scheduled Castes are not able to benefit to the fullest extent from these developmental measures due to loopholes in the implementation mechanism.

OBJECTIVES

1. To portray the socio-economic conditions of the scheduled castes in the study area.
2. To find out the morbidity pattern of the scheduled castes in the study area.
3. To examine the health care practices of the scheduled castes in the study area.

METHODOLOGY

The researcher has selected the Jaipur district from the 34 districts of the Rajasthan. This district has relatively large number of scheduled caste population. The total number of Scheduled caste households of the given area as per census 2011 was 1003302. The sampling of the study is said to be Multi- Stage Random sampling method. The Jaipur district has 13 blocks namely Amber, Bassi, Chaksu, Dudu, Govindgarh, Janwa Ramgarh, Jhotwara, Kotputli, Phagi, Sambhar, Sanganer, Shahpura and Viratnagar. Out of these 13 blocks, two blocks namely Bassi and Dudu were selected on the basis of the high concentration of scheduled caste population. The

researcher has selected three villages from the selected two blocks, namely Toonga, Jatwara and Ranjipura were selected randomly from Bassi block. The three villages namely Bichoon, Gagardoo and Akoda were selected randomly from Dudu block based on the high concentration of scheduled caste population and a total sample of 324 respondents was randomly selected for the present study.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table-1

Age-wise classification of the sample respondents in the study area

S.No.	Age Group	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	18-27	68	21
2.	28-37	112	34.6
3.	38-47	92	28.4
4.	Above-47	52	16
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Age determines the active participation of the community in promoting their economic and education position. Table-1 shows that out of the 324 respondents, majority of the respondents 34.6 percent were between 28-37 age-group, 28.4 percent respondents were between 38-47 age-group, 21 percent respondents were between the 18-27 age-group and 16 percent respondents were Above-47 age-group.

Table-2

Sex-wise classification of the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Gender	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Male	187	57.7
2.	Female	137	42.3
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Gender is a range of characteristics distinguishing between male and female, particularly in the cases of men and women or the masculine and feminine attributes assigned to them. The WHO (2012) defines gender as the result of socially constructed ideas about the behaviour, actions, and roles a particular sex performs. Table-2 shows the gender wise classification of the sample respondents in the study area. Out of the 324 respondents, majority of the respondents 57.7 percent belongs to male category and 42.3 percent of the respondents were females in the study area.

Table-3

Marital status wise classification the sample respondents

S.No.	Marital status	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Married	246	76
2.	Unmarried	78	24
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Marital status is one of the vital factors in the social institution. Table-3 shows the material status of the respondents. Out of the 324 sample respondents, 76 percent respondents were married and 24 percent respondents were unmarried.

Table-4
Types of houses wise classification of the sample respondents

S.No.	Type of Family	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Joint family	107	33
2.	Nuclear Family	217	67
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Family is a social unit created by blood, marriage, or adoption and can be described as nuclear family consists of parents and children or joint family, which encompasses other relatives. They share the housework and take care of one another. In this study only nuclear families and joint families were included. Table-4 shows the family type wise distribution of the respondents. The nuclear family system is the order of the day. Out of 324 respondents, the majority of respondents 67 percent have nuclear families and 33 percent respondents have joint families in the study area.

Table-5
Family size-wise classification of the sample respondents

S.No.	Family Size	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Small family (1-4 members)	156	48.2
2.	Medium family (4-6 members)	118	36.4
3.	Large family (> 6 members)	50	15.4
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in the parentheses denotes percentages to the column total

Family size is deciding factor for income, consumption and investment. Table-5 shows the family size wise classification of the respondents. Family size has been grouped into three categories 1-4, 4-6 and above-6 members. Out of 324 sample respondents 48.2 percent respondents have 1-4 family members, 36.4 percent respondents have 4-6 family members and 15.4 percent respondents have above-6 family members.

Table-6
Type of house-wise classification of the sample respondents

S. No.	Type of house	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Pucca	32	10
2.	Semi Pucca	52	16
3.	Kaccha	156	48
4.	Hut	84	26
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Status of dwelling is one of the major economic indicators of development. Table-6 shows the types of houses of the sample respondents. The status of household is grouped into four major categories viz Pucca, Semi Pucca, Kaccha, and huts. It reveals that the majority of the respondents 48 percent have Kaccha houses followed by 26 percent respondents have hut houses, 16 percent respondents have semi Pucca houses and 10 percent respondents have Pucca houses.

Table-7
Education wise classification of the sample respondents in the study area

S.No.	Education	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Illiterate	117	36
2.	Primary	94	29
3.	Secondary	77	24
4.	Graduation	23	7
5.	Post Graduation	13	4
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Education is a vital input for growth and development. Education is the process by which society deliberately transmits its knowledge, skills and values from one generation to another. It plays a primary role in health status of the population. The total literacy rate of the district is 68 percent which is less than the overall literacy rate of Jammu and Kashmir. Table-7 shows the education-wise classification of the sample respondents. The respondent's literacy levels are classified into five major groups to estimate their levels viz illiterate, primary, secondary, graduation and post graduation. Out of the 324 respondents, the majority of the respondents 36 percent were illiterates, 29 percent of the sample respondents had completed their primary education followed by 24 percent respondents who had completed their secondary education, 7 percent respondents had completed their graduation and 4 percent respondents were post graduates in the study area.

Table-8
Occupation-wise classification of the sample respondents

S.No.	Occupation	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Agricultural labourer	98	30.2
2.	Casual labour	102	31.5
3.	Businessmen	49	15.1
4.	Govt. Employment	31	9.6
5.	Private Employment	44	13.6
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Occupation is deciding factor for income, consumption, saving and their health care activities. Table-8 shows the occupation wise distribution of the respondents in the study area. The surveyed respondents are grouped into five major occupational categories, such as Agricultural labourer, Casual labour, business, Govt. Employment and Private Employment. Of these five groups, labour class stands as a predominant occupation 31.5 percent of which were casual

labourers and 30.2 percent were agricultural labourers. The next major employment providing sector is business 15.1 percent followed by private services 13.6 percent and public service and 9.6 percent were doing private employment. Therefore it is found that casual labour is a major employment providing sector.

Table-9
Average annual household wealth composition

S.No.	Wealth Position (in Rs)	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Below-50000 lakhs	210	64.8
2.	50000-150000 lakhs	71	21.9
3.	Above-150000 lakhs	43	13.3
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Wealth is one of the prime indicators of economic development. Table-9 shows the wealth composition of the households in the study area. The total value of assets of the respondents has been computed with prevailing market price. The total wealth of the study population is classified into three major groups such as Rs 50000 to 100000, Rs 100001 to 150000 and above Rs 150000. It is observed that 64.8 percent of them are in the category of Rs <50000, 21.9 percent of them are in the category of 50000 to 100000 and 13.3 percent of them are in the category of >150000.

Table-10
Annual household income wise classification of the respondents

S.No.	Income (in Rs)	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Below-25000	92	28.4
2.	25001-50000	118	36.4
3.	50001-75000	70	21.6
4.	Above-75000	44	13.6
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Household income is one of the proxy indicators in assessing the levels of development of the households. Table-10 portrays the sources of household's income of the sample respondents. The source of household annual income comes from six sources of the study area. The majority of the respondents 36.4 percent come under the category of 25001-50000, 28.4 percent of the respondents come under the category of Rs Below-25000, 21.6 percent of the respondents come under the category of 50001 to 75000 and 13.6 percent of the respondents come under the category of above Rs 75000.

Table-11
Average annual household expenditure on food items

S.No.	Expenditure	Mean	Percentages
1.	Cereals	9700	14
2.	Pulses	8700	12
3.	Vegetables	7000	10
4.	Oil and fats	6300	9
5.	Meat	9900	14
6.	Sugar	3200	4.5
7.	Milk and milk products	7500	11
8.	Spices and condiments	8900	13
9.	Others	8800	12.5
Total		70000	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Food expenditure pattern of the household is the best indicator of existing economic condition of a community and behaviour of variables like food consumption and calorie/ protein intake in relation to the level of food expenditure is the important input of nutritional analysis. The household expenditure can be defined as the cumulative monetary value of consumption of various groups of food items such as cereals, pulses, vegetables, oil and fats, meat and meat products, milk and milk products, sugar spices and others. Table-11 shows the expenditure by the respondents on the food items. The cereals occupy the highest priority with 14 percent. Rice is the staple food of the respondents in the study area and its consumption is naturally high. Vegetables are consumed largely next to cereals 10 percent. Generally pulses occupy a relatively minor position in the analysis of total food expenditure. The next share of expenditure on expensive food items like milk and milk products 11 percent, the expenditure on oil and meat products occupy a relatively smaller proportion constituted 9 percent.

Table-12
Average annual household expenditure on non-food items

S.No.	Expenditure	Mean	Percentages
1.	Fuel and lightening	6300	17.7
2.	Clothing & cosmetics	6300	17.7
3.	Education	1900	5.4
4.	Medical expenses	3200	9.1
5.	Electricity	1500	4.2
6.	Household maintenance	6500	18.3
7.	Others	9800	27.6
Total		35500	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Expenditure on non-food items are presented in table 4.12. Out of the 324 respondents, the majority of the respondents reveal that large proportion of expenditure 27.6 percent is on others, followed by 18.3 percent on household maintenance, the expenditure on clothing and cosmetics is

17.7 percent and fuel and lighting is 17.7 percent. The level of expenditure on medical expenses is 9.1percent, the level of expenditure on education is 5.4 percent and the level of expenditure on electricity is 4.2 percent

Table-13
Average annual household savings

S.No.	Income	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Below-25000	118	36.4
2.	25001-50000	92	28.4
3.	50001-75000	70	21.6
4.	Above-75000	44	13.6
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Table-13 shows the savings wise classification of the respondents. The majority of the respondents 36.4 percent come under the category of below Rs 25000, 28.4 percent of the respondents come under the category of Rs 25001-50000, 21.6 percent of the respondents come under the category of 50001 to 75000 and 13.6 percent of the respondents come under the category of above Rs 75000.

Table-14
Average annual household borrowings

S.No.	Borrowings	Mean	Percentages
1.	Banks	4900	12.3
2.	Money lenders	23500	59.2
3.	Friends and relatives	7300	18.4
4.	Any Other Source	4000	10.1
Total		39700	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

The table-14 table shows the borrowing pattern of respondents. Out of the 324 respondents, the majority of the respondents 59.2 percent borrowed from money lenders, followed by 18.4 percent borrowed from friends and relatives, 12 percent of them borrowed from banks and only 10.1 percent. The respondents borrow for various reasons, though they borrow mainly for their survival and sustenance. They are easy prey to the money lenders who are very eager to offer loans. Repayment is another area and they suffer to repay on time and hence they pay much more than their principal amount due to the late payment of their borrowed money. Crop failure, flood, fire and other epidemic diseases such as cholera, malaria and asthma cause them to borrow money to deal with the emergency situations.

Table-15

Distribution of morbidity pattern among the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Nature	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	No disease	168	51.9
2.	Acute	108	33.3
3.	Chronic	48	14.8
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Table-15 shows the distribution of diseases among the respondents in the study area. The majority of the respondents 51.9 have no diseases, followed by 33.3 percent have acute diseases and 14.8 percent have chronic diseases in the study area.

Table-16

Gender wise distribution of diseases among the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Type of disease	Male	Female	Total
1.	No disease	97 (57.7)	71 (42.3)	168 (100)
2.	Acute	72 (66.7)	36 (33.3)	108 (100)
3.	Chronic	18 (37.50)	30 (62.50)	48 (100)
Total		187 (57.7)	137 (42.3)	324 (100)

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Table-16 shows the gender wise distribution of diseases among the respondents in the study area. It is revealed from the table that 57.7 percent of the males and 42.3 percent of the females have no diseases. In case of acute diseases, 66.7 percent were males and 33.3 percent were females. In case of chronic diseases the 37.50 percent of the respondents were males and 62.50 percent were females. This reveals that acute morbidity is higher among males whereas chronic morbidity is higher among the females

Table-17

Classification of respondents on the basis of distance from health centre

S.No.	Distance from health centre	Frequency	Percentages
1.	Below-5km	22	6.8
2.	6-10km	101	31.2
3.	Above-10	201	62
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in the parentheses denotes percentages

Table-17 reveals that 62 percent of the sample respondents were living above 10 km from the primary health centre, 31.2 percent of them were living 6-10 km from the primary health centre and 6.8 were living below-5 km from the primary health care centre.

Table-18
Health care facilities available in the study area..

S.No.	Health care Facilities	Frequency	Percentages
1.	Private Clinic	149	46
2.	PHC	130	40.1
3.	Govt. Hospital	45	13.9
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in the parentheses denotes percentages

Availability of health care facilities is important for human development. In this context, the type of health care services in the area is studied. Table-18 reveals that the private health care provider's role is higher than the public health sector. It reveals that 61.25 percent of the sample respondents have stated that private services are very much available in the study area. Only 22.50 percent of them are expressed about public health care facilities. Therefore private health sector is major provider in the study area.13.75 percent of the sample respondents have stated that Govt. Hospital facilities are available in the study area

Table-19
Source of treatment wise classification of the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Nature	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	PHC	79	24.4
2.	Govt. Hospital	53	16.3
3.	Medical Shop	68	21
4.	Private Doctor	46	14.2
5.	Private Hospital	21	6.5
6.	Hakims	37	11.4
7.	Traditional Heeler	20	6.2
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Table-19 shows the source of treatment wise classification of the respondents. It is revealed from the table that majority of the respondents 24.4 percent of the respondents get the treatment from the PHC's followed by 21 percent of the respondents get the treatment from medical shop, 16.3 percent of the respondents get the treatment from Govt. Hospital, 14.2 percent of the respondents get the treatment from Private doctor, 11.4 percent of the respondents get the treatment from Hakims, 6.5 percent of the respondents get the treatment from Private Hospital, 6.2 percent of the respondents get the treatment from traditional heeler.

Table-20

Systems of medicine Adopted by the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Nature	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Allopathy	95	29.3
2.	Homeopathy	29	9
3.	Ayurvedic	39	12
4.	Unani	23	7.1
5.	More than one	138	42.6
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

Table-20 shows the distribution of systems of medicine adopted by the respondents for their illness. The Indian System of Medicine, Allopathy and Homeopathy are sought for treatment by the respondents. It is revealed from the table that majority of the respondents 42.6 percent adopted more than one system of medicine, 29.3 percent respondents adopted the Allopathic medicine, 9 percent adopted the Homeopathic medicine, 12 percent adopted the Ayurvedic medicine and 7.1 percent respondents adopted the Unani medicine for the treatment of their diseases. The data clearly reveals that more than one system of medicine and allopathic system are the most popular system of treatment used by the tribal households, as they assume that for quick relief allopathic system is the only remedy.

Table-21

Problems Faced by respondents due to illness in the Study area

S.No.	Response	Frequencies	Percentages
1.	Study of Children	45	14
2.	Family Matters	94	29
3.	Financial Problems	185	57
Total		324	100

Source: Computed from primary data

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the column total

It is really touching that the respondents are saying with tears that they have lot of problems in their family but they cannot reveal all these to everybody because nobody will help them in the form of cash or kind. They angrily said that the government is always in the side of rich people and not giving any single penny for our sake. There are several problems faced by the respondents due to illness. As reported by the respondents, it is presented in the following Table-21 shows the problems faced by the respondents due to ill health. Majority of the respondents 57 percent says that they have financial problem in the family due to diseases, 29 percent of the respondents have their family problems due to the diseases and 14 percent point out that their children's study is affected badly by the diseases.

Table-22
Practices of health care by the respondents in the study area

S.No.	Practices of health care	PHC	Govt. Hospital	Private Hospital	Some other Source	Total
1.	Care of pregnancy	233 72	62 19.1	18 5.5	11 3.4	324 (100)
2.	Delivery	-	184 56.8	4 1.2	136 42	324 (100)
3.	Care of new born baby	7 2.2	223 68.8	51 15.7	43 13.3	324 (100)
4.	Care of common diseases	40 12.3	50 15.4	126 39	108 33.3	324 (100)

Source: Computed from primary data.

Note: Figures in parentheses denote percentages to the row total

Table-22 shows the different health care practices and different sources of treatment among the scheduled tribe women in the study area. It was observed that majority of the female respondents 72 percent get the care of pregnancy from Primary health centres. It was also observed that majority of the female respondents deliveries 56.8 percent occur in the government hospital. It was also observed that majority of the female respondents 68.8 percent take the care for new born babies in primary health centre. It was also observed that majority of the female respondents 38.9 percent visit the private hospitals for the treatment of common diseases.

FINDINGS

- The majority of the respondents 34.6 percent were under the age group of 28-37 years and 16 percent of them were under the age group of above-47 years.
- It was found that majority of the sample respondents 57.7 percent were males and 42.3 percent of the respondents were females.
- It is found that majority of the respondents 76 percent were married and 24 percent of the respondents are unmarried.
- It was found that majority of the respondents 67 percent belong to nuclear families and 33 percent belong to joint families.
- It was found that majority of the respondents 48 percent have Kaccha houses and 10 percent have huts.
- The sample respondents were scattered in all educational categories from primary level education to collegiate. Majority of the sample respondents 36 percent were illiterates and 4 percent of the respondents were post graduates in the study area.
- Majority of respondents 31.5 percent casual labourers, 30.2 percent were agricultural labourers and 9.6 percent were govt. employers.
- The majority of the respondents 64.8 percent have wealth composition below Rs 50,000 and 13.3 percent have their wealth position above Rs1,50,000.
- The majority of the respondents 36.4 percent have income below Rs 25,000 and 13.6 percent have their income above Rs 75,000.

- On an average, per household annual expenditure on food items stood at Rs 70000 and on non food items stood Rs 35500.
- The majority of the respondents 36.4 percent have savings below Rs 25,000 and 13.3 percent have their savings above Rs 75,000.
- The majority of the respondents 59.2 percent borrowed from money lenders. On an average, per household borrowing was Rs 39700.
- The majority of the respondents 62 percent were living above-10 kms of distance from the health centre and 6.8 percent were living below-5 kms of distance from the health centre.
- The majority of the respondents 46 percent say that they have the private clinic facilities and 40 percent of the respondents have PHC facilities.
- The majority of the respondents 24.38 percent get the treatment from PHC and 6.4 percent get the treatment for their health problems from the private hospitals.
- The majority of respondents 33.3 percent have acute diseases and 14.8 percent of the respondents have chronic diseases.
- The majority of respondents 29.3 percent were using the Allopathy and 42.6 percent were using the more than one system of medicine.

CONCLUSION

The study concludes that the people of scheduled castes are socially, economically, politically and legally ignored and excluded in Indian health society. The socio-economic status of the scheduled caste people is substantially lower than the general people. The low income and the poor socio-economic background of the scheduled castes is the reason that they visit the Govt. hospitals for their treatment. It is interesting to note that first they approach private clinics or private medical shops for the treatment of common and acute diseases, and then they visit the government hospitals for their treatment. The health status and utilization pattern of scheduled castes give an indication of their social exclusion as well as an idea of their linkages between poverty and health. The main hindrance in the poor health status of scheduled castes is their living environment and non acceptance of community towards professional doctors and their association with strong social networks identified as key determinants for common perception in all communities. However, the inaccessibility and unaffordability to health care and reluctance to seek help for health issues remain a significant problem in scheduled caste areas. No doubt, the medical facilities are just rudimentary. But these people are not even willing themselves to go to hospitals for minor diseases like cold and cough as shown in the results of the present study. Above facts has been supported by the present study that they preferred to visit hospitals only in case of acute and chronic diseases. Finally it can be said that the health status of scheduled castes is very poor as compared to other sections of the population. The author suggested that a combination of inter personal communication and traditional media may be adopted to give health care awareness to the scheduled caste population in Jaipur district, Rajasthan.

SUGGESTIONS

From the above findings, the researcher has given few policy suggestions to safeguard the scheduled castes. The suggestions are as follows:-

1. The scheduled castes are living in miserable conditions with no electricity, no road connectivity and no water supply, so the Government should take initiatives to provide the electricity and drinking water supply facilities for the scheduled castes.
2. The primary health centre is not located in the study region and people spend more money for private health sources, so the Government should provide new health centre near the villages.
3. Proper health education and awareness should be given to the scheduled castes.
4. Finally, the government of India should repeatedly take steps to strengthen preventive health care services in addition to provision of easy treatment for delivery and emergency services.

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“Assessing the linkages of Organizational Commitment and Compensation with Organizational Citizenship Behaviour”.

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Abstract

The paper aims to study the impact of Organizational Commitment on compensation and further corresponding with Organizational citizenship behaviour. Data was collected from a sample of 220 employees from a Government sector organization. This data was further analyzed using correlations and regressions to derive meaningful conclusions. The findings suggest that there are strong, positive, and significant relationships between Organizational Commitment, compensation and Organizational citizenship behaviour.

This research relates to only the governmental Organization. Hence, it is highly recommended that further research can be carried out in other private organizations and areas with a broader view and a longitudinal research design. Some recommendations and suggestions are provided in the end to enhance employee productivity and organizational performance. This research could shed new light on the widely acknowledged phenomena of Organizational Commitment, compensation and Organizational citizenship behaviour spirituality, climate and compensation at work as well as make way for various applications in the working environment.

Keywords Organizational Commitment, Compensation and Organizational citizenship behaviour.

1.0 Introduction

The success of an enterprise is said to hinge on many factors varying from internal to external. Ulrich (1998) espoused that people are becoming a source of competitive advantage for most companies, and that the competitive edge of organizations no longer arises out of their products and services, but of their people. The Organizational Citizenship Behaviors can be defined as a helping behavior aimed at individuals and the organization as a whole (Organ, 1988) which traverses beyond the prescribed job requirements (in-role behaviors) which are not clearly recognized by the formal reward system. Also a great deal of attention has been given to the study of commitment to the organization (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). The extant literature depicts that employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization. Also, from the two non-monetary determinants of employee performance, compensation appears to be a systematic approach to supply monetary values to workers in exchange for work performance. Employees' perceptions in terms of their compensation are regarded as foundation of job performance (Ghazanfar et al., 2011). Generally, there exists a significant relationship between compensation and performance (Herzberg, 1968). The extant

review of literature suggests that there is enough reason to believe that Organizational Commitment influences Compensation and organizational citizenship behaviors.

2.0 Review of Literature:

2.1 Organizational Citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior is a type of discretionary job performance in which employees go beyond prescribed job requirements (in-role behaviors) that are not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and engage in helping behaviors aimed at individuals and the organization as a whole (Organ, 1988). To describe Organizational citizenship behavior, Organ (1988) identified the following five dimensions:

- Altruism, which refers to helping behaviors aimed at specific individuals;
- Conscientiousness, which refers to helping behaviors aimed at the organization as a whole;
- Sportsmanship, which refers to the willingness on the part of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining;
- Courtesy, which refers to actions aimed at the prevention of future problems; and
- Civic virtue, which refers to a behavior of concern for the life of the organization

Research shows that employee behavior (Organizational citizenship behavior) is positively related to affective commitment (as opposed to continuous commitment), employee involvement in work Organizational issues, perceived Organizational support, high quality of leader member exchange, overall evaluations of performance effectiveness, quantity of output, turnover and satisfaction (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998; Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998; Deluga, 1998).

2.2 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment involves people's feelings about the organizations for which they work that is, the degree to which they identify with the organizations that employ them. The study of Organizational commitment helps to understand the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to the organization. According to Allen and Meyer (1990, p.1), Organizational commitment consists of a three-dimensional construct defined as follows:

- The affective component of Organizational commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization.
- The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization.
- Finally, the normative component refers to the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organization.

Literature indicates that highly committed employees are more satisfied with their work, perform at levels beyond expectation, are more motivated and experience higher levels of job involvement (Boyle, 1997; Caldwell, Chatman & O'Reilly, 1990; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). Research suggests that employees experience several different commitments to the goals and values of multiple groups, and that where two individuals may be committed to

'the organization', the focus of the two commitments may be entirely different. Individuals may thus be committed in varying degrees to top management, immediate supervisors, peers, customers, unions, their career, occupation or profession (Boyle, 1997; Reichers, 1985).

Hypothesis: There is a significant and positive relationship between Organizational Commitment and OCB

2.3 Compensation

Off late there is increased awareness about compensation among researchers. Compensation is "all forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship" (Milkovich & Newman, 2002). In addition, according to Christofferson & King (2006), compensation could be defined as "a pay provided by an employer to an employee for services rendered (i.e. Time, effort and skill)." Numerous researchers and practitioners have figured out the significance of compensation in improving employees' performance. Similarly, Huselid (1995) noted that one standard deviation increase in employee performance is equivalent to approximately forty percent of an employee's compensation. Undoubtedly, an effective compensation system could fortify staffs to work harder with a view to enhancing productivity and job performance (Lai, 2011). Once employees are satisfied with a good compensation offered, their motivation is on an upsurge at a higher degree, followed by a betterment of their work performance. Generally, there exists a significant Relationship between compensation and performance (Herzberg, 1968). Therefore:

Hypothesis: There is a significant and positive relationship between Compensation and OCB.

3.0 Research Methodology

Based on the review of the literature of the identified variables a structured non disguised questionnaire consisting of 27 questions was designed based on a 5-point Likert scale (1 =strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). The first 6 questions were related to demographic details of respondents, and the next 21 questions addressed Organizational Commitment, Organizational Citizenship behaviour and Compensation.

A public sector insurance company was selected for data collection. The total sample size was 220 which consisted of managers of all branches. The respondents from different managerial and officer level positions, administrative staff, accountants, development managers etc from different branches were selected for data collection.

In total, 250 questionnaires were distributed. Of which 30 questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete nature, resulting in 220 totally filled questionnaires that were used for the statistical analysis of the study. Collected data was subjected to correlation and simple linear regression analysis by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Cronbach's alpha test was conducted to check the reliability of the questionnaire.

The total alpha coefficient of the questionnaire was 0.79 ($p < .001$) and alpha coefficients for all items were ≤ 0.70 ($p < .001$), which are in the acceptable range (≤ 0.70) suggested by Nunnally (1978). The internal consistency of the items was also calculated. A careful examination of item-total correlations showed that all correlations ranged from 0.33–0.78, which are above the 0.32 level suggested by Saxe and Weitz (1982).

4.0 Results

Demographic analysis showed that both male and female were almost equally distributed (59.1% male and 40.9% female). More than 70% of the respondents were between the ages of 51 years and above. Of the respondents, 35.5% had undergraduate degrees and 52.7% of the respondents were postgraduate. The composite score for all the three variables of organizational commitment, compensation and Organizational citizenship behaviour was calculated by averaging representing items on the questionnaire. First, correlation analyses were used to examine the relationship between all the three research variables. The results suggested that all the variables are positively correlated, and correlations were significant and equal to $+0.74$ $p < .001$, two-tailed.

Toward testing the hypothesis and finding whether organizational commitment (independent factor) is the predictor of OCB (dependent variable), a simple linear regression analysis was conducted. Regression analysis was first confirmed by testing the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals, revealing that the residuals are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). According to an F-value of 6.321, with significance of $< .05$ of the regression test, it can be said that the model has a good fit for the data. Both results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between organizational commitment, hence the proposed hypothesis is accepted.

And towards testing the hypothesis and finding whether compensation (independent factor) is the predictor of OCB (dependent variable), a simple linear regression analysis was conducted. Regression analysis was first confirmed by testing the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals, revealing that the residuals are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). According to an F-value of 19.045, with significance of $< .01$ of the regression test, it can be said that the model has a good fit for the data. Both results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between compensation and Organizational Citizenship Behavior, hence the proposed hypothesis is accepted.

5.0 Discussions

The current study tried to investigate the combined effect of organizational commitment on OCB and Compensation on OCB in the context of the insurance industry. The correlation and regression analysis demonstrated that organizational commitment and compensation has a positive and significant impact on OCB in governmental Insurance sector. The results revealed that in order to achieve the desired OCB outcomes general managers need to involve employees from different levels to set up cross-functional teams. Teamwork should be fostered in the organization to create a

work culture that values collaborations and brings about Organizational commitment. All employees should be involved and engaged in the work processes based on two-way commitment and communication, which not only enhances achieving OCB goals but also contributes to organizational and individual performance, productivity, and well-being. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour needs change in attitudes and processes, hence adaptive and responsive attitudes towards change are required; this needs to be done by focusing on individuals' emotions and personality traits. There needs to be effective communication about organizational initiatives by sharing information. This helps to establish clear expectations for employees, enhancing their involvement and leading to new ideas and innovation. A learning orientation and knowledge management approach should also be applied, and can serve as a manager's framework for improving the organization's learning potential. By guiding managerial intervention into the organization's knowledge base, knowledge management serves as a management tool and one of the most critical resources for OCB. A defined set of mission and visions and high degree of innovation are also critical for successful OCB outcomes.

6.0 Limitations

Although organizational commitment is one of the crucial factors for Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, there are other organizational factors that should also be considered. This research is conducted in the context of the insurance industry, and the result might be different for other industries. Due to the limitation in access to all employees, only managers and officers were selected as the sample of the study. Future studies with all staff may show different results.

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INDIAN CUISINES AS A FACE OF CULTURE

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ABSTRACT

Delicious, healthy, tasty Indian cuisines reflect an 8000-year history of various groups and cultures interacting with the subcontinent, leading to diversity of flavors and regional cuisines found in modern India. Indian cuisine contains a wide variety of traditional and regional cuisines which are indigenous to India. With the range of divergence in local culture, geographical location, climate, soil type, etc. these cuisines vary significantly from each other and use locally available spices, herbs, vegetables, etc. The huge variety of Indian food is also heavily influenced by religious and cultural choices and traditions. In the world's most religious country every festival has its own importance and with the unique significance there is a special dish linked with the festival and the cuisine also plays an important role in the festival and complete the festival. In the world's biggest democracy there are 29 states and every state have its own festivals and cuisines which shows the belief and culture of that particular region.

INTRODUCTION

India is the country of Diversity with different climate, geographical location, religion, culture, color, beliefs, festivals, dishes, etc. this is the only country in the universe in which all the dishes of all the countries are available. The staple foods of Indian cuisine include Rice, Wheat, variety of lentils, especially masoor, toor, etc. and these lentils may be used whole, or split. Indian cuisine either sweet or spicy, veg. or non-veg. contains feel of love. India is the largest producer of spices in the world. Many Indian dishes of different regions are cooked in different oils. No Indian dish is complete without spices. Each religion loves to use their own specific spices in its dishes. The traditional food of India has been widely appreciated for its fabulous use of herbs and spices. India's religious beliefs and culture have played an important role in the evolution of Indian cuisines. An Indian cuisine is a well-balanced combination all six tastes like sweet, sour, salty, spicy, bitter and astringent.

Indian food and Festivals

festival is tend to be complete only when the special food associated with the festival is cooked on the day of festival or special occasions. Some of their examples are:

Baisakhi :Pindi Chana, Tilkeladoo

ChhataPuja :Thekua, Rice Kheer, Malpua, Balushahi

Christmas : Potato chip cookies, Simnel cake, Christmas fudge, Christmas cakes

Dusherra :Motichurladoo, Seviyakheer, groundnut halwa, chicken curry, chicken Biryani

Diwali :Doodhpak, Kesakaju barfi, Gajar ka halwa, Ghathia, Dry fruit Kheer,

Holi: Kesarchawal, Bengal gram dal toffee, Malpua, Chicken curry

ID-UL-ZUHA :Nawabi Biryani, Seviyan, Shahi mutton korma, chicken Jalfrezi

Janmashtami :Singharekipuri, golden yogurt, Gopalkala

Karwachauth : tamarind sauce, Methikipuri, Ragda patties, Batatyachi kachori

Lohari : Atta ladoo, Coconut chikki, Puffed rice laddo, Pinnie,

Onam :Riceputtu, Mor kuzhambu, Paladapradhaman

Pongal :Rawapongal, Puli pongal, Kharepongol

Rakshabandhan : Banana cutlets, Khoya barfi, Acorn squash stuffed with curried meat

Ramadan :Nawabi Biryani, Shahi mutton korma, Condensed milk curls, Haleem

Sankranthi :Tilpapdi, Payesh, Dum aaloo, Dahichura, Yellow rice

The cuisines not vary only with the festivals but also with the geographical regions. Like the daily course dishes of North India is totally different from South Indian cuisines, and the food of Eastern part of India is totally different from the food of Western India. Not only the food differs from region to region but also the oil in which food is cooked differs like peanut oil is used in Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra region, Mustard oil is used in north and northeastern parts of India, Coconut oil is used in the western coasts, especially in Kerala, and the gingerly oil is commonly used in the Southern parts of India.

The Indian cuisine has been shaped by Hindu and Jain beliefs, particularly in vegetarianism which is common diet trend in the Indian Society. The traditional food of India is not popular only in India but it is also preferred and loved in the foreign countries by the foreigners. The person of India resides in foreign countries also prefer to eat their native food there and also cook the cuisines famous on any special occasions.

In the study Sonker, R. (2012) says that there should be perfect harmony and coordination between the décor of the restaurant and the sitting arrangements. There should be simple cooking with good quality ingredients will help to maintain the reputation for long time. The restaurant should be well trained to serve quality food to their consumers. Restaurant should focus on pricing strategy so that people should not find the food is expensive and the can enjoy the food. In the paper Josiam, B. M. et al (2007) talks about the Indian food and the perceptions of Indian Restaurants in Malaysia. Malaysia is a South Asian country; Indian restaurants in Malaysia are serving a diverse clientele with different ethnic market segments. The ethnic groups are interested in high quality food and service. The Indian restaurants needs to improve hygiene practices, restaurant ambience, appoint trained staff, control food quality, set reasonable prices, serve larger portions for the same prices to compete in the market and also took the advantage of popularity of Indian Cuisines in the foreign country. They can easily attract the Indian people because they love their native food and the materials to prepare their native food are not available easily in the foreign countries.

In this research paper Jain, A., K N, R. and Bagler, G. (2015) says that India is the home to a no of regional cuisines. Spice and diary is an important ingredient responsible for good and bad pattern of food pairing. It also indicates that each regional cuisine follows negative food pairing pattern. It also says that while individual spices contribute to negative food pairing, on the other hand dairy products contribute to positive food pairing.

In this paper Madhvapaty, H., Dasgupta, A. (2015) says that there are many differences between all consumers eating habits. Indian consumer is still not impacted by the obesity like some other developed countries. FSSAI (Food Safety and Standards Authority of India) guidelines need to strengthen to ensure that customer awareness should increase and food companies should opt for transparency they should transparent to their consumers.

Appadurai, A. (1988) says the emergence of a national cuisine in contemporary India suggests a pro-cessual model that needs to be tested comparatively in other postcolonial situations in the contemporary world. The critical features of this model are the twin processes of regional and ethnic specialization, on the one hand, and the development of overarching, crosscutting national cuisines on the other.

Nandy, A. (2003) in his article he says that this culture of food is paradoxically becoming more autonomous of the cultures from which the cuisines come and the civilizations or lifestyles they represent. And that is the way things should go, most people seem to believe. Ethnic cuisine is expected to survive the demands of culture and, as the contemporary world pushes more and more cultures into extinction, talking incessantly of multiculturalism and democratic tolerance, ethnic cuisine becomes more and more like a museum or a stage on which a culture writes its name or signs an attendance register for the sake of appeasing our moral conscience and declaring its survival.

Famous Indian Cuisines

In our country there are 29 states and the ways of eating food and celebrating festivals differs region to region. In India no. of festivals were celebrated and we know that every festival of India is tend to be complete only when some special cuisine will be cooked for that occasion, like Holi cannot be complete without Gujhiya and Maalpua and Eid cannot be complete without Sewai. Each state of India has its own special and famous cuisine, which is not famous only in that particular region or only in India but also in foreign countries.

(millet bread) and Lashunki chutney (hot garlic paste), MawaKachodi from Jodhpur, Malpua from pushkar and Rassgollas from Bikaner, "paniya" and "gheriya" from Mewar. More than 70% of Rajasthan is vegetarian, which makes it the most vegetarian state in India.

Bengali cuisine: - Bengalis are one of the greatest food lovers in India. In Bengal no food is complete without fish. They love fish so much as fish is an important part of meal. There are variety of fish is available like perch, mullet, crab, prawn, crayfish, lobster all are loved by Bengali. The seasonal fish is hilsa that is price above all. For Bengali staple food is rice. In Bengal coconut and its oil is also available, pure gold mustard oil is used for making food. The most important part in Bengal is that they eat all dishes separate whether the dish is five or six. Bengali cuisine is known for its subtle.

Kerala cuisine: - Kerala cuisine offers a combination of both vegetarian and non-vegetarian dishes non vegetarian dishes are prepared using fish, poultry and red meat with rice. Chillies, curry leaves, mustard seeds, turmeric tamarind and asafetida are all frequently used. Kerala is known as the "Land of Spices" because Kerala trades spices with Europe. As coconuts grow in large amount in Kerala so it is used widely in all dishes. The staple food of Kerala is rice and cassava and all the dishes are served with these both and along with main dish for lunch and dinner is Kootan. The boiled rice. All the dishes which are served that are made from rice flour, or fresh or dried cassava.

Maharashtrian cuisine: - Like most of the coastal states of India Marathi food also uses lots fish and coconut. There are no large no of vegetables in their regular diet. Peanut and Cashew nut are widely used in vegetables. Peanut oil is the main cooking medium. Ratnagiri a district of Maharashtra, is known for producing best mango in the entire world. Called the Apus or Aiphonso. The Maharashtrian meal is basically eaten in large metal plate. Maharashtrian cuisine covers a range from mild to very spicy dishes. The majority of Maharashtrian do eat meat, fish and eggs. Some distinctly maharashtrian dishes includes ukdichemodak, Aluchipatal bhaji, and Thalipeeth.

Goan cuisine: - Goan cuisine is a mixture of Christians, Hindus and Portugese cuisine, Goan is mainly non-vegetarian. Goans mostly prefer rice instead of wheat. They use coconut milk in access due to abundance of coconut. Coconut is an important ingredient of Goan cuisine the meat which is mostly preferred are PORK and Chickens. The important thing is that they use lot of small red

chilies which makes the dish spicy. Some of the most famous Goan sweets are Bibinica and DodBibinioca. The staple foods are rice and fish.

Hyderabadi cuisine and Andhra: - In this region most of the people are Hindu and Muslims. The Hyderabadi cuisines basically are the use of tamarind as a souring agent. The Andhra food is very spicy because of abundant of chilies in this state. Andhra meal is served on a clean banana leaf or a stainless steel plate. The people used to sit on the floor to eat. The main course should have included rice, dal, and vegetables like yam, ladyfinger, brinjal and bitter guard. The last course of Andhra meal should contain thick curd without this whole dish is incomplete. And in summer season buttermilk or Majjga is taken for refreshing.

Guajarati cuisine: - Gujarat is a land of all the religions like Jainism, Islam, Buddhism, Parsees. Population of Gujarat are mainly vegetarian due to the influence of Jainism and Buddhism except Islam and Parsees many communities eat seafood, chicken and goat in their diet. Kathiawari and Kutch food are very famous for their spicyness. In everyday meal Gujratis offer dal-bhat-rotli-saak.

Bihari cuisine: - Bihari cuisine is mainly eaten in Bihar, Jharkhand, Eastern U.P, Bangladesh, Nepal, Mauritius, South Africa, Fiji and some cities of Pakistan are the place where Bihari peoples are living. Bihari cuisine are mostly vegetarian because of traditional Bihar society which is influenced by Buddhist and Hindu values of non-violence but there is also a tradition of eating chicken, fish due to numbers of rivers in Bihar Dairy products are consumed frequently including yogurt, buttermilk. Some famous dishes of Bihar are Bihari Kebab, Bihari Boti, Bihari Chicken masala, Sattu paratha, Litti-Chokha, Pittha.

Odisha cousin: - As compared to other states cuisine Odisha uses less oil and less spicy food but the food is flavourable. Rice is the staple food of Odisha. Mustard oil is mostly use in several dishes to cook but ghee is preferred in temples. The ingredient which is used in Odisha is plantains, jackfruit, and papaya. The curries are garnished by dried raw mango (ambula) and tamarind. Coconut is used in several dishes. Some famous dishes of Odisha are Pakhala, Palau, Dalma, Santula, Chaatu rai, Besara.

Conclusion

The study concluded that India is the country of unity in diversity and the diversity is not only in the religion, caste, color but also in the delicious cuisines. The cuisines reflects the culture of Indian people and the reason of diversity in food is not only the culture and region but also the availability of spices, staple foods, vegetables, fruits, etc. in the different areas of the country. Indian Cuisines varies region to region. Every state has a different way of eating and preparing food like in eastern parts food is cooked in mustard oil, in southern parts of India food is prepared in coconut oil. These cuisines are not popular only in India but also in foreign countries. The food reflect the culture of India because we know every festival of India is tending to complete only when some special dishes are prepared for the festival or particular occasion, like when we talk about Eid, our mouth fill with water because with Eid we quickly remember unity and Sewai, same as Sewai when we talk about Holi we quickly remember colors and Gujhiya. The cuisine of Indian society shows the ways of different people of different region. It is the only country in which every dish of every country can be available.

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आचार्य वद्यासागरसाहित्ये व्यक्तित्वनिरूपणम्

डॉ. सोमनाथ साहू

सहाकाचार्यः, शिक्षाशास्त्र विभागः

राष्ट्रीयसंस्कृतसंस्थानम्, भोपालपरिसरः, भोपालम्

आचार्य वद्यासागरमहोदयः वंशतिशताब्द्याः महाकवयः वर्तन्ते। ते स्वस्य युगस्य प्रतिनिधित्वं कुर्वन्तः वर्तन्ते। एतेषां रचितकाव्येषु आधुनिकजीवनस्योपलब्धीनां समावेशः वर्तते। अध्यात्मस्य रसास्वादनां कारयति। एतेषां भावात्मकं अनुभूतयः पाठकानां वचनदृष्ट्या महत्त्वमपि वर्तते। कवयः सात्त्विकजीवनस्य भावान् जीवनस्य अङ्गं मन्यते। येन तेषां प्रयोजनं स्वतः सद्भवं भवति। ते यत् प्रयोजनं स्वीकुर्वन्ति तस्मिन् सामाजिकपरिवेशस्य अधकं महत्त्वं प्रदत्तम्। अतएव ते स्वस्य काव्येषु सामाजिक चित्रणं शैक्षणिकवातावरणं राजनैतिकपरिस्थितयः एवं धर्मदर्शनस्य क्षेत्रमाधाररूपेण स्वीकुर्वन्ति। अतएव ते स्वकाव्येषु मानवीयसंस्काराणाम् उपरि अधकं बलं प्रदत्तवन्तः। तेषां महत्त्वपूर्णमहाकाव्येषु "मूकमाटी" इत्यस्य स्थानं सर्वोपरि वर्तते। हिन्दीजगति महाकाव्येषु 'रामचरितमानसः' साकेत तथा कामायनी इत्यादयः ग्रन्थाः यत् स्थानं प्राप्तवन्तः तत् स्थानमनेन प्राप्तम्।

वद्यासागराचार्येण वर्तमानयुगे वशवसाहित्यस्य कृते एता दृशी एका एव रचना प्रदत्ता। यस्मिन् प्रकृतेः सम्पूर्णपरिवेशः समागतः। ते उपप्रकृतिम् उषत्वा प्रकृतेः रक्षणं ईच्छन्ति। अतएव तेषां प्रतीकः चेतनः चेतनयोः उभयोः प्रकारयोः वर्तते। ते अचेतनमूकमाटीमाध्यमेन एता दृशम् एकमुद्घोषं समाजसंरचनार्थं दातुं इच्छन्ति। येन प्रकृतेः तथा समाजस्य च वातावरणं सुरक्षितं भवेत्। महाकाव्यस्य मानदण्डेषु मूकमाटी शल्प - वधानभाषा-शैली एवं च संवेदनात्मक चित्रणस्य कारणेन अभनवं रूपं प्राप्तम्। एतेषाम् महदुद्देश्यं कथावस्तु चरित्र - चित्रणं, शल्पाभिव्यञ्जना, शब्द-सौन्दर्यस्य प्रतीकं वधानम् अलङ्कारयोजन - छन्द-भाषा इत्यादयः अपि अद्यतन-हिन्दीकवतायाः अनुपमः धरोहरः वर्तते।

वर्षक-अञ्ज धातोः भावे क्तिन् प्रत्यये व्यक्तरिति पदं व्युत्पद्यते। तस्य भावस्त्वतलौ इति सूत्रेण व्यक्तेः भावः इत्यर्थे त्वप्रत्यये व्यक्तित्वम् इति भवति। तच्च व्यक्तित्वं व्यक्तेः असाधारणधर्मं द्योतयति, व्यक्तित्वशब्दः सर्वस्यापि तस्य बोधको भवति यत्किंचिद्व्यक्तौ वद्यते

तस्य मनः शरीरम्, स्वभावः चरित्रम्, अन्यैश्च व्यवहारशैली, मनुष्यस्य संवेदनाः मूलप्रवृत्तयः, प्रत्यभज्ञानम्, संवेगाः, कल्पनाः, स्मृतिः, शक्तिः, बुद्धिः, ववेकोऽन्यत्र सर्वं तत्सम्बन्धितस्य व्यक्तित्वे समावृष्टं भवति। एतस्य सर्वस्य समग्रतैव नाम व्यक्तित्वम् इति।

व्यक्तित्वम् एकम् उद्दीपकमस्ति। केषां च मनोवैज्ञानिकानाम् इयं धारणा अस्ति यत् व्यक्तित्वं सामाजिकम् उद्दीपकं मूल्याधृतं च वर्तते। आल्पोर्टमहादयो भ्रमं वस्तुतलक्षणं तावत् - मानवगताः केचन शारीरमानसधर्माः अभ्याससंवेगादयः प्रकृतिवशेषाः परिवेषानुगुणं मानवेन कर्तव्यम् असाधारणं सामंजस्यं निश्चिन्वन्ति। एषां धर्माणां येन क्रियाशीलैकसूत्रत्वमापाद्यते तस्य व्यक्तित्वमिति संज्ञा। मनोवज्ञानिभ्यः निर्दिष्टाः केचन प्रकृतिवशेषाः प्रदृश्यन्ते। यथा - स्थिरचतुष्टयम्, उत्साहः, मृदुस्वभावः, कारुण्यम्, उत्तरदायित्वम्, साहसम्, अतिमात्रभाववशङ्गतत्वं, मैत्री, धैर्यं, दास्यबुद्धिः, अधिकारप्रयत्नं, वषादशीलत्वम्, कठिनचतुष्टयं, पृथग्वर्तित्वं, कल्पनालोकसंचरित्वं, संशयशीलत्वमत्यादयः। एते एव वषयभेदेन, मात्राभेदेन च अभिवृत्तयः इति, प्रकृतिवशेषाः इति च व्यपदिश्यन्ते। अष्टादशसहस्रसंख्याका () : १८००० (प्रकृतिवशेषाः वक्तुं शक्या इति आल्पोर्टमहाशयः अभिप्रैति।

व्यक्तित्वम् इत्येषः तादृशो गहनवषयः यद् वषये अनन्तदृष्टयः भवतु मर्हन्ति। भौतिकवादाधारितं पाश्चात्यमनोवज्ञानं व्यक्तित्वस्वरूपं सुष्ठु नाध्यगच्छत्। इदं व्यक्तित्ववषये उद्भूतान् अनेकान् प्रश्नान् समाधातुम् अक्षममेव। यथा -

1. प्रत्येकमप्यव्यक्तिः वयक्त्यन्तरात् कथं भिद्यते?
2. मानवः स्वीयं वषयं व्यक्तित्वं कथं संरक्षति?
3. मानवव्यक्तित्वविकासस्य अन्तिमरेखा का?
4. मृत्योः परं मानवीयव्यक्तित्वस्य अस्तित्वमस्ति आहोस्विन्न?

पाश्चात्यमनोवज्ञानं मानवस्य मृत्युना सहैव तदीयं व्यक्तित्वमप्यवनश्यति, मृत्युः व्यक्तित्वविकासस्य अन्तिमावधिरिति प्रतिपादयति। अतः एव एतद्वारणानुप्राणतानि सर्वाण्यप्यव्यक्तित्वविकासकेन्द्राणवर्तमानजीवनविकासमेव लक्ष्यकृत्यं प्रवर्तन्ते। एवं तर्हि कं व्यक्तित्वं स्थूलशरीरनिष्ठमेव? नष्टे सति तस्मिन् कं व्यक्तित्वमप्यवनश्यति? - इत्यत्र प्रधानः प्रश्नः। 'आम्' इति पाश्चात्यमनोवज्ञानिनः। नेतीति अस्माद्दार्शनिकाः। मृत्योः परमप्यबुद्धि-चैतन्य-ववेकानन्द-अरवन्दादीनां व्यक्तित्वमधुनाप्यलक्षशः जनान् प्रभावयत्येव। मरणानन्तरं व्यक्तित्वं

वनश्यतीति यदि अङ्गी क्रयेत तर्हि शरीरातिरिक्तं व्यक्तित्व मति कम प नास्तीत्यर्थः।
पाश्चात्यमनो वज्ञानानुसारम् इन्द्रियजन्यं ज्ञानमेव ज्ञानम्। वयं स्थूलशरीरातिरिक्तम् अन्यत्र कम प
द्रष्टुं शक्नुमः। अतः शरीरातिरिक्तं नाम नास्ति कम प इति तदीयः राद्धान्तः।

अत्र अस्मदीया :भारतीयास्तु व्यक्तित्वव्यवहारं सत्त्वरजस्तमोगुणा :प्रभावयन्तीति आमनन्ति।
सात्त्विक-राज सक-ताम सकव्यक्तित्वं भगवता श्रीकृष्णेन चतुर्दशाध्यायस्य पंचमश्लोकादारभ्य
अष्टादशश्लोक-पर्यन्तं सप्तदशाध्यायस्य द्वितीयश्लोकादारभ्य अष्टा वंशतिश्लोकपर्यन्तम्
अष्टादशाध्याये वंशतिश्लोकादारभ्य चत्वारिंशत् श्लोकपर्यन्तम् भव ण्तमस्ति। तदत्र कञ्चित्
उदाह्रियते-

सत्त्वं रजस्तम इति गुणा :प्रकृतिसम्भवाः।

निबध्नन्ति महाबाहो !देहे देहिनमव्ययम्।।'

तत्र सत्त्वं निर्मलत्वात्प्रकाशकमनामयम्।

सुखसङ्गेन बध्नाति ज्ञानसङ्गेन चानद्य।।"

अत्र सत्त्वादीनां मध्ये सत्त्वस्यैव तावल्लक्षणमुच्यते। तत्र निर्मलत्वात्स्फटिकम णरिव
प्रकाशकमनामयं निरुपद्रवं सत्त्वं तन्निबध्नाति कथं सुखस ङ्गेन सुख्यह मति वषयभूतस्य सुखस्य
वषयिण्यात्मनि संश्लेषापादानं मृषैव सुखे सज्जन मति।

राजो रागात्मकं व द्ध तृष्णासङ्गसमुद्भवम्।

तन्निबध्नाति कौन्तेय !कर्मसङ्गेन देहिनम्।।"

रजोगु णनां प्रकृतिः कीदृशी भवति इत्यस्मिन् वषये भगवता श्रीकृष्णे नोक्तम् - कौन्तेय !
रजः कर्मसङ्गेन दृष्टादृष्टार्थेषु सञ्जनं तत्परता कर्मसङ्गत्वेन निबध्नाति देहिनम्।

तमस्त्वज्ञानजं व द्ध मोहनं सर्वदेहिनाम्।

प्रमादालस्यनिद्रा भस्तन्निबध्नाति भारत।।"

तमोगु णनां प्रकृतिः कीदृशी भवति इत्यस्मिन् वषये ते अग्रे कथयन्ति भारत !
अज्ञानजमज्ञानाज्जातमज्ञानजं व द्ध मोहनं मोहकरम ववेककरं सर्वदेहिनां सर्वेषां देहवतां प्रमादालस्य
निद्रा भः प्रमादश्चाऽऽलस्यं च निद्रा च प्रमादालस्य निद्रास्ता भस्तत्तमो निबध्नाति।

सत्त्वगुणम् अर्थात् सात्त्विकानां व्यक्तित्वं सर्वदा अन्येषां व्यक्तित्वात् भद्यते एव।
कुतश्चेत् सात्त्विकवान् सर्वदा ज्ञाने , चेतनावस्थायां, निर्मलमनस्कः भवति। अतः

सात्त्विकलक्षणयुक्तः सुखेन ज्ञानेन च बद्धः भवतीति गीता स्पष्टयति। तदत्र 'सत्त्वं सुखे संजयति' अर्थात् सत्त्वगुणसम्पन्नः मानवः, सदा तत्त्वशास्त्रे, वज्ञानशास्त्रे, ज्ञानरङ्गे वा तल्लीनः भूत्वा तद्वारा आगतेन ज्ञानेन सन्तुष्टः भवतीति निश्चप्रचम्। ईदृशव्यक्तित्वं तथा एव जायते यथा -

रजस्तमश्चा भभूय सत्त्वं भवति भारत।^{vi}

अर्थात् मानवेषु सात्त्विकलक्षणानि यदा अन्यानि रजस्तमोलक्षणानि पराजित्य मानवं सात्त्विकगुणाय प्रभावयन्ति तदा मानवः सात्त्विकः भवति। अर्थात् तदा मानवः सम्पूर्णचेतनावस्थायां भवतीति वक्तुं शक्य मति भावया म।।

सत्त्वं सुखे सञ्जयति रजः कर्म ण भारत।

ज्ञानमावृत्य तु तमः प्रमादे सञ्जयत्युत।^{vii}

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तत्र आचार्य वदयासागरमहोदयस्तु सात्त्विकव्यक्तित्वस्य चन्तनमकरोत् तस्य कृतिषु। आचार्य प्रणीतमूकमाटिमहाकाव्यस्य परिशीलनेन जायते यत् आचार्य :योगध्यानत्यागस्वरूपस्य व्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नमानवस्य, शवस्वरूपत्वेन वर्णनमकुर्वन्। मद्यमानादिव्यसने संश्लष्टान् व्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नमानवान् निन्दन्ति। तद्यथा -
सात्त्विक-तामस-व्यक्तित्वम् -

इस युग के
दो मानव
अपने आप को
खोना चाहते हैं-
एक भोग राग को
मद्य-पान को
चुनता है
और एक
योग-त्याग को

धुनता है।
कुछ ही क्षणों में
दोनों होते
वकल्पों से मुक्त
फर क्या कहना
एक शव के समान निरा पड़ा है,
और एक
शव के समान
खरा उतरा है।^{viii}

एवञ्च पूर्वोक्त पङ्क्त्यनुसारं सात्त्विक-सम्पन्नव्यक्तित्वस्य श्रेयः भवतीति स्पष्टम्। एतदेव पुनरपि प्रतिपादितम्-

उच्च-उच्च ही रहता
नीच नीच ही रहता
ऐसी मेरी धारणा नहीं है
नीच को ऊपर उठाया जा सकता है,
उ चतानु चत सम्पर्क से
सबमें परिवर्तन सम्भव हो।
परन्तु यह ध्यान रहे-
शारीरिक आर्थिक शैक्षणिक आदि
सहयोग मात्र से
नीच बन नहीं सकता उच्च
अस्य कार्यस्य सम्पन्नता सात्त्विकसंस्काराधारिता वर्तते ।
इस कार्य को सम्पन्न होना सात्त्विक संस्कार पर आधारित है।^{ix}

कारुण्यव्यक्तित्वम्

कारुण्य व्यक्तित्व वषये मूकमाटीमहाकाव्ये वर्णनं दृश्यते।

परदुःखे यः दुःखी भवति सैव कारुण्यव्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नः भवति। तादृशः व्यक्ति विशेषः सहृदयः भवति। एवञ्च कारुण्यव्यक्तित्वस्य लक्षणं परदुःखकातरता इत्युक्तम्। तद्यथा-

अरे कंकरो!

तुममे कहीं है वह

जल धारण करने की क्षमता?

जलाशय में रहकर भी

युगों युगों तक

नहीं बन सकते

जलाशय तुम

में तुम्हें

हृदय शून्य तो नहीं कहूँगा

परन्तु

पाषाण-हृदय अवश्य है तुम्हारा,

दूसरों का दुःख-दर्द

देखकर भी

नहीं आ सकता कभी

जिसे पसीना

है ऐसा तुम्हारा

.....सीना।*

सदागतिव्यक्तित्वम्

सदागतिव्यक्तित्वस्य अप वर्णनं श्रमणशतके नामके ग्रन्थे आचार्याः अकुर्वन्। सदागति - व्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नपुरुषः स्वानुभवेन चराचरजगतः सुखशान्तिम वहाय कामरूपाग्निं शमयित्वा घोरपावन -वनारण्ये वचरणं करोति। अर्थात् सः काम-लोभ-मोह-माया-सुख-दुःखादिभिः रहितः भवति। एतादृशस्य वर्णनप्रसङ्गे आचार्याः अवोचन् -

निस्संगः सदागतिः वचरतीव कन्दरेषु सदागतिः।

ततो भवति सदागतिः स्वरसश मतभार सदागतिः।।^{xi}

एतादृशं सदागतिव्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नव्यक्ति - विशेष :निर्वाणस्या धकारी भवतीति आचार्याणां
तदनुयायिनां चामाशयः। परिषहजयशतकेऽपि वर्णितम् -

चञ्चलन्तु शीततमोऽपि सदागतिरमृतभावमुपैतु सदागतिः।

जगति कम्पवती रसदा गति :स्खलति नो वृषतोऽपि सदागतिः।^{xii}

अर्थात् सदागतिव्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नपुरुष :शीतपावनादि भ :रहित :भवति।

सदयव्यक्तित्वम्

सदयव्यक्तित्वसम्पन्नपुरुष :धा र्मक :भवति।

द लतानामुपरि दयाभावं प्रकटयति। सदा सर्वहित - चन्तनं करोति। परोपकारभावनया
संश्लिष्ट :भवति। उक्तं च मूकमाटीमहाकाव्ये-

सदय बनो!

अदय पर दया करो

अभय बनो!

समय पर कया करो अभय की

अमृतमय दृष्टि

सदा-सदा सदाशय दृष्टि

रे जिया, समष्टि जिया करो।^{xiii}

एवं बहवो वचारा :व्यक्तित्वसम्बद्धा :आचार्य वद्यासागरसाहित्ये समुपलभ्यन्ते। तत :
कञ्चिदेव साररूपेण अत्र प्रतिपादितं वर्तते।

सन्दर्भग्रन्थाः

ⁱश्रीमद्भगवद्गीता

ⁱⁱश्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.6

ⁱⁱⁱश्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.7

^{iv}श्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.8

^vश्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.9

^{vi}श्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.10

^{vii}श्रीमद्भगवद्गीता 14.9

^{viii}आचार्य श्री वद्यासागर - :मूकमाटी)महाकाव्यम् (पृष्ठ-286

ⁱपाओलो फ्रेरे :उत्पी.डर्तो का शक्षाशास्त्र, पृष्ठ -357

^{*}मूकमाटी पृष्ठ -49-50

^{xi}श्रमणशतकम् -38

^{xii}परिषहजयशतकम् -15

^{xiii}मूकमाटी पृष्ठ-149

टाटा आयरन एण्ड स्टील कम्पनी लि० में वित्तीय विवरण की संरचना

डा० राजेश कुमार

प्रवक्ता वाणिज्य संकाय

धर्म समाज महाविद्यालय,

अलीगढ़ (उ०प्र०)

सारांश :-

व्यापार तथा उद्योग किसी भी राष्ट्र की प्रगति एवं उन्नति के मापक यन्त्र कहे जाते हैं। विज्ञान के साथ साथ प्रतिदिन औद्योगिक क्षेत्र में भी उन्नति होती रही है जिसका प्रत्यक्ष उदाहरण अमेरिका राष्ट्र है जिसे अमीर राष्ट्र कहलाने का गौरव औद्योगिक उन्नति के कारण ही प्राप्त हुआ है।

वह समय बीत गया जब वार्षिक रिपोर्ट पत्रक के रूप में बहुत ही सूक्ष्म विवरणों के साथ प्रस्तुत की जाती थी। जैसे – जैसे व्यवसाय क्षेत्र में उन्नति होती गयी वैसे-वैसे वार्षिक प्रतिवेदन में वित्तीय विवरणों तथा विभिन्न परिणामों की व्याख्या सम्मिलित की जाने लगी। सामान्यतः वार्षिक प्रतिवेदन के रंगीन आवरण के भीतर वित्तीय सांख्यिकी, वित्तीय अतीत पर दृष्टिकोण प्रविवरण के सजीव चित्रण, कम्पनी के संचालनों की वास्तविक स्थिति, अंकेक्षक का प्रतिवेदन तथा अध्यक्षीय भाषण को चित्रमय प्रदर्शन द्वारा प्रस्तुत किया जाने लगा है।

परिचय :-

वर्तमान युग लोहा एवं इस्पात का युग है। आधुनिक सभ्यता पूर्ण रूप से लोहा एवं इस्पात पर निर्भर है। लोहा एवं इस्पात उद्योग वह नींव का पत्थर है जिस पर औद्योगिक ढाँचा खड़ा हुआ है और विश्व के सभी देशों का विकास भी इसी पर निर्भर है। कृषि एवं उद्योग का विकास भी लोहे पर निर्भर है क्योंकि इनके सभी यन्त्र मशीन एवं उपकरण लोहे के द्वारा ही बनते हैं।

बौद्ध काल और उसके पश्चात् शल्य संयन्त्र लोहे के ही बनाये जाते थे पण्डित नेहरू के अनुसार “इस्पात निर्माण की जानकारी भारत में अत्यन्त प्राचीन काल से थी और विशेष रूप से युद्ध की दृष्टि से विदेशों में भारतीय इस्पात की बहुत माँग थी।”¹

गुप्तकाल में लोग लौह उत्पादन के निर्माण में बहुत योग्य थे। इसका ज्वलन्त उदाहरण महरौली का लौह स्तम्भ है जो दिल्ली में कुतुब मीनार के पास स्थित है।

मुगल काल में भी लौह उद्योग का अपना एक विशेष अस्तित्व एवं महत्व था। अरब देशों का इदिसी जो भारत में ग्यारवीं शताब्दी में भ्रमण करने आया था ने यह कहा था कि हिन्दू लौह उत्पादन में अत्यन्त प्रवीण हैं। उनके कारखानों में विश्व विख्यात तलवार बनायी जाती हैं और भारतीय इस्पात से बनी तलवारों का मुकाबला विश्व में कोई नहीं कर सकता।”²

ट्रेवर नियर्स नामक फ्रांसीसी व्यापारी, जिसने सत्रहवीं शताब्दी में भारत का भ्रमण किया, का कहना था कि गोलकुण्डा राज्य में इस्पात का उत्पादन होता था और वहाँ के व्यापारी बहुत लम्बी तलवारें लिये घूमते थे, उनके यहाँ की बन्दूकों की नाल स्विटजरलैण्ड की बन्दूकों की नाल से कहीं ज्यादा मजबूत थी तथा उनका लोहा हमारे लोहे से अधिक अच्छा तथा शुद्ध था।”³ ऊपर वर्णित तथ्यों से स्पष्ट होता है कि लोहा एवं इस्पात उद्योग भारत का अत्यन्त प्राचीन उद्योग रहा है।

आधुनिक युग के लोहा एवं इस्पात उद्योग का श्री गणेश 19 वीं शताब्दी में हुआ, जिसके कर्णधार मद्रास के राज्याधिकारी श्री जे0एम0 हीथ थे। श्री हीथ ने 1830 में उत्तर अर्काट जिले में पार्टी नोवो स्थान पर इण्डियन स्टील एण्ड आयरन कम्पनी के नाम से इस उद्योग को प्रारम्भ किया और 1853 में पल्लभ पट्टी (सेलम) में एक अन्य दूसरी कम्पनी की स्थापना की गयी। इसके बाद मैके एण्ड कम्पनी तथा कुमायू वक्स की स्थापना क्रमशः 1855 तथा 1862 में की गयी। इसके बाद बंगाल आयरन स्टील कम्पनी लिमिटेड की स्थापना 1875 में कुट्टी (विहार आसन सोल) के निकट हुई। कुछ समय के बाद इस कम्पनी को न्यू बंगाल आयरन स्टील कम्पनी को बेच दिया गया।⁴

भारत में लौह एवं इस्पात के नवीन युग का सूत्रपात स्व0 श्री जे0एन0 टाटा के अथक प्रयासों के साथ प्रारम्भ हुआ। 26 अगस्त 1907 को उनका स्वप्न उस समय साकार हुआ जब टाटा आयरन एण्ड स्टील कम्पनी लिमिटेड का पंजीयन सांची (जिला सिंधभूम, बिहार) में हुआ, जिसे वर्तमान में जमशेदपुर के नाम से जाना जाता है। कम्पनी ने अपना कार्य 232 लाख रुपये की पूँजी से प्रारम्भ किया। 12 अगस्त 2005 से कम्पनी का नाम बदलकर टाटा स्टील लिमिटेड कर दिया गया है।

वित्तीय विवरण की संरचना :-

व्यापार तथा उद्योग किसी भी राष्ट्र की प्रगति एवं उन्नति के मापक यन्त्र कहे जाते हैं। विज्ञान के साथ-साथ प्रतिदिन औद्योगिक क्षेत्र में भी उन्नति होती रही है। जिसका प्रत्यक्ष परिणाम अमेरिकी राष्ट्र है जिसे अमीर राष्ट्र कहलाने का गौरव औद्योगिक उन्नति के कारण ही प्राप्त हुआ है।

वह समय बीत गया जब वार्षिक रिपोर्ट पत्रक अथवा पर्णक के रूप में बहुत सूक्ष्म विवरणों के साथ प्रस्तुत की जाती थी। जैसे-जैसे व्यवसाय क्षेत्र में उन्नति होती गयी वैसे ही वैसे वार्षिक प्रतिवेदन में वित्तीय विवरण तथा विभिन्न परिणामों की व्याख्या सम्मिलित की जाने लगी। सामान्यतः वार्षिक प्रतिवेदन के रंगीन आवरण के भीतर वित्तीय सांख्यिकीय वित्तीय अतीत पर दृष्टिकोण, प्रविवरण के सजीव चित्रण, कम्पनी के संचालनों की वास्तविक स्थिति, अंकेक्षक का प्रतिवेदन तथा अध्यक्षीय भाषण को चित्रमय प्रदर्शन द्वारा प्रस्तुत किया जाने लगा है।

वित्तीय विश्लेषण हेतु वित्तीय विवरणों में मुख्य रूप से दो प्रकार के विवरण सम्मिलित किये जाते हैं – 1. लाभ-हानि खाता, 2. आर्थिक चिट्ठा। इन विवरणों में उपक्रम में हित रखने वाले विभिन्न पक्षों जैसे-अंशधारी, ऋण पत्रधारी, सरकार, राजपत्रधारी एवं प्रबन्ध आदि के लिये आवश्यक तथा महत्वपूर्ण सूचनाओं का समावेश होता है। ये विवरण एक व्यावसायिक प्रतिष्ठान की वित्तीय दशा तथा संचालन के परिणामों को तिथिनुसार सूचित करते हैं। वार्षिक वित्तीय विवरणों में उत्तम दो विवरणों के साथ-साथ "आधिक्य विवरण" अथवा "बचत लाभ विवरण" भी तैयार किया जाता है। इसके अतिरिक्त इन विवरणों के पूरक रूप में विभिन्न प्रकार की अनुसूचियों के साथ-साथ नवीन मशीनों, निर्माण प्रक्रियाओं, उत्पादन की विभिन्न अवस्थाओं, कल्याण कार्यक्रमों, जलपान गृहों आदि के सजीव चित्र को भी प्रस्तुत किया जाता है।

लाभ-हानि खाता :-

"आय सोने का अण्डा है।"⁵ लाभ किसी भी उद्योग या व्यवसाय का मुख्य उद्देश्य होता है। यदि हम उद्योग से लाभ शब्द निकाल दें तो सम्भवतः उद्योग का अस्तित्व ही समाप्त हो जायेगा। अमरीका में लाभ का हिसाब विवरण के रूप में तैयार किया जाता है। इसलिए अमरीका में आय विवरण शब्द का प्रयोग

होता है। लेकिन भारत में इंग्लैण्ड की तरह इसे खाता रूप में बनाया जाता है तथा इसके लिए “लाभ-हानि खाता” शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाता है। व्यवसाय में लाभ होना तो निश्चित है ही किन्तु क्या व्यवसाय में उचित लाभ हो रहा है, या व्यवसाय की लाभार्जन क्षमता कैसी है? ये सभी प्रश्न व्यवसाय में रुचि रखने वालों के समक्ष आते हैं। इन सभी प्रश्नों का उत्तर लाभ-लाभ खाता देता है। यह एक प्रावेगिक प्रलेख होता है, क्योंकि यह एक निश्चित अवधि की घटनाओं का दिग्दर्शन करता है। इसके माध्यम से व्यवसाय का संचालन बुरा हो रहा है या अच्छा, यह बात जानी जा सकती है।

यह लाभ-हानि, आय-व्यय में हुए परिवर्तन जो दो आर्थिक चिट्ठों की तिथियों के बीच वार्षिक अवधि के व्यापार संचालन के परिणामों के कारण है, की एक निष्पादन रिपोर्ट है। यह एक अन्तरिम रिपोर्ट है जो व्यापार संचालन की दिशा और इसके कारणों के बारे में व्यापक दृष्टिकोण प्रस्तुत करती है। यह ग्राहकों को सेवा देने और उत्पादकों को उन तक पहुँचाने के कार्यों में हुई व्यापारिक प्रगति को बताती है, जिसके लिये व्यापार प्रारम्भ किया गया था। “6

हॉवार्ड और अप्टन के अनुसार, “किसी अवधि की क्रियाओं के फलस्वरूप स्वामियों के दावे या समता में परिवर्तनो का समुचित विन्यासित सारांश लाभ-हानि विवरण कहा जाता है।”7

लाभ-हानि खाते के अर्थ का निष्कर्ष यह है कि वास्तव में यह “व्यापार के कार्यशील जीवन की विश्लेषणात्मक तस्वीर है, जो व्यापार के लाभ-हानि, उसके सौभाग्य और दुर्भाग्य की लम्बी अवधि की स्थिति को प्रदर्शित करती है।”8

आर्थिक चिट्ठा :-

फ्रांसिस आर0 स्टीड के अनुसार, “जिस प्रकार लाभ-हानि खाता व्यवसाय की गत्यात्मक प्रक्रिया से सम्बन्धित होता है उसी प्रकार आर्थिक चिट्ठा किसी निश्चित समय पर चालू व्यवसाय की वित्तीय स्थिति का चित्र है।” आर्थिक चिट्ठा के द्वारा यह जाना जाता है कि व्यवसाय किस स्थिति पर खड़ा है या इसकी वर्तमान अवस्था क्या है? यही कारण है कि आर्थिक चिट्ठा को स्थिर प्रलेख कहा जाता है। आर्थिक चिट्ठा व्यवसाय की आर्थिक स्थिति का विवरण किसी एक निश्चित तिथि को प्रस्तुत करता है। चिट्ठे के द्वारा विश्लेषण में रुचि रखने वाले व्यक्ति संस्था की वर्तमान आर्थिक अवस्था के सम्बन्ध में जानकारी प्राप्त कर सकते हैं।

हॉवार्ड और अप्टन के अनुसार , “चिट्ठा एक विवरण पत्र है, जो कि उपक्रम के स्वामित्व युक्त सम्पत्ति मूल्यों और इन सम्पत्तियों के विरुद्ध ऋणदाताओं तथा स्वामियों के दावों को सूचित करता है।

दी अमेरिकन इन्स्टीट्यूट ऑफ सर्टिफाइड एकाउण्टैन्ट्स के अनुसार , “चिट्ठा वास्तविक और रचनात्मक लेखे की किताबों को बन्द करते समय डेबिट एवं क्रेडिट शेषों के सारांश का एक सारणीबद्ध विवरण है जिन्हें लेखांकन के सिद्धांतों के अनुसार रखा जाता है।”

निष्कर्ष :- इस प्रकार हम कह सकते हैं कि वित्तीय विवरण की संरचना (टाटा आयरन एण्ड स्टील कम्पनी लि0 के विशेष संदर्भ में) कम्पनी के लाभ हानि खाता, तथा आर्थिक चिट्ठा का प्रारूप क्वैतिज एवं लम्बत रूप में प्रस्तुत किया गया है ।

सुझाव :-

यह सर्वविदित है कि टाटा आयरन एण्ड स्टील कम्पनी लि० भारतीय लौह उद्योग की रीढ़ है। अतः कम्पनी के पूर्ण विकास हेतु यह आवश्यक है। कि कम्पनी का वित्तीय ढाँचा मजबूत हो, उत्पादन लागत कम हो तथा उत्पादन भी उच्च स्तरीय हो।

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Wife battering Judicial Prospective in Muslim Law

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Abstract: Wife battering is major problem in the all over world. Wife battering of muslim women for protection many law provides. In this paper will be give the overview of the introduction, protection of battered wives, cases decided by Supreme Court and conclusion.

Keywords: *Wife battering, Judicial Prospective.*

Introduction

Wife battering has become one of the major problems across the world. It cuts across lines of races, religion, income and classes of people. It is also deeply embedded in all cultures, so much so that millions of women consider it as a way of life. This piece of work in the form of dissertation seeks to examine the socio-legal perspectives on wife battering in India. In relation to social perspective, it attempts to address the issue of social beliefs of the major races in India, i.e. Shia, Sunnis *Wahabis* and *Deobandies*, on this matter particularly pertaining to the extent of the husband's authority over the wife which is claimed to be one of the contributing factors of wife battering.^{xiii}

Women in the Pre-Islamic era lived in servility and misery. They had no rights whatsoever until the advent of Islam which liberated them and delivered them from the injustice which they had suffered for so long. Islam elevated the status of women and granted them all the rights of which they had hitherto been deprived and granted them the rights accorded to men. It is interesting to note that the rights granted to women by Islam more than fourteen centuries ago are the very same rights granted to women by the United Nations in the 1948 declaration of Human Rights. Islam also proved Eve's innocence of tempting Adam to disobey God's command, and of being the cause of his banishment from paradise. Islam also refuted the myth that Eve was the origin of evil in the world stating that it was Satan who tempted both Adam and Eve. This is stated in the following Quranic verse: "Then did Satan make them slip from the (Garden) and get them out of the state (of felicity) in which they had been."^{xiii}

At a time when the rest of the world, from Greece and Rome to India and China, considered women as no better than children or even slaves, with no rights whatsoever, Islam acknowledged women's equality with men in a great many respects. The Quran states: "And among His signs is this: that He created mates for you from yourselves that you may find rest and peace of mind in them, and He ordained between you love and mercy. Certainly, herein indeed are signs for people who reflect."^{xiii}

Judicial Response

In *Husaini Begam v. Muhammed*^{xiii}, the Muslim law imposes a ceiling on the lust of man by permitting four wives and no more. But a wife can stipulate at the time of marriage that she will have a right to divorce him if he takes another wife. She acquires a right to divorce her husband.

The wrong is a continuing one and is a valid defence against a claim for restitution of conjugal rights.

In *Nasra Begam v. Rizwan Ali*^{xiii}, the Allahabad High Court held that the right to dower comes into existence before cohabitation and Prompt Dower may be demanded even before the cohabitation. Where the wife is minor or insane, her guardian can refuse to allow the husband to take his wife with him till the Prompt Dower has been paid. If the minor wife is already in the custody of her husband, such guardian can take her back on the ground of nonpayment of Prompt Dower. But, where the consummation has taken place even once, the wife's right to refuse consummation is lost. If the marriage has already been consummated, the husband's suit for restitution of conjugal right will not fail on the ground of non-payment of Prompt Dower. However, the court has discretion, even in such a case, to pass a decree for restitution of conjugal rights subject to the condition of payment of Prompt Dower.^{xiii}

In *Mohd. Khah v. Mst. Shahmali*^{xiii}, there was pre-nuptial agreement according to which the defendant agreed to live in the plaintiff's parental house and if he would leave that house, he would pay certain specified sum to the plaintiff in default of which the condition would operate as divorce. It was held that the condition was not unconscionable and opposed to public policy; violation of such term would operate as divorce between the husband and wife.

In *Moonshi Bazul-ul-Raheem v. Lateefutoonissa*^{xiii}, one Lateefutoonissa instituted a case in forma pauperis in the Civil Court of 24 Paraganas against the husband Moonshi Bazul-ul-Raheem for recovery from him of his Dyn-Mahr amounting to Rs. 26,000, which was payable to her in the event of dissolution of her marriage with Moonshi Bazul-ul-Raheem. In her plaint she alleged that the appellant had divorced her and that the two instruments which appellant had divorced her and that the two instruments which appellant had divorced her and that the two instruments which purported her to have waived her right to recover her Dyn-Mahr were obtained by force or fraud and as such were ineffective and did not bar her claim.

In *Danial Latifi v. Union of India*^{xiii}, where the constitutional validity of the Act of 1986 was challenged, and upheld that a Muslim husband is liable to make reasonable and fair provision for the future of the divorced wife obviously includes her maintenance as well even beyond the Iddat period must be made within the Iddat period under Section 3(1)(a) of the Act. It was therefore categorically held that the liability of a Muslim husband to his divorced wife arising under Section 3(1)(a) of the Act to pay maintenance is not confined to the iddat period.^{xiii}

In *Ali v. Sufaira*^{xiii} it was held that under Section 3(1) (a) of the Act of 1986 a divorced woman is not only entitled to maintenance for the period of iddat from her former husband but also to a reasonable and fair provision for her future. In this case a distinction was made between what is a reasonable and fair provision and maintenance which is payable to the divorced woman. The learned Judge concluded that: It is clear that the Muslim who believes in God must give a reasonable amount by way of gift or maintenance to the divorce lady. That gift or maintenance is not limited to the period of iddat, it is for her future livelihood because God wishes to see all well.

In *Indris Ali Khan v. R. Khatun*^{xiii} the question relating to interpretation of Section 7 of the Act. The point for consideration was whether the provisions of the Muslim Women (Protection of Right on Divorce) Act, 1986 shall have application when divorced woman approaches the Court of Magistrate for execution of the lineal order already passed in her favour under Section 125 of the Criminal Procedure Code. The Guwahati High Court had that the legislature was very much concerned not to right-off the maintenance of Muslim divorced wives who had already been granted

maintenance earlier by a competent court under Section 125 and 127 of the Criminal Procedure Code.

In *Syed Fazed P.T. v. Union of India*^{xiii} the Kerala High Court has for the first time, given to Section 4(2) of the Muslim Women (Protection of Rights on Divorce) Act, 1986, by directing the Waqf Board to pay maintenance to divorced Muslim Women. The Court observed that where a divorced woman is unable to maintain herself and she has no relatives as mentioned in Section 4(1) or such relatives or anyone of them have not enough means to pay the maintenance, the Waqf Board established under Section 1 of the Act, 1954 may be asked to pay the maintenance, allowance to such woman. It will not be violative of Article 26 of the Constitution.

In *Tripura Board of Wakf v. Tahera Khatoon*^{xiii}, the Magistrate directed State Wakf Board to pay maintenance to the divorced woman as it was mentioned on the record that her relations do not have enough means to pay maintenance.

In *Mohd. Ahmed Khan v. Shah Bano Begam*^{xiii} pertaining to the liability of a Muslim husband to maintain his divorced wife beyond 'iddat' period, who is not able to maintain herself, the Supreme Court held that Section 125 Cr.P.C. which imposes such obligation on the entire husband is secular in character and is applicable to all religions.^{xiii} The Court speaking through Chief Justice Y.V. Chandrachud held:

"It is also a matter of regret that Article 44 of our Constitution has remained a dead matter there is no evidence of any official activity for framing a common civil code for the country. A belief seems to have gained ground that it is for the Muslim community to take a lead in the matter of reforms of their personal law. A common Civil Code will help the cause of national integration by removing disparate loyalties to laws which have conflicting ideologies. No community is likely to bell the cat by making gratuitous concessions on this issue. It is the State which is charged with the duty of securing a uniform civil code for the citizens of the country and, unquestionably; it has the legislative competence to do so. A counsel in the case whispered, somewhat audibly, that legislative competence is one thing. We understand the difficulties involved in bringing persons of different and on a common platform. But, a beginning has to be made in the Constitution is to have any meaning. Inevitably, the role of the reformer has to be assumed by the Courts because; it is beyond the endurance of sensitive minds to allow injustice to be suffered when it is so palpable. But piecemeal of Courts to bridge that gap between personal laws cannot take the place of a common Civil Code; Justice to all is a far more satisfactory way of dispensing justice from case to case."

The Supreme Court speaking through Chandrachud, the then Chief Justice held that Section 125 Cr.P.C. is applicable also to the Muslim and that even, a Muslim husband also is liable to maintain his divorced wife beyond the iddat period. Because of the controversy, the Parliament has passed the Muslim Women (Protection of Rights on Divorce) Act, 1986 to overrule the Judgment in Shah Bano case. The effect of this Act is that a Muslim husband is not liable to maintain his divorced wife beyond the 'iddat' period, unless both the spouses submit to the court at the appropriate time that they would like to be governed by Cr.P.C.

In *Sarla Mudgal v. Union of India*^{xiii}, a division bench of the Supreme Court consisting of Kuldip Singh and R.M. Sahai, JJ, strongly advocated the introduction of a uniform civil code in India. In this case the Supreme Court held that conversion of a Hindu male to Islam only for the purpose of contracting bigamous marriages circumvents Section 494 of I.P.C. Such marriages have been declared as bigamous and void by the court. The Court after referring to various precedents on the point categorically held that till uniform civil code is achieved for all the Indian Citizens, there

would be an inducement to a Hindu Husband who wants to enter into second marriage while the first marriage is subsisting, to become a Muslim. Here the court was pointing out the injustice done to the first wife, legally wedded.^{xiii}

In *Lily Thomas v. Union of India*^{xiii}, while dealing with the validity of the second marriage contracted by a Hindu husband after his conversion to Islam, the Supreme Court clarified that the court had not issued any directions for the codification of a common civil code and that the judges constituting the different Benches had only expressed their views in the facts and circumstances of those cases. It appears that the apex judiciary in India, which showed great judicial activism initially with regard to uniform civil code, has taken a backward step with this clarification.^{xiii}

Conclusion

Wife battering problem is the all over world. In India, muslim wives battering many laws Domestic violence Act, Criminal procedure Code, Indian Penal Code etc. provides the protection for muslim women, Recently, triple talaq is illegal and unconstitutional by Supreme Court. Indian Parliament passed by law, triple talaq is punishable.

ECONOMICS AND MARKETING OF MILK PRODUCTION IN WESTERN PLAIN

ZONE OF UTTAR PRADESH: AN ANALYSIS

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Abstract

Present study has been conducted on the economic analysis of milk production, there is very little information available on the market surplus and on the offer's responses to the price of milk production. Therefore, in the present investigation an attempt was made to analyze the economic behavior of production, the marketed surplus and the response of milk supply prices in the western plain area of Uttar Pradesh. Uttar Pradesh ranks first in the total production of milk in the country and the western flat area offers an excellent experience to conduct an exhaustive study on the three previous aspects, since there is an adequate infrastructure for the production and marketing of milk. Estimating offer responses will help manufacturers to the maximum prices of the factors they can pay at a particular level of production, while maintaining profit maximization as an objective. With this information, producers can estimate the additional amounts of milk they can supply and, therefore, increase their yields by exercising control over additional resources. This, in turn, will help producers in optimally allocating scarce resources and provide guidelines for making better short- and long-term investments and planning decisions.

1. OVERVIEW

The dairy industry is one of the fastest growing industries in the world. India ranks first in world milk production; its production increased from 17 million tons in 1950-51 to 121.8 million tons for 2010-11 (Economic Survey 2011-12). The demand for milk is expected to reach 181 million tons by 2020 (India Vision 2020), which will be further enhanced by the increase in the middle-class population with high incomes available along with rapidly changing socio-economic and cultural values of health. Milk and dairy products in India are consumed by 77.5% of rural families and 88.7% of urban families, and these foods find an important place in their diet. The average monthly expenditure per capita in milk and dairy products is Rs.60 and Rs.107 respectively in rural and urban areas (NSS 64th round). The changing economic scenario opens up the challenges and underlying opportunities to increase milk production with the help of scientific breeding, feeding and managing the enormous wealth of cattle that India has so that the supply of milk matches the demand effectively. The dairy in India has traditionally been a small business. As the demand for milk and dairy products is increasing rapidly, a change in the production paradigm is quite visible. Milk producers are expanding their milk production capacities and adopting dairy production in commercial lines to take advantage of market opportunities. As a result, many commercial dairy farms have sprung up in the country.

India is the largest milk producer in the world and produces 130 billion liter of milk a year (Ministry of Agriculture, 2014, Rao et al., 2014). Milk and other dairy products account for about two-thirds of the value of the Indian livestock sector and support the livelihoods of nearly half of India's 147 million rural families. Dairy production is concentrated in the irrigated cultivation area, but large quantities of milk are also produced in rain fed areas. Most of the livestock population is made up of native breeds, which have a low milk production of about 2 liter / head / day (Ministry of Agriculture, 2014). Most of the milk comes from buffaloes, which make up one third of the Cow & Buffalo population and produce about 5 liter of milk / head / day (Kumar and Parappurathu, 2014). Diets for livestock are based almost entirely on crop residues and by-products, with the contribution of natural grazing pastures (Rao et al., 2014, Singh et al., 2008). Milk production below the optimal level is due to low daily milk production, short lactations (6-8 months) and long intervals of calving (18-24 months) (Duncan et al., 2013).

The present study attempts to gain insight into the economics of milk production in Uttar Pradesh so as to gauge the potential of dairy farmers for improvement with the specific objective of estimating the resource-use efficiency in respect of the use of principal inputs in the study area. It may guide and encourage the most efficient and economic use of available resources and serves the base for future improvements in dairy practices.

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This research aims at finding of the economics and marketing of milk production in western plain zone of Uttar Pradesh. Along with it, this research has following objectives of study:

1. To study the socio-economic structure of milk producers of different categories of households.
2. To workout and compare the costs and return of milk production of different breeds of under different categories of households
3. To estimate the input-output relationship in milk production in different categories for households.
4. To estimate the marketable and marketed surplus of milk and marketing efficiency of different categories of households.
5. To examine the marketing system and pattern of milk under various marketing channels for different categories of households.
6. To find out the problems of milk producer's household in the milk production and suggest suitable strategies and policy implications.

3. RATIONALE/ JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Meeting food and milk requirements of rapidly increasing population and changing pattern of food items necessities to shifting of cropping system approach into the crops and livestock mixed production systems. The objectives of research should be to improve the productivity of all the component of crops and livestock-based production systems. However, most of the milk production technologies consider production to be tin isolation. Now, most of the milk production technologies developed so fare may not be transferred as such in the changed scenario of milk

production systems in states as well as in the country as new constraints are emerging out beside the existing milk production and marketing constraints. This study of milk production will be helped in quick dissemination and adoption of milk production emerging technologies by the milch animals as well as mid-term correction in production technology suiting to milch animals' holders of different socio-economic status in changed scenario of milk production system.

Thus, keeping in view the importance of milch animals rearing and its main and by-products in agricultural economy of the country, states and as well as in the study area, the present study was undertaken in Western Plain Zone of Uttar Pradesh. The findings of the present study would be a great significance to the policy makers administrators, economist, research workers, bankers and business communities for formulating new strategies and for developing sound programme in future in connection with the production and productivity of milk, milk products, its by-products and breeding policy for livestock development according to changing scenario of world trade, globalization and liberalization of dairying in particular and agriculture in general. The study will also be useful for the smooth and fresh supply of milk and milk products to consumers.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

The data for the study were collected through a well-structured test module and a personal interview method. The data was collected in three seasons: summer (March-June), rain (July-October) and winter (November-February). At the beginning of the study, general information was collected on the inventory of animal demographics and "milk equipment and other related information". The data collected during the three seasons were related to milk production and the amount of feed and feed given to individual animals, the model of labour use, miscellaneous expenses and the amount of milk sold together with the agency and the price made reference, period for the study was from 2010 to 2018.

The methodologies have been adopted for the study may broadly be presented under the following sub-heads:

1. Sampling techniques
2. Method of enquiry and collection of data
3. Period of enquiry and
4. Analytical Tools.

Sampling technique

A multistage stratified random sampling technique have been adopted to select the districts village and households for the present study.

Selection of zone

The Western Plain Zones plays an important role in developing of Uttar Pradesh. Western Zone have been selected purposively for the present study because of higher level adoption of better breeds of milch animals by the farmers and more yield of per milch animal which resulted better socio-economic status of farmers than other zones of Uttar Pradesh. The investigator also has close familiarity in respect of area, people, officials and non-officials and local dialect of the zone which

enabled to carry out the present study more efficiently. The investigator is of the belief that the purpose of present study would be accomplished while selecting this zone of state purposively.

4. PROFILE OF STUDY

In this study we have chosen western zone of Uttar Pradesh. In this section, it is attempted to understand the physical, social, economic (commercial) and political characteristics of this universe of study. The research tries to discuss the background of the study area, with a detailed discussion of the district, covering its geographical setting, physical characteristics, economic profile and social structural aspects such as caste composition, age and nativity of the population.

This would be followed by a profile of the western zone of Uttar Pradesh where this study was carried out, in terms of their demographic and physical infrastructure, social structure, such as caste and religious groups, cultural and political institutions.

Selection of Western Plain Zone of Uttar Pradesh

We have selected western plain zone of Uttar Pradesh for the study of economic of milk production and its marketing. Consider about the Western Uttar Pradesh, is a region in India that comprises the western districts of Uttar Pradesh state, including the areas of Rohilkhand and Braj. The region has some demographic, economic and cultural patterns that are distinct from other parts of Uttar Pradesh, and more closely resemble those of Haryana and Rajasthan states. Western Uttar Pradesh has experienced rapid economic growth, in a fashion similar to Haryana and Punjab, due to the successes of the Green Revolution. A major part of western Uttar Pradesh is a part of National Capital Region of India. Western Uttar Pradesh shares borders with the states of Uttarakhand, Haryana, Delhi, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, as well as a brief international border with Nepal in Pilibhit district. Major cities and towns include Baghpat, Bareilly, Badaun, Agra, Mathura, Moradabad, Amroha, Ghaziabad, Noida, Bulandshahr, Meerut, Hapur, Saharanpur, Aligarh, Hathras, Muzaffarnagar, Rampur, Shahjahanpur, Etah, Firozabad, Mainpuri, Shamli, Bijnor, Farrukhabad, Etawah and Auraiya.

Achievement under the scheme in Uttar Pradesh:

The Year-wise number of Unit benefitted, and subsidy disbursed through NABARD till 31.12.2017 is:

Year	Dairy Units benefitted (Numbers)	Subsidy disbursed (Rs in Lakh)
2010-11	27	12.93
2011-12	1085	646.72
2012-13	1077	684.29
2013-14	1267	782.00
2014-15	567	314.11
2015-16	975	555.51
2016-17	996	588.15

2017-18	3442	1796.15
Total	9436	5379.85

5. STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The study utilized the accompanying factual measures for the examination of the data so as to reach at discoveries. Proportions of descriptive measurements, for example, Mean, Percentage, Frequency and so on. Microsoft Word and Microsoft Excel were utilized to produce diagrams and tables. Descriptive measurements, for example, Mean, Percentage, Frequency and Standard Deviation have been utilized to depict demographic aspects and mental health status variables of the experimental and control groups.

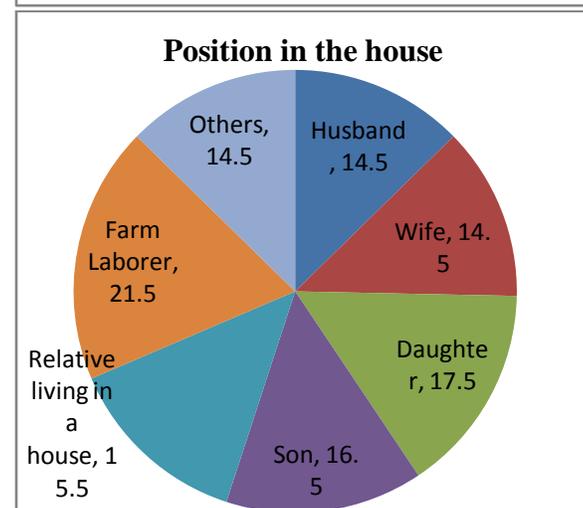
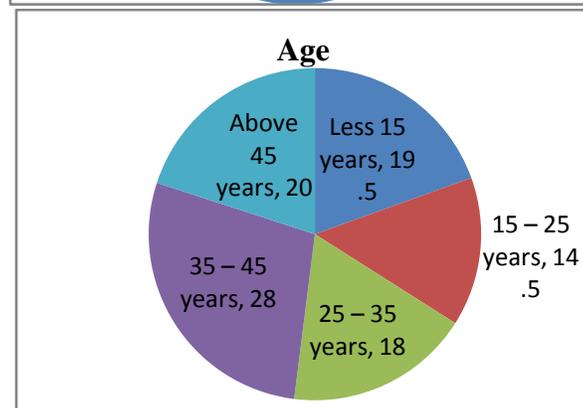
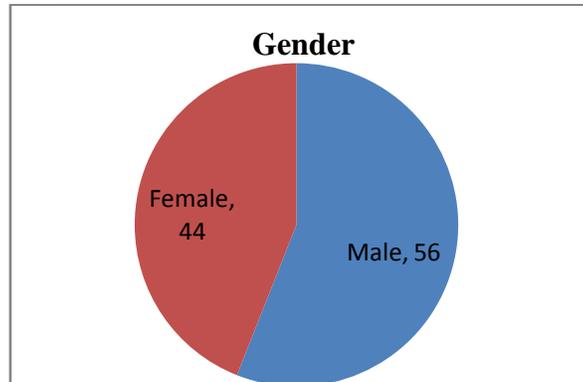
Household Information

Table 1 described the information of gender, age, position in the house and educational qualification of respondents' house hold of diary form. Out of 200 respondents, 56.0% were male and 44.0 % were female. For age group, 19.5% of respondents were less than 15 years, 14.5% of respondents were in between 15 to 25 years, 18.0% of respondents were in between 25 – 35 years, 28.0% of respondents were in between 35 – 45 years and 20.0% of respondents were above 45 years.

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	112	56.0
Female	88	44.0
Age		
Less 15 years	39	19.5
15 – 25 years	29	14.5
25 – 35 years	36	18.0
35 – 45 years	56	28.0
Above 45 years	40	20.0
Position in the house		
Husband	29	14.5
Wife	29	14.5
Daughter	35	17.5
Son	33	16.5
Relative living in a house	31	15.5
Farm Laborer	43	21.5
Others	29	14.5
Educational Qualification		
Primary School	43	21.5

Secondary School	44	22.0
Vocational School	49	24.5
College/University	44	22.0
Others	20	10.0

Table 1:- represent the household information of respondents



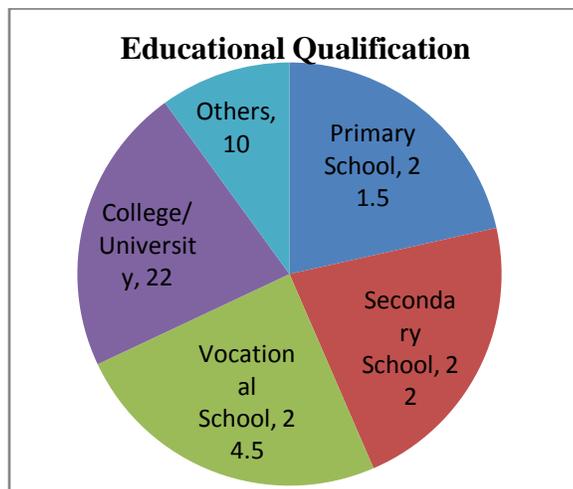


Figure1:- represent the household information of respondents

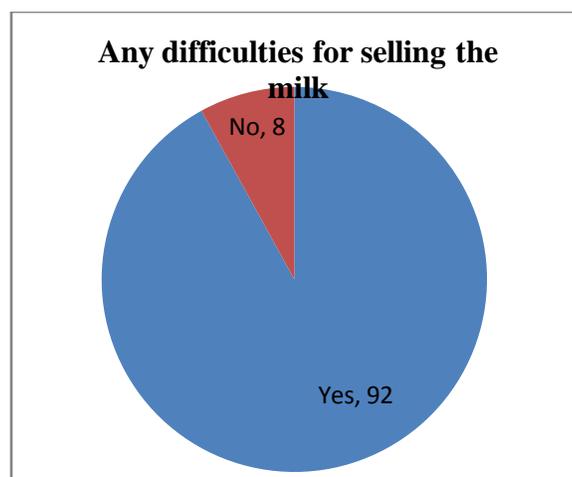
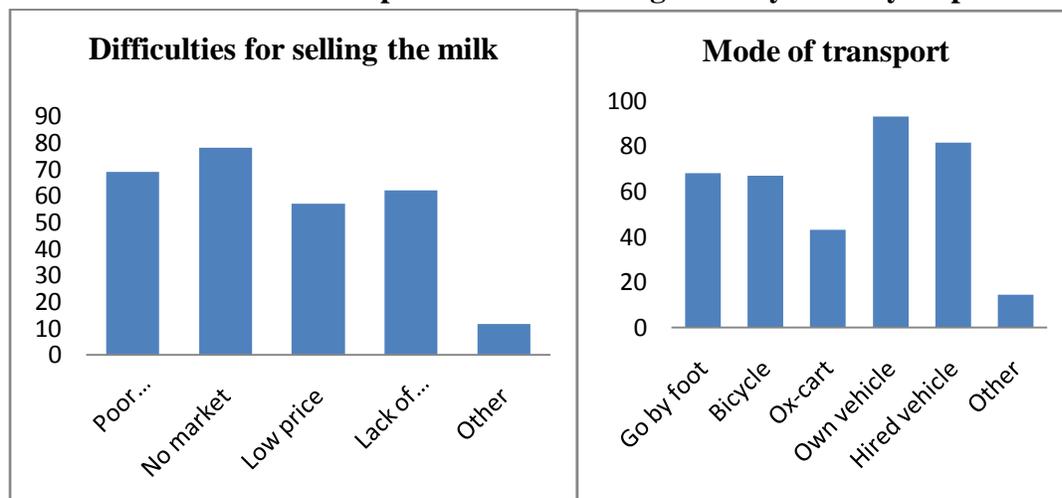
Marketing of Dairy form by respondents

For the marketing of dairy form transportation was need, So out of 200 respondent, 68.0% of respondent were gone by foot for marketing, 67.0% of respondent were using bicycle, 43.0% of respondent were using ox-cart, 93.0% of respondent were using own vehicles and 81.5% of respondent were using hired vehicles. Similarly 92.0% of respondent were agreed with having some difficulties for selling the milk and 8.0% of respondent were not agreed with it.

	Frequency	percent
Mode of transport normally use to get the MILK Bank		
Go by foot	136	68.0
Bicycle	134	67.0
Ox-cart	86	43.0
Own vehicle	186	93.0
Hired vehicle	163	81.5
Other	29	14.5
Have any difficulties for selling the milk		
Yes	184	92.0
No	16	8.0
Difficulties for selling the milk		
Poor quality of milk/sour milk	138	69.0
No market	156	78.0
Low price	114	57.0
Lack of transportation	124	62.0

Other	23	11.5
Have ever delayed in getting paid for milk sold		
Yes	182	91.0
No	18	9.0
Any incentives systems (additional payment) paid to farmer for better milk		
Yes	112	56.0
No	88	44.0

Table 2:- represented Marketing of Dairy form by respondents



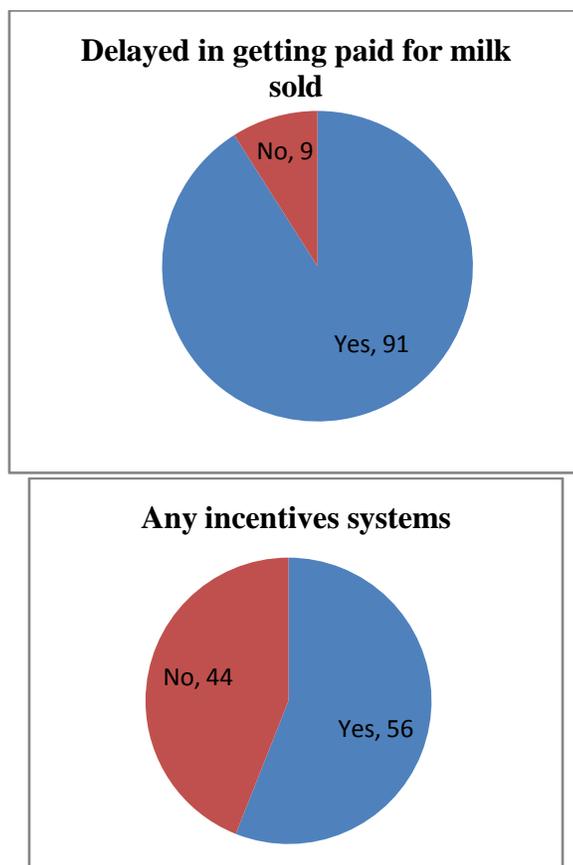


Figure 2:- Marketing of Dairy form by respondents

The Cost incurred during production and marketing of milk over the last 12 months

From the table 4.15, we concluded that we had calculated the average of the cost incurred during production and marketing of milk over the last 12 months. The average cost for processing of milk was Rs 125000, similarly for the cost for using extension and veterinary services for the dairy farm was 112000 and so on.

Items	Total Cost (Rs)
Processing costs	125000
Costs for using extension and veterinary services	112000
Transport costs	72000
Storage cost	85000
Market costs (fees)	19520
Electricity costs (lighting, storage, processing)	98500
Other costs	25000

Now for the encouragement of starting of dairy farming, 24.5% of respondents were encouraged by parents or relatives or friends, 23.5% of respondents were introduced by government or NGO or

Donor, 19.0% of respondents were self-motivated, 18.5% of respondents were inherited and 14.5% of respondents were encouraged by others such advertisement.

6. CHALLENGES & ISSUES IN DAIRY MARKETING IN GLOBAL CONTEXT

Global marketing refers to marketing activities that direct the flow of goods and services to customers or users in more than one country. Globalization is no longer an abstraction, but a harsh reality faced by practically all companies, large and small. Companies that want to survive in the 21st century must face this force that includes all aspects of the business. In a wide range of industries, from cars to food and clothing, companies face the pressures of global competition at home and on international markets. Choosing not to participate in global markets is no longer an option. All companies and industries, regardless of their size, must design strategies in the broader context of global markets to anticipate, respond and adapt to the changing configuration of these markets. Companies that initially enter international markets will be more interested in learning about international markets, selecting an appropriate field to compete and determining how to exploit basic skills in international markets. Once on international markets, companies must build their position in these markets, establishing a strong local presence through the development of new products and adaptation to local tastes and preferences. As the company expands internationally, it should move away from strategies focused on individual countries and improve integration and coordination on national markets, leveraging its skills and competences to develop a leadership position. In different markets, customer needs may vary and the temptation to customize for each market should be mitigated by the need to contain costs through standardization. A true global marketing strategy would aim to uniformly apply some elements of the marketing mix around the world, while others personalize.

7. CONCLUSION

The study concludes that green fodder and concentrates are contributing significantly to milk production in the case of all three types on dairy animals. Effective feeding of green fodder and concentrates will increase milk production in the study area. On the other hand, the contributions of inputs like dry fodder, labour and miscellaneous expenditures to milk production are not statistically significant in the study area. The resource use efficiency of green fodder for all types of dairy animals has been found to be negative and statistically significant, indicating over-utilization of green fodder in the study area. Reduction in green fodder feeding will not affect production adversely. Concentrates are being under-utilized in the case of local cows and being overutilized in the case of buffalo. However, it is being fed optimally in the case of crossbred cows in the study area. It must be underlined that data have been collected in the winter season; it might have a bearing on the findings. In the light of these findings it is suggested that the milk producers must be educated on feeding balanced ration to their animals. It has potential to improve resource-use efficiency of different feed inputs and economic returns from milk production.

In our study data on the context of poverty and malnutrition, milk plays a special role due to its many nutritional benefits, as well as providing additional income to around 70 million farmers in

over 500,000 remote villages. More importantly, farmers earn on average 27.3% of their milk income, with 53% in the case of landless and 19% in the case of large farmers.

The present study related to the production and marketing of milk. But no study has conducted a comparative analysis of cows and buffaloes in terms of the cost and yield of milk production. It is necessary to study the comparative economy of milk production from cows and buffaloes to increase milk production. Therefore, the present study is conducted to analyze and compare the cost and yields of milk production and the limitations faced by the producer and the milk trader in the western plain area of Uttar Pradesh.

The implementation of dairy product development programs and the adoption of better dairy production technologies have increased milk production in India from 17 million tons in 1950-51 to 155.50 million tons in 2015-16 (Livestock Department, Dairy and Fisheries, Government of India). India ranks first in milk production and represents 18.5% of world production (GOI, 2016).

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AN ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRANT LABOUR AND THEIR RIGHTS

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ABSTRACT

“International migration is the movement of people across borders to reside permanently or temporarily in a country other than their country of birth or citizenship “International law, migration and human rights” lays out the foundations for migration governance in international law. Particular attention is given to the principle of the rule of law and core international human rights instruments and labour standards, with special attention devoted to the specific international instruments concerned with the protection of migrant workers and the governance of labour migration. ICRMW was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 18 December 1990. It is the most comprehensive international treaty dealing with the rights of migrant workers and their families, migration regulation and inter-state cooperation on migration, and is one of the core international human rights treaties.”

Keywords: Human Rights, international Migrant labour, Migrant worker,ICRMW, ILO.

1. INTRODUCTION

Migrants are the most entrepreneurial and dynamic member of society; historically migration has underpinned economic growth and nation- building and enriched cultures. Migration also presents significant challenges. Some migrants are exploited and their human rights abuse; integration in destination countries can be difficult; and migration can deprive origin countries of important skills.^{xiii}

Migration is usually loved by the laborers from rural areas to the urban and it may be circular, seasonal or permanent but is always differentiate from nomadism and community. It is not only limited to rural to rural, urban to rural, rural to urban, district to district, state to state but country to country as well. Every year many people including to migrant labour and their families migrate across boards and continents with a dream of reducing the gap between their own position and that of the people in other wealthier places.^{xiii}

International migration has been high on the global agenda in the past few years with increasing emphasis on migration and development linkages. The ILO is happy that the global migration debate has shifted from its earlier narrow focus on asylum seekers, refugees and irregular migration to one of recognition of contribution of migration to growth and prosperity in both source and destination countries, and improved welfare of migrant workers themselves.^{xiii}

2. TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION

Global migration flows is hard to ascertain because not all countries monitor, and fewer still report on, labour migration flows, but there is consensus that the phenomenon is undoubtedly significant and growing. Based on figures for 2017 provided by the United Nations/ Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN/DESA), which are adjusted for the number of refugees, there are 258 million international migrants, 234 million migrants of working age and 164 million migrant workers worldwide. For the purposes of this report, the term “international

migrants” refers to persons who are foreign-born (or foreign citizens when place-of-birth information is not available), while the term “migrants of working age (15 years of age and over)” is a subset of international migrants. The term “migrant worker”, on the other hand, refers to international migrant individuals of working age and older who are either employed or unemployed in their current country of residence. Overall, migrants of working age constitute 4.2 percent of the global population aged 15 and older, while migrant workers constitute 4.7 per cent of all workers.^{xiii}

There has been greater integration of global markets for goods, services and capital across borders, we all know that its impact on the cross border movement of people and labour remains much more restricted, regulated by a complex web of immigration laws and policies that uphold the principle of state sovereignty. Some have described international mobility and migration of persons as the missing link or unfinished business of globalization.^{xiii}

3. INSTRUMENTS ON INTERNATIONAL LABOUR MIGRATION

Benefits of international migration are never one sided. All migrant workers (irrespective of their status) contribute to growth and prosperity in both countries of destination and countries of origin. In the words of the ILO Director-General: “Migrant workers are an asset to every country where they bring their labour”^{xiii} They are by no means free riders as commonly assumed. “Migration is the oldest action against poverty. It selects those who most want help. It is good for the country to which they go; it helps to break the equilibrium of poverty in the country from which they come. What is the perversity in the human soul that causes people to resist so obvious a good? This is a clear statement made in 1979 of the migration-development paradigm, which has become so popular in recent years. Unfortunately “the positive contribution that migrant workers and their families can make to the economic, social, cultural and political development of countries of employment receives relatively little attention in contrast to the extensive discussion on the impact of international labour migration on development in countries of origin.^{xiii}

International instruments provide a solid foundation for formulation of migration policies. The ILO has pioneered the development of international instruments for the governance of labour migration and protection of migrant workers since the 1930s. In our view, a rights based approach to migration is necessary to maximize positive effects and minimize negative effects of international migration. At the same time, the emphasis should not only be on the human rights of migrants as human beings, but also on their labour rights as workers. Universal human rights are applicable to all human beings irrespective of nationality. Moreover, the core labour rights - fundamental Conventions of the ILO enshrined in the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work - are applicable to all workers including migrant workers, without distinction of nationality, and regardless of migration status. Next the ILO Conventions on migrant workers - Migration for Employment No. 97, (1949) and the Migrant Workers Convention No. 143, (1975) spell out labour rights of migrant workers. The 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families – has expanded on these rights. These three Conventions together define a comprehensive charter of migrant rights and provide a legal basis for national policy and practice on migrant workers, and serve as tools to encourage States to establish or improve national legislation in harmony with international standards.^{xiii} Even where they have not been ratified, labour and migration legislation in many countries has been influenced by these standards. Last but not least, the ILO position is that all international labour standards apply to migrant workers in the workplace irrespective of status unless otherwise stated. There are

particularly relevant Conventions relating to private employment agencies, social security, protection of wages, labour inspection, occupational safety and health, and those covering sectors such as agriculture, hotels and tourism and construction where migrant workers are often over-represented.^{xiii}

4. UN CONVENTION ON THE PROTECTION OF THE RIGHTS OF ALL MIGRANT WORKERS AND MEMBERS OF THEIR FAMILIES

The UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW) is the most comprehensive International human rights treaty in the field of migration. It is an instrument of International law that is meant to protect migrant workers, whether in a regular or irregular situation. Adopted in 1990 by the UN General Assembly,^{xiii} it provides certain rights for migrant workers and their families who are lawfully present in the host country. These include the right to freedom of movement and residence within the territory of the host country. Yet, while it entered into force on 1 July 2003, the Convention by October 2018 has been ratified by only 54 states.^{xiii}

The UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (ICRMW) may be divided into 9 parts and a preamble: Part I: Scope and definitions (Arts. 1-6) Part II: Non-discrimination with respect to rights (Art. 7) Part III: Human rights of all migrant workers and members of their families (Arts. 8-35) Part IV: Other rights of migrant workers and members of their families who are documented or in a regular situation (Arts. 36-56) Part V: Provisions applicable to particular categories of migrant workers and members of their families (Arts. 57-63) Part VI: Promotion of sound, equitable, humane and lawful conditions in connection with international migration of workers and members of their families (Arts. 64-71) Part VII: Application of the Convention (Arts. 72-78) Part VIII: General provisions (Arts. 79-84) • Part IX: Final provisions (Arts. 85-93)

A. Scope and definitions

Part I of the Convention contains the most comprehensive definition of migrant workers found in any international instrument concerned with migrants. Article 2 (1) defines a migrant worker as “a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.” Article 4 defines which persons constitute the members of the migrant worker’s family as “persons married to migrant workers or having with them a relationship that, according to applicable law, produces effects equivalent to marriage, as well as their dependent children and other dependent persons who are recognized as members of the family by applicable legislation or applicable bilateral or multilateral agreements between the States concerned.” Furthermore, article 5 specifies that migrant workers are considered to be documented or in a regular situation “if they are authorized to enter, to stay and to engage in a remunerated activity in the State of employment pursuant to the law of that State and to international agreements to which that State is a party”. Otherwise, they are considered to be non-documented or in an irregular situation. Finally, in part V, the Convention innovates by defining the rights which apply to certain categories of migrant workers and their families, including frontier workers, seasonal workers, itinerant workers, migrants employed for a specific project and self-employed workers.^{xiii}

B. The principle of non-discrimination

Article 7 of the Convention provides that States parties should respect and ensure the rights contained in the Convention without distinction of any kind such as sex, race, colour, language, religion or conviction, political or other opinion, national, ethnic or social origin, nationality, age, economic position, property, marital status, birth or other status. The prohibited grounds of distinction is illustrative and not exhaustive, it is worth noting that the list in the Convention is broader than those found in other human rights conventions, such as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

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C. Human rights of all migrants

Part III of the Convention (arts. 8 to 35) grants a fairly broad series of rights to all migrant workers and members of their families, irrespective of their migratory status. Many of these articles specify the application to migrant workers of rights spelled out in the International Covenants on Civil and Political Rights and on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the other core human rights treaties. Article 15, for instance, protects migrant workers from the arbitrary deprivation of property, article 16 (7) gives arrested or detained migrant workers and members of their families the right to communicate with the consular or diplomatic authorities of their State of origin. Article 21 contains safeguards against confiscation, destruction or attempts to destroy identity documents, documents authorizing entry to or stay, residence or establishment in the national territory or work permits and prohibits the destruction of the passport or equivalent document of a migrant worker or a member of his or her family. Also specific to the particular situation of migrant workers is article 22, which provides, that migrant workers and members of their families shall not be subject to measures of collective expulsion and that they may be expelled from the territory of a State party only in pursuance of a decision taken by the competent authority in accordance with the law. Article 23 spells out the right of migrant workers and members of their families to have recourse to the protection and assistance of the consular or diplomatic authorities of their State of origin whenever the rights recognized under the Convention are impaired. ^{xiii}

Article 25 of the Convention establishes that migrant workers shall enjoy treatment not less favourable than that which applies to nationals of the State of employment in respect of remuneration and other conditions of work and terms of employment. Article 26 recognizes the right to take part in meetings and activities of trade unions and freely join them. Article 30 establishes that each child of a migrant worker shall have the basic right of access to education on the basis of equality of treatment with nationals of the State concerned. Article 32 provides that, upon termination of their stay in the State of employment, migrant workers and members of their families shall have the right to transfer their earnings and savings as well as their personal effects and belongings. Finally, according to article 33, migrant workers and members of their families shall have the right to be informed of their rights arising out of the Convention as well as of the conditions of their admission and their rights and obligations under the law and practice of the State concerned. Article 35, deserves particular mention. It states that “nothing in the present part of the Convention shall be interpreted as implying the regularization of the situation of migrant workers or members of their families who are non-documented or in an irregular situation or any right to such regularization of their situation, nor shall it prejudice the measures intended to ensure sound and equitable conditions for international migration as provided in part VI of the present Convention.”

xiii

Other rights of migrant workers and members of their families who are documented or irregular situation

These rights include the right to be fully informed by their States of origin and employment about conditions applicable to their admission and concerning their stay and the remunerated activities they may engage in (art. 37), the right to freely move in the territory of the State of employment and freely choose their residence there (art. 39), the right to form associations and trade unions (art. 40),⁶ and to participate in public affairs of their State of origin, including voting and election (art. 41).

Furthermore, documented migrant workers and members of their families enjoy the same opportunities and treatment as nationals in relation to various economic and social services (arts. 43 and 45), in the exercise of their remunerated activity (art. 55), in the choice of their remunerated activity (subject to some restrictions and conditions) (art. 52) and in respect of protection against dismissal and the enjoyment of unemployment benefits (art. 54).^{xiii}

Migrant workers and members of their families in a regular status also enjoy exemption from import and export taxes on their household and personal effects (art. 46) and shall not be liable to more onerous taxation than nationals in similar circumstances (art. 48). Article 47 provides that migrant workers shall have the right to transfer their earnings and savings, in particular those funds necessary for the support of their families, from the State of employment to their State of origin or any other State.^{xiii}

While the Convention does not expressly speak of a right to family reunification, States parties are encouraged to facilitate family reunification and to protect the unity of the family (art. 44). Article 50 provides that, in the case of death of a migrant worker or dissolution of marriage, the State of employment shall favourably consider granting family members of that migrant worker residing in that State on the basis of family reunion an authorization to stay, taking into due account the length of time they have already resided in that State. Finally, documented migrant workers and members of their families enjoy additional guarantees against expulsion (art. 56).^{xiii}

Promotion of sound, equitable, humane and lawful conditions in connection with international migration of workers and members of their families

One of the most interesting features of the Convention is that, besides establishing the obligation of States parties with respect to migrant workers as individuals, it also provides a framework, in part VI, for sound, equitable and humane conditions for international migration. Thus, States parties shall maintain appropriate services to deal with questions about international migration of workers and members of their families and formulate and implement policies on migration, exchange information with other States parties, provide information to employers and workers on policies, laws and regulations, and provide information and appropriate assistance to migrant workers and members of their families (art. 65). To protect migrants from abuse, article 66 restricts the recruitment operations of workers for employment in another State to public services, State bodies or authorized private agencies. Article 69 (1), which provides that "States parties shall, when there are migrant workers and members of their families within their territory in an irregular situation, take appropriate measures to ensure that such a situation does not persist." Article 69 (2) further stipulates that "whenever States parties concerned consider the possibility of regularizing the situation of such persons in accordance with applicable national legislation and bilateral or

multilateral agreements, appropriate account shall be taken of the circumstances of their entry, the duration of their stay in the States of employment and other relevant considerations, in particular those relating to their family situation.^{xiii}

Application of the Convention

Article 72 of the Convention states that a Committee on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families shall be established, for the purpose of reviewing the Convention. Members of the Committee are independent, acting in their own capacity, are nominated and elected by Member States. According to article 73 and 74, the Committee shall examine the reports on the implementation of the Convention and the migration situation that State Parties are to submit every five years, and present its finding in an annual report. The process of examining the reports includes their transmission to the International Labor Office, which might assist the Committee in issues falling under the competence of the ILO.^{xiii}

CONCLUSION

Migrants, especially migrant workers either documented or undocumented particularly belong to the category of vulnerable. Women migrant workers who work as domestic workers, irregular and temporary labour migrants suffer a lot in the hands of government officials, Employers and the common people of the receiving countries. These activities against the human beings who live in a particular alien state, degrades the dignity of the migrants who are no doubt human beings. Globalisation plays both a role of greet and threat to all those who migrate. It brings different and distant voices to one stage for the defense of migrant rights in the international level. The International convention on the protection of the rights of migrant workers and members of their families brought some new hopes and aspirations to the migrants by extending various scopes of human rights not only to migrants but their family also in a global perspective. It brought justice for all the migrants irrespective of their sex, nationalism and legal status by applying norms of human rights, providing the equality of treatment.

PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS IN GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS AT SECONDARY STAGE IN TAMENGLONG DISTRICT

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ABSTRACT

Performance is the amount of knowledge derived from learning. The child gains knowledge by the instruction he receives from the various activities of the learning processes. The set of activities that is learned is then evaluated. Academic achievement is one of the assets of the students as well as for the schools which can determine the qualitative and quantitative aspects of education. It can also speak volume about the effectiveness of the teacher and the curriculum at large. The academic achievement of the student's knowledge gained in formal education can be indicated by academic scores. Learning of science has become unavoidable part of general education. The present study aims at finding the performance level of students in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong and to compare the performance of students in science studying in private and government schools. The investigator adopted descriptive research. The population of the present study includes all the class X students studying Science in the Government and Private Secondary schools of Tamenglong District. Samples taken were 115 students from 2 Government Secondary schools and 2 Private secondary schools in Tamenglong district. The study was delimited to the Science text book of Class X prescribed by BOSEM, Manipur. The performance level of students in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong were found to be average. The performances of private secondary school students were better than government secondary school students. There is a need to improve the students' performance in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong area.

Key Words: Government, Performance, Private, Science, Secondary.

INTRODUCTION

Science has become an integral part of our life. Science has also influenced educational enterprise and hence it is also an integral part of our educational system. Learning of science has become an unavoidable part of general education. Performance is the amount of knowledge derived from learning. The child gains knowledge by the instruction he receives from the various activities of the learning processes. The set of activities that is learned is then evaluated. Academic achievement is one of the assets of the students as well as for the schools which can determine the qualitative and quantitative aspects of education. It can also speak volume about the effectiveness of the teacher and the curriculum at large. The academic achievement of the student's knowledge gained in formal education can be indicated by academic scores. The scores give the measurement of how well the

student meets the standard set by the institution or the assessment agencies. Good (1959) define academic achievement as the knowledge, attitude, skills developed in the school subjects, usually designed by test scores or marks assigned by the teacher dictionary of psychology. M.A. Dzulklifi and A.I Alias, 2012 found that academic achievement of students studying the same course in the same school and in different schools differ due to various factors such as student background, personality, mental ability, intelligence, motivation, school policies and practices, teacher quality, school resources and academic climate.

Abdullah.S, Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, Northwest University, Kano-Nigeria (2017) studied on “Evaluating Secondary School Students’ Science Achievement: Implication for Curriculum Implementation”. The academic achievement of students in science subjects were satisfactory and above hypothetical pass mark and generally encouraging. Secondly, a positive, strong and significant relationship exists between student’s achievement in the science subjects, this means that, students who do well in Biology also did well in Chemistry, Physics and vice versa. Lastly, gender differences in students’ sciences achievement exists. Lisa Barratt (1994), opined pupils need to be enabled to share and discuss science-based issues. This requires a level of scientific literacy. Lisa Barratt argues for the importance of developing a scientific dialogue in ‘Scientific Literacy Through Dialogue.’ Shimbi Majo (2016), studied on Factors Influencing Poor Performance in Science Subjects in Secondary Schools in Shinyanga Municipality. The study found out that the factors influences poor performance were; Inadequate number of teachers, Lack of teaching and learning materials, Poor teaching methods (theory) and Students’ attitudes towards science subjects.

Science is an important subject in school curriculum because man’s future depends to a large extent on scientific advances & development of productive activity. Hence there is a great need to teach science in school curriculum. Kothari Commission strongly emphasized that, “We lay great emphasis on making science an important element in school curriculum. We, therefore, recommend that science and mathematics should be taught on compulsory basis to all pupils as a part of general education during first ten years of schooling. In addition, there should be provision of special course in these subjects at the secondary stage, for students of more than average ability.” UNESCO’s International Education Commission (1972) recommended that, “Science & technology must become essential components in any educational enterprise; they must be incorporated into all educational activity intended for children, young people & adults.” Now we cannot think of a world without science. The investigator felt the need to study the performance level of secondary school students in science subjects so that remedial measures may be taken up to improve science teaching in secondary schools.

OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of the study were:

- i. To find the performance level of students in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong district.
- ii. To compare the performance of science between government and private school students at secondary stage in Tamenglong district.

HYPOTHESES

- i. The performance of the students in Science of secondary schools in Tamenglong area is low.
- ii. The performance of students of private secondary schools is higher than the students of government secondary schools.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

For the present study, the survey method under the descriptive research was adopted.

The population of the present study included all the class X students studying Science in the Government and Private Secondary schools of Tamenglong District. Samples taken were 115 students from 2 Government Secondary schools and 2 Private secondary schools in Tamenglong District. The study was delimited to the students of Secondary Schools at Tamenglong Block, Tamenglong. The study has also been delimited to the Science text book of Class X prescribed by BOSEM, Manipur.

Table No. 1: Sample Design

Sl. No	Name of Schools	Govt. or Private	Type	No of students	No of Girls	No of Boys
1	Model high school	Govt.	Co-Ed.	18	11	7
2	Tamenglong Hr Sec	Govt.	Co-Ed.	27	17	10
3	United Builder's School	Private	Co-Ed.	42	22	20
4	Don Bosco school	Private	Co-Ed.	28	20	8
Total				115	70	45

Tools

In the present study, the researcher used a self-developed performance test based on Class X science for the collection of data.

- i) Norms adopted for measuring the score of the mean of the students for the questionnaire of 30 marks are done in the following way:

Low	10 and below
Average	11 to 15
High	16 and above

- ii) Norms adopted for measuring the score of the mean of the students for the questionnaire of 10 marks in each section are done in the following way:

Low performance	Below 4.5
Average performance	4.5 to 6.0
High performance	Above 6.0

Statistical Techniques

Mean and Standard Deviation were adopted for the present study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table No. 2: Mean Scores of Performance Test in Science

Type of school	No of students	Score	Mean scores	Std. Div.(SD)	Total mean
Government	45	386	8.774	4.98	11.69
Private	70	1044	14.625	14.37	

The mean score of performance in science is 11.69. The calculated mean of the Government secondary students in Science is 8.774 and that of Private secondary students is 14.625.

Interpretation

Hypothesis 1: The performance of the students of secondary schools in Tamenglong toward Science is low.

The above table No. 2 shows mean values of scores of the performance test in Science for 45 secondary students from Government schools and 70 secondary students from Private schools, and the mean value of over all 115 students. According to the norms for data interpretation it has been assumed that the standard mean value for low performer would be 10 and below, an average performer would be 11-15 and the high performer would be above 16. The mean value for over all 115 secondary students is 11.69 which indicates that the performance of secondary students of Tamenglong falls in an average category (11-15) per norms of data interpretation. Therefore, the Hypothesis 1: "The performance of the students of secondary schools in Tamenglong toward Science is low" is rejected.

Hypothesis 2: The performance of students of private secondary schools is higher than the students of government secondary schools.

Table No. 2 shows the value of means and standard deviation of scores of the performance of the students of Government schools and Private schools. The calculated mean of the Government secondary students in Science is 8.774 with SD value 4.98 and that of Private secondary students is 14.625 with SD value 14.37. This indicates that the performance of students of Private schools is better than those of the Government schools. Therefore, the hypothesis 2 "The performance of students of private secondary schools is higher than that of students of government secondary schools toward science subject" is accepted.

CONCLUSION

From the present study the mean score of students of class X secondary schools in science from the performance test was found to be 11.69. The mean score obtained from the performance test indicates that the performance of the students in Science is average as the mean score obtained is within the standard mean value given i.e. 11 to 15. Thus, the overall performance of students in Science at secondary stage in Tamenglong district falls under average. The average performance of students in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong might be due to traditional method of teaching. It was found out that the mean score of Science performance test of Government secondary students is 8.77 with 4.98 and that of Private secondary students is 14.625 with SD value 14.37. This shows that the performances of students in science subjects are better in private schools as compared to government schools students. The reason might be due better facilities and in private schools when compared to government schools. There might be a number of factors responsible for the low performance among students. Science plays a vital role in the modernisation and civilisation. It directly affects our everyday life. Science has been regarded as essential to a liberal education. Science is a necessary part of other studies. It is utmost important to improve the performance of students in science. The concern authority, teachers, parents and the civil societies should take the matter seriously for better performance of students in science at secondary stage in Tamenglong area.

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AN OVERVIEW OF PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGES OF MICROFINANCE IN INDIA

Narinder Sharma

ABSTRACT

Microfinance in India has occupied the centre stage as a promising channel to prolongate the financial services to unbanked sections of population in the age of financial inclusion as a nation's policy objective. India is a market comprising of poor and small entrepreneurs which makes microfinance expansion difficult due to the practices followed by certain lenders like MFI, SHGs, etc. Such problems and challenges should be cared off for smooth expansion of the micro finance services as it can play a vital role in providing financial services to the poor and deprive segment of our economy by providing financial services like small savings, credit & insurance services to the socially & economically disadvantaged segments of the society. This paper is an attempt to find out the challenges and issues relating to microfinance. In this paper, we try to attempt to search for such problems and its roots causes; and solutions to the cause.

Keywords: Microfinance, Unbanked Sections, Self Help Groups (SHGs), MFIs

INTRODUCTION

Increasing financial inclusion as the objective of financial sector policies in India is long driven but the aim of universal inclusion is still a far-flung dream till it should congregate the needs of all the segments of the society including poor and small entrepreneur who can effectively use financial services. Indian Government has taken a variety of steps to eradicate poverty since Independence. Almost twenty seven percent of total population in India is still remains below the poverty line. Microfinance in India has emerged as penetrate in the beliefs and practices of economic empowerment, poverty eradication and inclusive growth. Today it has evolved into a vibrant industry exhibiting a variety of business models as it aims at servicing the poorest of the poor, who were up till now considered unfit for financing of any kind except charity. In simple language, microfinance is a financial service to low-income individuals or to those who do not have access to typical banking services.

MICROFINANCE, MICROFINANCE INSTITUTIONS AND SHG - BANK LINKAGE PROGRAMME

MICROFINANCE

Reserve Bank of India defined Microfinance as an economic development tool whose objective is to assist the poor to work their way out of poverty. It covers a range of services which include, in addition to the provision of credit, many other services such as savings, insurance, money transfers, counseling, etc. Microfinance can play a crucial role in providing financial services to the poor and deprive segment of our economy. Microfinance scheme provides a wide range of financial services to people who have little or nothing in the way of customary security. It helps them to construct up assets, survive crises and to establish small business to come out of poverty.

Some of the salient features of microfinance are as follows:

- The borrowers are generally from low income backgrounds
- The loan tenure is short
- Loans availed under microfinance are usually of small amount, i.e., micro loans
- Wholesale lending for on-lending purpose
- Microfinance loans do not require any collateral
- These loans are usually repaid at higher frequencies
- The purpose of most microfinance loans is income generation
- Micro Finance and Micro Enterprise Loans through 'Service Provider Model'
- Subscription to PTCs issued by NBFC-MFIs

MICROFINANCE INSTITUTIONS (MFIs)

An MFI may be generally outlined as any organization—credit union, down-scaled depository financial institution, money nongovernmental organization, or credit cooperative—that provides money services for the poor. In India MFIs is also Non-Government Organizations (NGOs), personal Foundations/Trusts, Cooperatives, industrial Banks, Regional Rural Banks (RRBs), native space Banks (LABS) still as specialized Non-Banking money establishments (NBFCs). At the moment is taken into account to be the biggest rising marketplace for microfinance and it's been rising in India at a firm rate over the past decade.

Characteristics and Reasons of getting differing kinds of MFIs:

Formal suppliers' square measure generally outlined as those establishments that square measure subject not solely to general laws however additionally to specific banking regulation and management (development banks, savings and communication banks, industrial banks, and non-bank money intermediaries). Formal suppliers may additionally be any registered legal organizations providing any reasonably money services. semi-formal suppliers square measure registered entities subject to general and industrial laws however don't seem to be sometimes underneath bank regulation and management (financial NGOs, credit unions and cooperatives). Informal supplier's square measure non-registered teams like rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs) and assistance teams.

Ownership structures of MFIs may be of virtually any sort conceivable. They will be government-owned, just like the rural credit cooperatives in China; member-owned, just like the credit unions in West Africa; socially minded shareholders, like several remodeled NGOs in Latin America; and increasing shareholders, just like the microfinance banks in Japanese Europe.

Focus of some suppliers is solely on money services to the poor. Others square measure centered on money services generally, providing a good vary of economic services for various markets. Organizations providing money services to the poor may additionally give non-financial services. These services will embrace business-development services, like coaching and technical help, or social services, like health and management coaching.

Services that poor individuals would like and demand identical forms of money services as everybody else.

The foremost well-known service is non-collateralized "micro-loans," delivered through a variety of group-based and individual methodologies. The menu of services offered additionally includes others

custom-made to the particular wants of the poor, like savings, insurance, and remittances. The kinds of services offered square measure restricted by what's allowed by the legal structure of the provider—non-regulated establishments don't seem to be typically allowed to produce savings or insurance.

SHG - BANK LINKAGE PROGRAMME

Self facilitate teams means that a bunch that represents a monetary intervention, however the monetary intervention isn't the sole primary objective of the cluster. The thought is to mix the access to inexpensive monetary services with a method of self management and development. This square measure sometimes shaped and supported by NGOs or Government agencies. SHG-Bank Linkage Programme (SBLP) launched by NABARD method back in 1992 envisaging synthesis of formal economic system and informal sector has become a movement throughout the country. With this, the formal monetary establishments in Asian nation have ventured into microfinance during a huge method. Because of widespread rural bank branch network, the SHG-BLM is incredibly appropriate to the Indian context. Microfinance movement started in Asian nation with the introduction of SHG-Bank Linkage Programme (SHG BLP). The programme uses SHGs as AN intervention between the banks and therefore the rural poor to assist in reducing dealing prices for each the banks and therefore the rural shoppers. In India, two types of SBLP models have emerged over period of time-

- Type--I: Bank-SHG-Members: The bank itself acts as a self-help group promoting institution (SHPI).

- Type-II: Bank-NGO-SHG-Members: Facilitating agencies like NGOs government agencies or other community-based organizations form groups

The impact of this programme is having the following outcomes:

- It has enabled households that have access to it to spend more on education than non client households. Families participating in the programme have reported better school attendance and lower dropout rates.
- Microfinance has reduced the incidence of poverty through increase in income, enabled the poor to build assets and thereby reduce their vulnerability.
- It has empowered women by enhancing their contribution to household income, increasing the value of their assets and generally by giving them better control over decisions that affect their lives.
- In certain areas it has reduced child mortality, improved maternal health and the ability of the poor to combat disease through better nutrition, housing and health - especially among women and children.
- It has facilitated significant research into the provision of financial services for the poor and helped in building "capacity" at the SHG level.
- It has contributed to a reduced dependency on informal money lenders and other non institutional sources.

PROBLEMS AND CHALLENGES OF MICROFINANCE IN INDIA

- MFIs charge a very high rate of interest to the borrowers as compared to commercial banks which may lead to default in payment by borrowers.
- Over-dependence on banks makes MFIs incompetent and less reactive towards the recovery of dues. MFIs are relatively high burdened and this affects their profit margin.
- Lack of proper knowledge and awareness of financial services given by the MFIs is also a challenge for both, customer and MFIs. This factor is the main hindrance for the rural population to work with MFIs to meet their financial needs.
- Over-indebtedness by small and poor borrowers without any security is a major issue as many of them have heavy borrowings.
- Regulatory issues have slowed the performance and development of new financial products and services by which the rural population can be benefitted.
- It is noted that most of the time; the selection of a model is not scientific in nature. They are selected at random and not according to the situation.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the microfinance sector is plagued by a number of problems but there is a way out for the problems faced by this sector. Improvements are required from the side of government, Microfinance institutions and individual clients. Some of the suggestions are like Proper and flexible regulations from the government side are required. Field Supervision is required from time to time to know the exact position and status of services available. Encouraging MFIs to open new branches in areas of low microfinance penetration by providing financial assistance will increase the expansion of the microfinance. Complete range of Microfinance Products should be at the public domain and training should be given for it. Use of technology should be introduced to lesser the time between applying and using the finance by the customers.

Still Microfinance is the best opportunity for the small and poor entrepreneurs to grow and succeed.

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आधुनिक भारत में बौद्ध धर्म का सामाजिक, धार्मिक एवं सांस्कृतिक योगदान : एक अध्ययन

शोधार्थी

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प्रस्तावना

संसार के अधिकांश भागों में सफलतापूर्वक प्रसार और अब भी मानव जाति के बड़े भाग को अपने द्वारा प्रभावित करते हुए देखने से मालूम होता है कि बुद्ध अपने समय के स्वतंत्र विचारकों में सबसे अधिक शक्तिशाली थे। बुद्ध के विचार वैज्ञानिक हैं एवम् तार्किक हैं। प्रायोगिक हैं और अनुभवजन्य सत्य पर आधारित हैं तथा तर्क की कसौटी पर खरा उतरते हैं। इसके साथ-साथ बुद्ध के विचारों में सामाजिकता, व्यावहारिकता नैतिकता, मानवीयता, दया और करुणा का सामंजस्य पाया जाता है, जिसमें मात्र मानव का कल्याण ही नहीं बल्कि सम्पूर्ण जीव-जगत के कल्याण का उद्देश्य अन्तर्निहित है। भगवान बुद्ध के ज्ञान के प्रकाश से प्रकाशित होकर आज मानव, मानवीय भावना से प्रभावित है। वह जन कल्याण की ओर अग्रसर है। ब्राह्मणवादी धार्मिक शिक्षा पद्धति की, जड़ वर्ण व्यवस्था, कर्मकाण्ड, छुआ-छूत, अज्ञानता, अंधविश्वास, आडम्बर, असमानता, घृणा, द्वेष, कलह, शोषण, तिरष्कार एवं अमानवीय मूल्यहीनता की भावना से ग्रसित मानव आधुनिक समय में भगवान बुद्ध के ज्ञान के प्रकाश से प्रकाशित होकर सम्पूर्ण मानवता में सामाजिकता, व्यावहारिकता, नैतिकता, मानवीयता, दया एवं करुणा का प्रसार कर रहा है जिससे सम्पूर्ण मानवता का कल्याण हो सकता है। बौद्ध धर्म का प्रमुख ध्येय श्वहुजन हिताय बहुजन सुखाय लोकानुकम्पायश है। इस हेतु बौद्ध धर्म का आधुनिक भारतीय सभ्यता और संस्कृति पर बहुआयामी, विशिष्ट और अमिट प्रभाव पड़ा है। बौद्ध धर्म ने आधुनिक भारतीय सभ्यता और संस्कृति के प्रत्येक पहलू पर अपनी अमिट छाप छोड़कर उन सभी क्षेत्रों को बहुत प्रभावशाली ढंग से प्रभावित किया है जैसे-सामाजिक, प्रभावशाली ढंग से प्रभावित किया है। बौद्ध धर्म ने व्यापक और विस्तृत क्षेत्रों को अपने में समाहित किया है। इस प्रकार आधुनिक भारत में सामाजिक, धार्मिक एवं सांस्कृतिक क्षेत्र में बौद्ध धर्म ने अपना महत्वपूर्ण योगदान प्रदान किया है।

सामाजिक योगदान

सामाजिक क्षेत्र में भगवान बुद्ध ने विषमता को हटाकर, समता, सहानुभूति, सहयोग, सद्भाव एवं सदाचार को स्थापित किया था। भगवान बुद्ध ने वर्णवाद, जातिवाद, छुआ-छूत, उंच-नीच आदि सभी विषमतामूलक व्यवस्थाओं को समाप्त करने का कार्य किया तथा समता पर आधारित लोकतांत्रिक समाज की रचना की नारियों को शोषण, अत्याचार एवं अन्याय से मुक्त किया। इस प्रकार सामाजिक क्षेत्र में

भगवान बुद्ध ने लोकतांत्रिक समाज की रचना करके सामाजिक न्याय की संकल्पना स्थापित की जो वर्तमान समय तक समाज में प्रत्यक्ष या अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से विद्यमान है।

भारत का संविधान सामाजिक न्याय की उद्घोषणा करने वाला एक प्रभावी दस्तावेज है जिसका आभास इसकी प्रस्तावना से ही हो जाता है। संविधान की प्रस्तावना में सामाजिक न्याय को लोगों के मूल उद्देश्य (मौलिक अधिकार) के रूप में वर्णित किया गया है। जहाँ ह स्पष्ट किया गया है कि भारतीय संविधान का उद्देश्य अपने सभी नागरिकों के लिये सामाजिक, आर्थिक और राजनीतिक न्याय, विचार अभिव्यक्ति, विश्वास, धर्म और उपासना की स्वतंत्रता, प्रतिष्ठा और अवसर की समानता तथा व्यक्ति की गरिमा एवं राष्ट्र की एकता और अखण्डता को सुनिश्चित करने वाली बंधुता का विकास करना है। भारतीय संविधान की प्रस्तावना में उल्लिखित कई संवैधानिक प्रावधान बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन की मूल भावना से ओत-प्रोत है।

1. मौलिक अधिकार

मौलिक अधिकारों का उल्लेख संविधान के भाग-3, अनुच्छेद 12 से 32 में किया गया है। ये अधिकार सभी नागरिकों को व्यक्तिगत तथा सामूहिक रूप से लोकतंत्र के सर्वोत्तम लाभ तथा जीवन की आधारभूत स्वतंत्रता एवं सुविधाएं प्रदान करते हैं, जो जीवन को विशिष्ट एवं सर्वोत्तम बनाती है। मौलिक अधिकारों के रूप में संविधान में जो अधिकार प्रदान किये गये हैं, वे हैं— समानता का अधिकार—इसके तहत विधि (कानून) के समक्ष समानता (अनु0 14), केवल धर्म, मूलवंश, जाति, लिंग या जन्म स्थान या इनमें से किसी के आधार पर कोई विभेद नहीं होगा (अनु0 15), अवसर की समता (अनु0 16), अस्पृश्यता का उन्मूलन (अनु0 17) तथा उपाधियों का अंत (अनु0 18) इत्यादि। समानता का सिद्धान्त भगवान बुद्ध के द्वारा प्रदत्त समानता, स्वतंत्रता, बंधुता एवं न्याय की अवधारणा पर आधारित है।

(2) नीति-निर्देशक सिद्धांत

राज्य के नीति निर्देशक सिद्धांत संविधान के भाग 4 (अनु0 36-51) में संकलित है। ये सिद्धांत मूलतः सामाजिक न्याय के विषय हैं। यद्यपि ये न्याय निर्णय नहीं हैं तथापि न्यायालय इनके प्रति बिल्कुल उदासीन नहीं रह सकते। संविधान के (अनु0 38) में यह कहा गया है कि राज्य को एक ऐसी सामाजिक व्यवस्था जिसमें सबको सामाजिक, आर्थिक व राजनीतिक न्याय सुनिश्चित हो, के माध्यम से लोगों के कल्याण के लिए सभी प्रयास करने चाहिए। अनु0 41 के अंतर्गत राज्य को यह निर्देश दिया गया है कि राज्य अपनी आर्थिक सीमाओं व क्षमता के अनुरूप लोगों को बेरोजगारी, वृद्धावस्था, बीमारी, असमर्थता तथा अन्य प्रकार की अशक्तता की अवस्था में काम और शिक्षा का अधिकार और सार्वजनिक सहायता की व्यवस्था करे। उपर्युक्त संवैधानिक प्रावधान भी बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन की मूल भावना से प्रभावित है।

(3) आरक्षण

अनुसूचित जाति एवं अनुसूचित जनजाति की कमजोर सामाजिक आर्थिक स्थिति को दृष्टिगत रखते हुए अनुच्छेद 330 तथा अनुच्छेद 332 के तहत क्रमशः लोकसभा तथा राज्य विधान सभाओं में इन जातियों के लिए स्थान आरक्षित किये गए हैं। इसके अतिरिक्त संविधान के अनुच्छेद 335 के अनुसार केन्द्र तथा राज्य सरकारों के अधीन सेवाओं में अनुसूचित जातियों एवं जनजातियों का समुचित प्रतिनिधित्व देने के लिये आश्वासन दिया गया है। इन जातियों को शासकीय सेवाओं में प्रतिनिधित्व देने के लिए जो रियायतें प्रदान की गई हैं, उनमें मुख्य हैं— आयु सीमाओं में छूट, कार्यकुशलता का निम्न स्तर पूरा करने पर उनका चयन, नीचे की श्रेणियों में उनकी नियुक्ति और पदोन्नति का विशेष प्रबंध है।

(4) अनुसूचित जातियों एवं जनजातियों के लिए विशेष अधिकारी

संविधान के अनुच्छेद 338 के अंतर्गत यह प्रावधान किया गया है कि राष्ट्रपति अनुसूचित जाति एवं जनजाति के लिये एक अधिकारी की नियुक्ति करेगा। जिसका कर्तव्य होगा कि वह इन वर्गों के लिये संविधान द्वारा प्रदत्त रक्षा उपायों से संबंधित सभी विषयों का अध्ययन करें और उन रक्षा उपायों के कार्य-कलापों के बारे में ऐसे अंतराल पर जो राष्ट्रपति निर्दिष्ट करें रिपोर्ट दे। राष्ट्रपति ऐसे सभी प्रतिवेदनो को संसद के दोनों सदनों के समक्ष रखवायेंगे।

(5) पिछड़ा वर्ग आयोग का गठन

संविधान के अनुच्छेद 340 के अंतर्गत इस बात का प्रावधान किया गया है कि सामाजिक व शैक्षणिक दृष्टि से पिछड़े वर्ग की समस्याओं का अध्ययन करके उनकी दशा में सुधार के लिये आवश्यक उपाय सझाने की दृष्टि से राष्ट्रपति एक आयोग गठित कर सकते हैं।

भारत में कमजोर वर्गों को सामाजिक न्याय सुलभ कराने के उद्देश्य से व्यापक उपाय किए गये हैं। ये सभी उपाय संवैधानिक दायरे के अंतर्गत हैं और उदारतापूर्ण हैं। भारत में कमजोर वर्गों की जो भी परम्परागत न्यायगततायें थीं, उन्हें दूर किया गया है और इन्हें आरक्षण व सुविधाएं प्रदान करने के लिए भारतीय संविधान में विशेष उपलब्ध भी किये गए हैं। इसके साथ-साथ इन्हें शोषण व उत्पीड़न से बचाने के लिये आवश्यक रक्षोपायों की व्यवस्था के अतिरिक्त उपयोगी विधानों के निर्माण का प्रावधान किया गया है तथा उनके शैक्षणिक व आर्थिक विकास के लिये विविध योजनाओं व कार्यक्रमों का लागू करने के लिये राज्य को स्पष्ट रूप से निर्देशित किया गया है।

उपर्युक्त सम्पूर्ण तथ्यों का सम्यक विश्लेषण करने से यह स्पष्ट हो जाता है कि सामाजिक व्यवस्था के वे विभिन्न पहलू जो सामाजिकता, व्यावहारिकता, नैतिकता, मानवीयता एवं सदाचार को बढ़ावा देते हैं तथा बौद्ध धर्म की बहुजन हिताय बहुजन सुखाय की अवधारणा पर आधारित हैं वे भारतीय संविधान में विधि सम्मत हैं। आधुनिक भारत में उपर्युक्त विषयों की वैधानिकता के कारण

मानवीय तथा कल्याणकारी तत्वों को बल मिला है इस प्रकार कहा जा सकता है कि सामाजिक क्षेत्र में बौद्ध धर्म ने अपना महत्वपूर्ण योगदान प्रदान किया है।

धार्मिक योगदान

धार्मिक दृष्टिकोण से बौद्ध धर्म में धार्मिक सहिष्णुता और उदारता पर बल दिया गया है, धार्मिक कट्टरता और जड़ता के लिये बौद्ध धर्म में कोई स्थान नहीं है। बौद्ध धर्म का बलात् धर्मारोपण कभी नहीं किया गया। धर्माधता, धार्मिक कट्टरता और उग्रता के लिए बौद्ध धर्म में कोई जगह नहीं है। बौद्ध धर्म धार्मिक सहिष्णुता की अवधारणा पर आधारित है। यह बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन का ही महानतम योगदान है कि भारत एक धर्मनिरपेक्ष राष्ट्र है। भारतीय संविधान में (अनु0 25–28 तक) धार्मिक स्वतंत्रता को व्यक्ति के मौलिक अधिकारों की श्रेणी में रखा गया है।

भारतीय संविधान में अनुच्छेद 25 के अंतर्गत धर्म के अन्तःकरण की और धर्म के अबाध रूप से मानने, आचरण और प्रचार करने की स्वतंत्रता, लोक व्यवस्था, सदाचार और स्वास्थ्य तथा इस भाग के अन्य उपबन्धों के अधीन रहते हुए, सभी व्यक्तियों के अन्तःकरण की स्वतंत्रता का और धर्म के अबाध रूप से मानने, आचरण करने और प्रचार करने का समान हक होगा। उपर्युक्त संवैधानिक प्रावधान बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन से प्रेरित है।

चरित्र निर्माण के लिए पंचशील का पालन करना आवश्यक ही नहीं अनिवार्य है। पंचशील ही जीवन की सही शिक्षा है। सुन्दर, सुखद, सम्मानित जीवन के लिए बुद्ध ने पंचशील को नैतिक शिक्षा का स्वरूप दिया। भगवान बुद्ध ने मनुष्य को इसी जीवन में सुखी बनाने का मार्ग (अष्टांगिक मार्ग) दिया जो कि एक वैज्ञानिक सोच का परिणाम माना जाता है।

भगवान बुद्ध ने नरक, स्वर्ग, आत्मा, परमात्मा एवं भाग्य पर आधारित धर्म से मुक्त करके व्यक्ति, समाज एवं देश, को सत्य, अहिंसा, मैत्री, करुणा, प्रेम व शांति पर आधारित समतावादी धर्म दिया जिसका आधार प्रेम है तथा धुरी मानवता है। यह नैतिक व धार्मिक क्षेत्र में बुद्ध की सबसे बड़ी खोज है जो कि आधुनिक समय में बहुजन हिताय बहुजन सुखाय लोकानुकम्पाय हेतु सर्वथा प्रासांगिक है।

सांस्कृतिक योगदान

सांस्कृतिक दृष्टिकोण से बौद्ध धर्म ने सर्वेभवन्तु सुखिनः सर्वे सन्तु निरामया की उक्ति को चरितार्थ किया है। भारत से बाहर भारतीय सभ्यता और संस्कृति के प्रचार-प्रसार का श्रेय बौद्ध धर्म को है। भारत के बौद्ध भिक्षु, आचार्य, संत तथा विभिन्न विद्वानों ने विदेशों में जाकर बौद्ध धर्म का प्रचार-प्रसार किया। ई0 पूर्व तीसरी सदी से इन प्रचारकों के साथ-साथ भारतीय संस्कृति अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से मध्य एशिया, चीन, जापान, कोरिया, खोतान, तिब्बत, नेपाल, वर्मा से लेकर कंबोडिया, जावा, सुमात्रा, मलाया आदि देशों में प्रसारित हुई। इन देशों के बीच व्यापारिक और सांस्कृतिक आदान-प्रदान हुए।

आधुनिक समय में भी यह व्यापारिक और सांस्कृतिक आदान-प्रदान और अधिक विकसित करने के उपाय किये जा रहे हैं। बौद्ध धर्म ने धार्मिक सहिष्णुता का परिचय उपाय किये जा रहे हैं। बौद्ध धर्म ने धार्मिक सहिष्णुता का परिचय दिया है। इसके परिणामस्वरूप बौद्ध धर्मावलम्बी अनेक विदेशी श्रद्धालु जन, भारत में बौद्ध धार्मिक स्थलों की यात्रा हेतु आने लगे। अनेक विदेशी श्रद्धालु जन भारत के बौद्ध बिहारों के विद्याध्ययन और बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन का ज्ञान प्राप्त करने के लिए रहने लगे। इस प्रकार भारतीय तथा विदेशियों के मध्य सांस्कृतिक समन्वय स्थापित हुआ और भारतीय संस्कृति तथा सभ्यता के प्रचार-प्रसार का मार्ग प्रशस्त हो गया। इसके परिणामस्वरूप मध्य एशिया और दक्षिण-पूर्वी एशिया के अनेक देशों के जीवन पर भारतीय धर्म और संस्कृति की अमिट छाप पड़ी। इसीलिए प्रायः यह कहा जाता है कि विदेशों में बौद्ध धर्म भारतीय संस्कृति का अग्रगामी दूत था।

इस प्रकार उपर्युक्त सम्पूर्ण तथ्यों का सम्यक विश्लेषण करने के उपरांत यह कहा जा सकता है कि सांस्कृतिक दृष्टिकोण से बौद्ध धर्म ने सर्वेभवन्तु सुखिनः सर्वेसन्तु निरामया तथा जियो और जीने दो की अवधारणा पर जो बल दिया है वह आधुनिक भारत में भी सम्पूर्ण मानवता के कल्याण हेतु सर्वथा प्रासांगिक है।

निष्कर्ष :

आधुनिक समय में कालमार्क्स के द्वारा प्रतिपादित साम्यवाद के सिद्धान्त से बहुत पहले ही भगवान बुद्ध द्वारा साम्यवादी सिद्धान्त की स्थापना की जा चुकी थी। सम्पत्ति के उपभोग में उन्होंने समता का मार्ग अपनाया था और संघ हेतु प्रशासनिक प्रक्रियाओं की नींव डालते समय जनतांत्रिक प्रणाली प्रदान की थी। भिक्षु संघ का सदस्य केवल तीन चीवर, अस्तुरा, सुई धागा, जल, छक्का, भिक्खापात्र आदि वस्तुओं को ही व्यक्तिगत रूप से अपने पास रख सकता था, शेष सम्पत्ति संघ की मानी जाती थी। यही तो आज के साम्यवाद का मूल सिद्धान्त है। मार्क्सवाद का साम्यवाद तो केवल आर्थिक समानता का मूल सिद्धान्त है जो कि केवल आर्थिक समानता की बात करता है परंतु तथागत बुद्ध ने सामाजिक असमानता और अन्याय के विरुद्ध आंदोलन प्रारंभ किया था अर्थात् मानव की समानता तथा व्यक्ति की प्रतिष्ठा स्थापित करने का प्रयास किया था। बौद्ध धर्म और दर्शन सामाजिक, आर्थिक, राजनैतिक, न्याय का प्रतीक है जो कि समानता, स्वतंत्रता, बंधुत्व एवं न्याय पर बल देता है।

भारतीय गणराज्य की लोकतंत्रात्मक/जनतंत्रात्मक प्रणाली लोक कल्याण पर आधारित है जिसका मूल स्रोत बौद्ध धर्म की बहुजन हिताय बहुजन सुखाय लोकानुक्म्पाय की विश्व विख्यात जन कल्याणकारी अवधारणा में देखा जा सकता है। शताब्दियों पूर्व भगवान बुद्ध ने जिन सिद्धान्तों एवं आदर्शों का प्रतिपादन किया वे आज के वैज्ञानिक युग में भी अपनी मान्यता बनाये हुए हैं। ये सभी सिद्धान्त एवं आदर्श सर्वप्रासांगिक और कालातीत हैं। आधुनिक संघर्षशील युग में यदि हम भगवान बुद्ध के सिद्धान्तों का अनुसरण करें तो निःसंदेह शांति एवं सद्भाव की स्थापना हा सकती हैं तथा सम्पूर्ण मानवता का कल्याण सम्भव हो सकता है।

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सामाजिक न्याय के दौर में बिहार का पसमांदा मुसलमान

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न्यायाधीश राजेन्द्र सच्चर, की अध्यक्षता में गठित सात सदस्यीय कमीटी ने जो रिपोर्ट सौंपी है उसमें मुसलमानों के एक बड़े ग्रूप की स्थिति आर्थिक, शैक्षणिक और सामाजिक तौर पर दलितों से भी ज्यादा खराब होने की बात कही है। इस रिपोर्ट में मुसलमानों के अन्दर तीन तरह की श्रेणी का जिक्र किया गया है।

1. पहला "अशराफ" जिसमें मुसलमानों की बड़ी जात के लोगों को दिखाया गया है।
2. दुसरा "अरजाल" जिसमें दलित पसमान्दा मुसलमानों को दिखाया गया है।
3. तीसरा "अजलाफ" को बताया है जो हिन्दुओं की अछूत जातियों से धर्म परिवर्तन कर मुसलमान बना है।

मुसलमानों का 'अरजाल' और 'अजलाफ' समूह जो कुल मुस्लिम आबादी का 85 प्रतिशत है और इसकी हालत इस देश के दूसरे दलितों से भी खराब बतायी गई है। मुसलमानों के इस समूह की बदहाल हालत कोई नई नहीं है, बल्कि एक सोची समझी साजिश के द्वारा मुसलमानों के इस समूह को पिछली पंक्ति का बनाकर रखा गया। इस देश में जहाँ लगभग 800 सालों तक मुसलमानों की राजसत्ता कायम रही है, इसके बाद भी मुसलमानों का यह समूह बदहाल जिंदगी जीता रहा जबकि इस्लाम धर्म बराबरी का हक देता है। लेकिन मुसलमानों का सत्ताधारी समूह धार्मिक मामलों में तो बराबरी की बात करते रहे, लेकिन सामाजिक, शैक्षणिक और आर्थिक रूप से इस समूह को हमेशा तीसरे दर्जे का बनाए रखा।

दूसरी तरफ हिन्दू दलित समूह जो लगभग पाँच हजार साल तक अछूत वाली जिंदगी गुजारती रही है, देश की स्वतंत्रता के बाद उसे आरक्षण देकर उच्च मुकाम प्राप्त करने का अवसर दिया गया और यही कारण है कि आज उच्चतम न्यायालय का मुख्य न्यायाधीश भी एक दलित है। स्वतंत्रता के बाद हिन्दू दलितों को सांविधानिक रूप से इसलिए आरक्षण दिया गया ताकि यह दलित समूह अपने धर्म के अन्दर के छुआछूत से तंग आकर कहीं दूसरा धर्म न अपना ले। इनके प्रमुख नेताओं ने सुझबुझ से काम लिया और इन्हें बहुत हद तक कामयाबी भी मिली। लेकिन दूसरी तरफ मुस्लिम समाज के नेताओं ने मुसलमानों के अंदर हमेशा बिखराव पैदा किया और कभी भी मुस्लिम कौम की मूल समस्या रोजी रोटी, शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य की बात न कर उन्मादी बातें करते रहे हैं। यथा बाबरी मस्जिद, प्रसनल सिविल कोड, शाहबानों मामला, अलिगढ़ मुस्लिम विश्वविद्यालय जैसे साम्प्रदायिक मुद्दों में मुसलमानों को उलझाकर रखा और अपना राजनीतिक फायदा उठाते रहे। बल्कि अब कुछ संगठनों की तरफ से मूल समस्या को उठाए जाने पर अशराफ समूह की तरफ से इसे फिर अगड़ा और पिछड़ा का नाम दिया जा रहा है। सच्चाई यह है कि इस देश के ज्यादातर मुसलमान लगभग 90 प्रतिशत से भी ज्यादा यहीं के हिन्दूओं से धर्म परिवर्तन कर मुसलमान बने हैं और 10 प्रतिशत से भी कम जो अरब के देशों से आए हैं, सत्तालोभी बनकर अगड़े बनाम पिछड़े मुसलमान की राजनीति के धुरी बने हुए हैं। जसवंत सिंह की पुस्तक "जिन्नाह-इत्तेहाद से तकसीम तक" से पता चलता है कि मुसलमानों में अगड़ा और पिछड़ा वर्ग विद्यमान है। "अशराफ एक इसतलाह है जो हिन्दुस्तान में आने वाले अजमी अरब तुर्क तारकीन-ए-वतन

के लिये इस्तेमाल की जाती है। सैयद और शेख वगैरह इसके शैली हलके हैं। गैर अशराफ मुसलमानों में तीन किस्म के लोग शामिल हैं। आला हिन्दु जातियों के मुसलमान होने वाले लोग, खास तौर पर राजपूत—जो सैयद जात में न हुए हों, दस्तकार मसलन जो लामअए और सबसे निचले तबके के नवमुस्लिम यानि अछूत।

यहाँ के हिन्दुओं से धर्म परिवर्तन करने वालों में शुद्रों की संख्या ज्यादा थी जबकि ऊँची जात के हिन्दुओं की संख्या कम थी। शुद्रों ने अपना यह कदम जात—पात और छुआछूत से छुटकारा पाने के लिए इस्लामी समानता को देखकर किया। इन दलितों के धर्म परिवर्तन करने से इनके काम—धन्धे, क्षेत्रीय पहचान, जात का नाम वगैरह तो न बदल सका, सिर्फ और सिर्फ धर्म बदला और उसके बदले में उसे एक इस्लामी नाम मिला। लेकिन काम—काज और सामाजिक पहचान जो पहले थी वह बाकी रही। आज भी अनेकों स्थान पर मुसलमान अपने हिन्दू भाईयों की क्षेत्रीय रिति—रिवाज को अपनाए हुए हैं। मुसलमानों में जात—पात का पता वर्ष 1901 के जनगणना से भी मिलता है। जिसमें मुसलमानों को चार ग्रुपों में बाँट कर दिखाया गया है।

इस रिपोर्ट के अनुसार—

1. मुसलमानों का एक समूह अपने को “अशराफ” बताता है और अपनी बुनियाद अरब या पर्सिया, तुर्किस्तान और अफगानिस्तान बताता है।
2. दूसरा समूह इसी देश की बड़ी जात के हिन्दुओं से धर्म परिवर्तन करके बना है।
3. तीसरा समूह हिन्दुओं की उन जातियों से धर्म परिवर्तन करके बना है जिसके काम—धन्धे बहुत हद तक साफ—सुथरे हैं।
4. चौथा समूह हिन्दुओं के अछूत ग्रुप से धर्म बदलकर मुसलमान बना है। जैसे मेहतर, चमार, डोम इत्यादि।

1955 के काका कालेलकर कमीटि जो आजादी के बाद की सभी धर्म की पिछड़ी जाति के हालात को जानने के लिए भारत की पहली कमीटि थी। इस कमीटि ने भी मुसलमानों को दो समूह “अशराफ” और “अरजाल” में बाँट कर दिखाया है। काका कालेलकर ने 1901 के जनगणना में बताए गए मुसलमानों के चार ग्रुपों को दो हिस्सों में कर दिया। जनगणना में बताए गए मुसलमानों के चार ग्रुप में से पहले और दूसरे को मिलाकर काका कालेलकर ने “अशराफ” नाम दिया और उसी जनगणना में बताए गए तीसरे और चौथे ग्रुप को मिलाकर “अरजाल” के ग्रुप में शामिल कर दिया।

शमसुल हक ने अपनी पुस्तक शठंबूतक डनेसपडे पद ठपीत” में मुस्लिम समुदाय के अन्दर पायी जाने वाली 26 पिछड़ी जातियों को दर्शाया है, इसी प्रकार जाबिर हुसैन ने अपनी पुस्तक “बिहार की मुस्लिम पसमांदा बिरादरी” में भी मुस्लिम पिछड़ी जाति के बुनियादी सामाजिक हालात का विस्तृत रूप से वर्णन किया है। कुमार सुरेश सिंह ने भी एक सर्वे रिपोर्ट तैयार किया था जिसकी बुनियाद पर मुसलमानों के दलित पसमांदा समूह को हिन्दुओं के दलित ग्रुप के नाम वाला बताया है साथ ही इन जातियों को एक ही काम करते हुए बताया है। इसमें मुसलमानों के 42

जातियों का उदाहरण प्रस्तुत किया गया है। साथ ही साथ इस रिपोर्ट से यह भी पता चलता है कि मुसलमानों के इस नाम वाली हिन्दू जाति के लोगों के सामाजिक, आर्थिक, शैक्षणिक पिछड़ापन को दूर करने के लिए सरकार से हर तरह का फायदा दिया जा रहा है।

सामाजिक न्याय और पसमांदा मुसलमान

मुस्लिम समाज में ऊँच नीच के भेदभाव और इसके एक तबके की हिन्दू दलितों से भी खराब हालत अब इस कदर उजागर हो रही है कि इसे नजर अंदाज करना किसी के लिए मुमकिन नहीं है। भारत का संविधान लिखे जाने के वक्त मुस्लिम नेताओं ने अपने समाज के दलित तबकों के लिए किसी तरह का आरक्षण नहीं मांगा। यह अपने मरहूम रहनुमाओं की नीयत पर शक नहीं बल्कि पिछले 67 साल के अनुभव का पीड़ादायक पहलू है कि अपने अंदर के भेदभाव और गैरबराबरी छिपाने का नतीजा अब नासूर के रूप में फूट रहा है। मुस्लिम समाज का एक तबका लगातार पिछड़ेपन का शिकार है। उसके अंदर कोई ऐसी चेतना **जागृत** नहीं हुई और न कोई ऐसी व्यवस्था बनी जिससे उस तबके को बराबरी का अवसर मिले। इस **झूठी शान** में कि हमारे समाज में जात पात, आला अदना और छूआछूत जैसी बीमारी नहीं है, गैर सरकारी स्तर पर भी कोई प्रयास नहीं किया गया और न ही मजहबी स्तर पर समाज सुधार के लिए कोई पहल की गयी। असलियत छिपाने की इसी जेहनियत की वजह से मुस्लिम समाज की यह बीमारी अब ऐसी नासूर बन चुकी है कि इसका एक तबका जानलेवा दर्द से कराह रहा है। ऐसे में उन्हें **संतोष** की टिकिया खिलाकर भला नींद में कब तक सुलाए रखा जा सकता है?

बिहार की पहल

बिहार देश का पहला राज्य है जिसने केन्द्र सरकार को सिफारिश भेज कर दलित मुसलमानों को अनुसूचित जाति का दर्जा और सहूलियत देने की मांग की है। पहले बिहार विधान मंडल के दोनों सदनों में इस आशय के प्रस्ताव पारित किये गये और दिसम्बर 2000 में बिहार मंत्रिपरिषद् ने भी ऐसा ही प्रस्ताव पारित किया। उधर दिसम्बर, 2000 में ही लोकसभा में मुस्लिम लीग के एक सदस्य द्वारा 'मुस्लिम आरक्षण' के सवाल पर पेश एक गैरसरकारी प्रस्ताव पर बहस हुई। श्री अटल बिहारी वाजपेयी की सरकार ने प्रस्ताव को मानने से इंकार किया। आखिर में सरकार के अनुरोध पर प्रस्तावक ने खुद अपना प्रस्ताव वापस कर लिया।

निष्कर्ष

यह उपदेश या राय नहीं, सवाल है कि क्या भारत के सियासी और मजहबी मुस्लिम नेताओं को ईसाईयों से सबक नहीं लेना चाहिए? ईसाई धर्म में भी तो व्यवहारिक तौर पर जात-पात नहीं है। लेकिन इस कड़वे सत्य को कबूल करते हुए कि असलियत में उनके यहां यह फर्क मौजूद है, उसके नेतृत्व ने अपनी दलित बिरादरी के लिए आरक्षण की मांग एकजुट होकर की है। मदर टेरेसा तक इस सवाल पर धरना पर बैठ चुकी हैं। मगर यह अफसोसजनक बात है कि मुसलमानों के स्थापित मजहबी और सियासी नेता अपने दलित समाज के लिए कोई पहल नहीं करते। उल्टे वे जिन पार्टियों में हैं, उन पार्टियों के नेताओं को यह समझाते रहे हैं कि ऐसा करने से उनका 'वोट बैंक' बिखर जायेगा। मौजूदा दौर में सामाजिक न्याय की पैरोकार पार्टियों और नेता जिनसे दलित मुसलमानों के साथ हो रही इस नाइंसाफी के खिलाफ कदम उठाने की उम्मीद की जाती है, वे भी खामोश हैं। शायद उन्हें इस बात का डर है कि ऐसा करने से कहीं उनसे फॉरवर्ड मुस्लिम बिदक न जायें।

तथाकथित फॉरवर्ड मुस्लिम नेता ही नहीं, कतिपय बैकवर्ड मुस्लिम नेता भी जाने अनजाने इस तरह की मांग उछाल रहे हैं, जिससे दलित मुसलमानों को अनुसूचित जाति की सुविधा देने की मांग को नुकसान पहुंच रहा है। मसलन इन नेताओं ने मध्यवर्ती बिरादरियों को भी शिड्यूल अनुसूचित जाति की सूची में शामिल करने की मांग की है। इसमें कोई शक नहीं कि मुस्लिम हुकूमतों से लेकर ब्रिटिश रूल तक इस तरह की बिरादरियों की हालत अनुसूचित जाति जैसी ही थी। 1901 की जनगणना रिपोर्ट में जुलाहा, कुंजड़ा तथा धुनिया आदि बिरादरियों को 'अरजाल' श्रेणी में रखा गया था। मगर कालान्तर में काफी जद्दोजहद करके इन बिरादरियों ने तरक्की की है। इनके बीच शिक्षा का प्रचार प्रसार भी हुआ है। इनके बीच बेदारी पैदा हुई है और वे संगठित भी हुए हैं। रही बात राज्य के गरीब और बेबस बुनकरों तथा दूसरे कारीगरों एवं ऐसे ही खस्ताहाल पेशों में लगे लोगों की, तो उनपर अलग से ध्यान देने की जरूरत है। सस्ती लोकप्रियता के लिए इन बिरादरियों को भी शिड्यूल कास्ट में शामिल करने की मांग से अगर बैकवर्ड नेताओं ने तौबा नहीं किया तो इसके बुरे अंजाम हो सकते हैं।

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Intellectual Property Rights: A Medium for Protection and Quality Control

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Abstract

Intellectual property is the product of intellectual, whose aspects are recognized. It consists of a bundle of rights in relation to certain material object created by the owner. It has globally received increasing importance. The global scenario of intellectual property rights (IPRs) is undergoing profound modifications as we approach the next century. Numerous developing countries recently have undertaken significant strengthening of their IPRs regimes. For many companies patents and intellectual property rights can be a great thing because it allows them to recoup any costs they incurred in the development of their product. The present paper aims at emphasizing the role and importance of IPRs in today's scenario.

Intellectual Property Rights (IPRs)

Intellectual property rights includes the following independent rights which can be collectively used for protecting different categories of an inventive work for varied protection:

- Patents
- Copyrights
- Trademarks
- Registered (industrial) design
- Protection of IC layout design,
- Geographical indications, and
- Protection of undisclosed information
-

Nature of Intellectual Property Rights

IPR are the territorial rights except copyright, which is global in nature because a copyright is immediately available in all the members of the Berne Convention. These rights are awarded by the State and are monopoly rights, which means that no one can use these rights without the consent of the holder of that particular right. It is important to know that these rights have to be renewed from timely to make them enforceable except in case of copyright and trade secrets.

IPRs has an fixed time duration except trademark and geographical indications, which can have indefinite life provided these are renewed after the specified time in the law by paying official fees. Trade secrets also have an infinite life but they don't have to be renewed. IPR can be assigned, gifted, sold and licensed like any other property. Unlike other moveable and immoveable properties, these rights can be simultaneously held in many countries at the same time. IPR can be held only by legal entities who have the right to sell and purchase property. In other words an institution, which is not autonomous may not be in a position to own an intellectual property. Improvements and modifications made over known things can be protected.

Why intellectual property is trade-related

The commercial importance of IPRs has grown considerably, especially since the 1970s. Those national economies in which most IPR-holding corporations are concentrated have experienced a transformation in the composition of their export trade in manufactures. Since 1970, for most developed countries the contribution of advanced technologies to economic performance in terms of manufacturing value-added and exports has increased substantially.

One reason for this situation is the incessant and increasing pressure on businesses and national economies to be competitive. This puts a premium on innovation and creativity aimed at developing new products and services and at differentiating existing ones from those of competitors. Perhaps the most important of these advanced technologies are information and communications technology (ICT) and those based upon the applied life sciences. Both have multiple industrial applications and are of interest to companies operating in a wide range of product and service markets. So in addition to the commercial interests responsible for innovating in these fields, such as software, telecommunications, pharmaceutical and biotechnology companies, many other business sectors deploy these technologies including producers and providers of computers and other electronic goods, music, television programmes, films, printed works and financial services to name a few.

Technological change creates new opportunities for private appropriation, but also poses new challenges. One of these challenges is the threat of free-riding, which certain new technologies may facilitate. IP protection helps to maximize these opportunities while minimizing the risks. This is why many companies operating in all the above sectors hold large intellectual property portfolios protecting products and services developed through the deployment of these technologies. Indeed, for such businesses, the high market value of their goods and services may be due largely to such IPR-protectable intangible inputs as technical knowledge and artistic creativity or attributes like reputation and distinctiveness. Such businesses assert these rights with great determination. After all, developing, applying and benefiting commercially from such inputs and attributes can involve enormous research and development (R&D) and marketing expenditures.

Moreover, despite the knowledge-rich corporations' market dominance, they are also highly vulnerable. While the marginal cost of manufacturing such goods as software packages, compact disks and videos is extremely low, so is the marginal and fixed cost of copying them. Multiple reproduction of these goods is possible with low cost equipment and minimal (if any) technical know-how. In countries where IPR such as patents, copyrights and trademarks are unavailable or enforcement is weak, imitators can quickly and inexpensively copy these products and sell them at home and in other countries where effective IPR protection is also weak. Similarly plant-breeding companies can find their non-hybrid plant varieties being sold without their consent. Even though entry barriers for generic drug firms are higher in that competent chemists need to be hired and bulk production will require more expensive equipment than for, say software and compact disk piracy, the free-riding problem that research-based drug companies face is also potentially serious.

Need for Intellectual Property Protection

These laws grant the "owner" a monopoly on the use or copying of the protected "property". This

was done historically to both grant a boon to a ruler's or king's favorite, as well as to resolve a free rider problem or coping someone else efforts without permission ("to promote the progress of science and useful arts"). In the latter sense, patents and copyrights serve as incentive to inventors and authors to produce works, which benefit the public. These creators can demand a fee from those who wish to copy their invention or publish their compositions.

Seen as an incentive to benefit the public, patent rights in particular have sometimes promoted innovation by ensuring that someone who devoted, say, ten years of penury while struggling to develop vulcanized rubber or a workable steamship, could recoup his investment of time and energy. The inventor could demand a fee from those who wanted to make copies of his invention. Set it too high, and others would simply try to make a competing invention, but set it low enough and one could make a good living from the fees.

In latter years, the public benefit idea has been downplayed in favour of the idea that the primary purpose of "property rights" is to benefit the holder. This view places a priority on the benefit of the patent or copyright holder, even to the detriment of society at large, and has attracted some opponents.

In some fields, patent law has had an unintended, indeed, a perverse consequence: treating mental products like physical ones has stifled innovation in those fields, rather than aiding it.

Conclusion

The intellectual property rights are gaining significant importance globally, but the new economic regime is posing it many counters. The management of IPRs is focused on maximizing the profitability of an enterprise through developing, licensing and exploiting through IP. For any hi-tech venture, IP is the lifeblood of the enterprise. IP being an intangible asset requires proper management to guard it for getting the maximum returns for the development of the same. The management should aim at evaluating the various scenarios that will help in the successful maintenance and protection of the IPRs development worldwide.

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Teacher: A Emancipator of Soul

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Abstract

From the ancient Vedic period to the present era of cyber and digital technology the value of education and educators had increased manifold. Mother or family being our first teachers to formal school or higher education we learn or improve with the help of teachers at every level. We might have the vast ocean of information, notes, books, study material on the internet but nobody has been able to replace or substitute the role of a teacher in our lives. There might be online schools or universities who don't need physical presence of a teacher but still they provide the guidance of the teachers through video conferencing. The role of the teacher has always been changing with the progress of the student from primary to the middle, the high school & so on this role comes along with greater obligation with each passing year in this comparative era. From the ancient time of Gurukul Culture to present era of professional teaching. The role of a teacher cannot be negative as sometimes people loosely remark that one other times of importance of teacher in once life. It is a gross misunderstanding because the importance of teachers in once life cannot decline but with the times, circumstances & change in ideology the role and the art of teaching undergoes drastic changes. Hence to say that in contemporary time one does not need a teacher is a myth.

Keywords: Teacher, student, guru, gurukul, education, mentor, virtual teaching, tabula rasa

Introduction

सब धरती कागज करू, लेखनी सब वनराज|

सात समुंद्र की मस करू, गुरु गुण लखा न जाये||

यह तन वष की बेलरी, गुरु अमृत की खान|

शीश दियो जो गुरु मले, तो भी सस्ता जान||

Prescribing the importance of a teacher Sant Kabirdas says that: If he makes this earth his writing pad & all the forests as his pen & the seven oceans as ink even then he won't be able to list all the qualities of his teacher. We are store of darkness & ignorance, it is only the teacher who can take us to the light of knowledge & salvation. He says that even if one gets mentorship of his/her teacher at the cost of his life, then also it would be a profitable deal. Life is an enormous, hollow and dark tunnel. Children have to cross this tunnel to dazzling success. Obstacles will hinder them and this is where teachers come into the scene. Teachers play the role of

the torch. They cohere to the students and guide them out and away from their bottleneck. Children are like clay in a potter's hand. Just as a potter gives a desired shape to the clay in his hands, so do children become what their parents make them. This is primarily the reason why the early growing years in a child's life are the most crucial and lay the foundation for developing their nature, personality and the individual self. These days, more and more children live in a household where both parents are working and often, such children rely heavily on their teachers for help, advice, and guidance. There is no denying the fact that the role of a teacher in a student's life is very crucial right from the time when a child joins a daycare center to the stage when he/she takes a step forward towards establishing a professional career. A good teacher, in fact, becomes a role model for students. Students tend to follow their teacher in almost every way. The teacher's caring attitude will have an influence on students. Student's self-esteem could be lifted up because it could create ambitions in their minds for future academic success. So the teacher should have professional competence as well as a good moral background in order to impart these values to students.

In this changing global world, the value of education and educators had increased manifolds. The instruction doesn't consist primarily of lecturing to students who sit in rows at desks, dutifully listening and recording what they hear, but, rather, offers every child a rich, rewarding, and unique learning experience. The educational environment isn't confined to the classroom but, instead, extends into the home and the community and around the world.

Students aren't consumers of the facts. They are active creators of knowledge. Schools aren't just brick-and-mortar structures -- they're centers of lifelong learning. And, most important, teaching is recognized as one of the most challenging and respected career choices, absolutely vital to the social, cultural, and economic health of our nation. Information isn't bound primarily in books; it's available everywhere in bits and bytes. We might have the vast ocean of information, notes, books, study material on the internet but nobody has been able to replace or substitute the role of a teacher in our lives. How blessed is a person who has achieved the proximity of Guru, his blessings and subtle protection; can be appreciated from the following lines of Hindi verse "Guru bin gyan nahin re nahin re; Guru bin jivan aisa hota, jaise pran nahin re nahin re". (Meaning: Spiritual knowledge cannot be attained without the help of the Guru. Life without Guru is like a body without life-breath). In India, from the ancient times, the responsibility of selecting the right disciples, removing their darkness of ignorance, guiding them to achieve salvation and serve humanity has been assigned to a self-realized teacher.

There might be online schools or universities who don't need the physical presence of a teacher but still, they provide the guidance of the teachers through video conferencing. To some people might think this concept of virtual teaching is a gift of scientific advancement and modernity but Indian mythology has evident examples of virtual or telepathic teaching.

One such story is the inspiring story of Eklavya relates to us how only with the statue of his idol teacher, Guru Dronacharya he practiced the art of archery assuming that the statue is guiding and teaching him. Eklavya became the best archer of his time defeating even Arjuna, the best student of Guru Dronacharya. Not only he credited Guru Dronacharya for being his teacher but when his hostile teacher told him to pay reverence (Gurudakshina). He willingly gave away his right-hand thumb so that Arjuna could be the best archer without anyone being his competitor.

This story tells us no matter how gifted a person is but you always need the art of the teacher to nurture your talent or the uncapped potential. Shankaracharya has compared Guru with Paras (touchstone) who not only transforms the disciple into his own likeness but also transfers so much spiritual power to him that the latter becomes paras itself. When such a disciple comes in contact with an ordinary person who is like crude iron ore, the latter gets transformed into a virtuous person (precious like gold). Teachers have the art of polishing students' raw ideas into finished products. As said in our ancient granthas:

अनन्तपारं कल शब्दशास्त्रंस्वल्पं तथा युर्बहवश्च वध्नाः।

सारं ततो ग्राह्यमपास्य फल्गु हंसो यथा क्षीरं मवाम्बू मध्यात्॥

The quote says that Ancient Indian scriptures are infinite but our line of life is limited, and we have hurdles in our lives at every level. We should be like a swan that can drink out milk out of water. But to drink the milk we need to know the way out. This art can be inculcated in us only by the guidance of a teacher.

In the fast-changing world of the early 21st-century public education is also changing. As part of the changes, the role of schools and education is also changing both in the educational system and in society. Together with them, the role of teachers has also changed. We come across many teachers in our academic career, particularly right from kindergarten to the University level studies & sometime after that too. The role of the teacher has always been changing with the progress of the student from primary to the middle, the high school & so on this role comes along with greater obligation with each passing year in this comparative era. Many teachers today are encouraged to adapt and adopt new practices that acknowledge both the art and science of learning. They understand that the essence of education is a close relationship between a knowledgeable, caring adult and a secure, motivated child. They grasp that their most important role is to get to know each student as an individual in order to comprehend his or her unique needs, learning style, social and cultural background, interests, and abilities. Aside from rethinking their primary responsibility as directors of student learning, teachers are also taking on other roles in schools and in their

profession. They are working with colleagues, family members, politicians, academics, community members, employers, and others to set clear and obtainable standards for the knowledge, skills, and values we should expect children to acquire. They are participating in day-to-day decision making in schools, working side-by-side to set priorities, and dealing with organizational problems that affect their students' learning.

From the ancient time of Gurukul Culture to present era of professional teaching. From authoritarian demi-God Gurus to the liberal teachers the class of teaching and the role of a teacher has undergone changes or rather has progressed with the times, but in no way has become unimportant. The pattern and culture of teaching and learning process has been changing. In ancient times, teachers used to be teaching in their ashrams and the students would have to make the teachers by working hard at the ashram. The students used to collect firewoods, fodder for the castles, clean the house and cook food for the gurus. Gradually this system changed and now formal education has been in trend. Students pay fees instead of working at *guru's ashram* and study in the classrooms. Also, with the change in this pattern of teaching, students have failed to respect teachers like the students years ago used to. The role of a teacher was different before, but now, since the world has changed a lot, and there are a lot of other means for people to receive information like media, internet, etc. Students today are more informed than before, and so the teachers are more of a facilitator there. There is no such charm in the relationship of the teacher and student like before. Teachers teach and students learn, there is no intimacy between the teachers and students. When this becomes worst, and there is a huge communication gap between the teacher and the student, then there occurs a problem in the relationship between them. The actual teacher-student relationship, however, changes during the career. Traditionally, teaching was a combination of information-dispensing, custodial childcare and sorting out academically inclined students from others. The underlying model for schools was an education factory in which adults, paid hourly or daily wages, kept like-aged youngsters sitting still for standardized lessons and tests.

Teachers can be expected to facilitate learning. They should promote critical thinking within the realm of the area of study. Teachers are no longer believed to be the omniscient beings that we once were. We should be teaching our students to find answers to their own questions and facilitate investigative studies. New social challenges and demands towards education and teachers change schools into institutions with modern aims and social contracts. Many teachers today are encouraged to adapt and adopt new practices that acknowledge both the art and science of learning. They understand that the essence of education is a close relationship between a knowledgeable, caring adult and a secure, motivated child. A teacher that provides the right encouragement and direction to his/her students, can actually help them grow into a fine young individual of tomorrow, by imparting values such as perseverance, hard work, determination, and respect. Right from the child's toddler days, his/her interaction with this parent-like figure begins and goes right into his/her adulthood, and while the faces that interact with him/her may change over the years, the role remains a constant.

The way a teacher influences a child in his/her life is different in different phases, let's take a look at how a teacher moves from being a guide to a mentor to a friend, to his/her students in order to help them grow into capable individuals of tomorrow.

The role of a teacher for in a child's early years is that of a guide. A guide who leads them down new paths. A guide who walks beside them and keeps them safe from harm, while letting them explore all the new things around them. A teacher in a toddler's life is essentially a partner in their learning experience and is a person who encourages them to find their own answers and discovering the world that they live in for the first time.

Once teachers have guided young toddlers to find their own voice, in the next phase of a child's life, teachers can help them explore special interests or talents, which can have a great impact on their future development. At this tender and influential age, children often look to their teachers as role models, and the qualities that a teacher demonstrates through their own behavior can affect a child later in life. Even the way a teacher communicates and expresses himself/herself can be a big influence on a child's behavior. This is also a stage, when teachers can be firm with their students, by setting boundaries for them, on what is acceptable behavior and what is not. Children in their school environment with the help of teachers often imbibe values such as punctuality, perseverance, and morality.

The student teacher relationship is primarily one of trust, guidance, and encouragement, and as a child grows into a young adult, a teacher often starts being a friend and confidant for the student. If a teacher majorly influences a student, he/she is likely to seek advice and counsel from him/her on the future he/she should build, on the choices that he/she can make, the set of ideals he/she should follow. Teachers shoulder the responsibility of breeding good citizens of tomorrow, by not only providing education but also providing students with a chance to mold their future into a bright and promising one.

They grasp that their most important role is to get to know each student as an individual in order to comprehend his or her unique needs, learning style, social and cultural background, interests, and abilities. The day-to-day job of a teacher, rather than broadcasting content is becoming one of designing and guiding students through engaging learning opportunities. An educator's most important responsibility is to search out and construct meaningful educational experiences that allow students to solve real-world problems and show they have learned the big ideas, powerful skills, and habits of mind and heart that meet agreed-on educational standards. The result is that the abstract, inert knowledge that students used to memorize from textbooks comes alive as they participate in the creation and extension of new knowledge.

A teacher and a student should always strive to have a good relationship in order to fare well in the classroom. In fact, a good relationship creates many advantages between both teacher and student. For instance, a good relationship produces a good environment within the classroom, which can be a vital point to the success of both teacher and student. On the other hand, there is a flip side to

the coin and that is a bad relationship. A bad relationship is where most of the problems come about in the classroom for both teacher and student. Teaching and teacher come in being only when student and learning and keenness of learning exists. When the teacher creates an environment that the student feels comfortable and welcome it could only open the door for knowledge and even more. The reason is that the student feels confident to express himself without any fear of being isolated and ridicule from his peers and teachers. The teacher can also benefit from a good environment because the teacher will probably be more inclined to teach with inspiration and creativity. When someone feels comfortable in their environment, one is able to challenge many things that are not reasonable. Teaching, thus, is a two-way relationship, the teacher can teach or guide student only if the student has the keenness of learning. If a student thinks that he/ she does not need to learn anything from the teacher than even the best of the teacher won't be able to teach that student. If a teacup is already filled and you pour in more tea into it than the tea will overflow. Similarly, if a student thinks he knows more than the teacher than the cannot give more knowledge to the student. As John Locke, the English Philosopher, describes in his theory of 'Tabula rasa'(blank slate), a student should come with a blank slate that means open mind so that the teacher can write on the slate or give knowledge to the student. In our divine culture, Shraddha (devotion) has been logically explained as the power of concentrating the mind and molding it towards greatness with single-pointed devotion. The science calls this process as the integration of mind. It is through this process that the disciple surrenders himself totally to the Guru and then becomes one with him. As known, children are the future human resource of a country. It's up to the teachers to gather the vagabonds and mold them into full-fledged reservoirs of knowledge. The teaching-learning process involves a teacher and a student. It is very important for both of them to have a healthy relationship in order to carry out the teaching-learning process smoothly. Teachers are known to be the second parents. Parents provide us moral education and teachers provide us rest of the knowledge necessary for living and knowing the world. The gurus of the ancient era are now addressed by 'sir' or the last name. The child's relationship with the teacher determines the grade and academics of the student. Teachers control the destiny of the students for more than two decades. Ultimately, the product comes out. The way the teacher has shaped the mind and creativity of the student then shows. Establishing a positive teacher-student relationship helps to yield a beautiful environment in the classroom. A teacher is also a guide, a friend, a counselor and also like a gardener who waters the tiny flowers called children. If the teacher-student relationship is to be maximally productive, must reflect certain attitudes and commitments of each to the other. First, the student must respect his or her teacher and hold him in the highest esteem. Even though this instruction may be uncomfortable and disconcerting at times, but a teacher always wants his student to do good. The student must believe that the teacher always has his or her best interests in mind. All the time, the teacher looks forward to improving his student and polish the creativity in the student. The student must commit himself or herself to follow the instruction with utmost discipline, just as a doctor's order must be followed precisely since failure to do so could cause

harm, so a teacher's advice must be obeyed with equal sincerity. A teacher is the student's pathfinder.

Be it the tradition of Guru Purnima or the teachers' day, the Indian culture has always shown their gratitude towards the noble art of teaching and the teachers. The Prime Minister, Shri Narendra Modi, greeted India's teachers, on Teachers' Day, 5th September 2014. Prime Minister Narendra Modi has called upon teachers to widen the horizon of thinking of their students and to encourage them to think critically about broader issues concerning the nation. "Teaching is not just another profession. It is a divine responsibility to guide and enlighten." Highlighting the importance of a teacher in student's life Prime Minister Modi says, "The influences and experiences you share with your students will remain with them for a lifetime. You are also laying the foundation and the building blocks of the society. This is a responsibility of great significance because on this depends how our present and future generations will thrive."

Conclusion:

It's quite evident that a teacher so-called a facilitator is the key to tomorrow in this competitive & professional world. The teaching fraternity is extremely blessed to have got the chance & ecstasy of this biggest social & mankind service. The role of a teacher in one's cannot be negated; as sometimes people loosely remark that one does not have any importance of teacher in once life. It is a gross misunderstanding because the importance of teachers in once life cannot decline but with the times, circumstances & change in ideology the role and the art of teaching undergoes drastic changes. Hence to say that in contemporary time one does not need a teacher is a myth. The following quote aptly depicts the significance of a teacher:

गुरु गो वन्द दोऊ खडे, काके लागू पाय।
ब लहारी गुरु आपने गो वन्द दियो बताय॥

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MARITAL ADJUSTMENT IN RELATION TO FAMILIAR FACTORS AMONG WOMEN

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to see the impact of familiar factors on women's marital adjustment. In this context, 200 women's selected as a research sample from Kalyanpur Block area in Samastipur District in Bihar State. The age ranges of research sample were from 26 years to 40 years with an average age range of 33 years. The Marital Adjustment Inventory developed by Kumar, P and Rahtogi (1985) and Self prepared Personal Data Sheet was administered upon research sample. The obtained data were analyzed with t-test method. The findings revealed that, (i) The respondents belonging to single families had better marital adjustment while respondents belonging to joint families had poor marital adjustment level. (ii) There was significant difference between high socio-economic status group of respondents and low socio-economic status group of respondents. In this context, marital adjustment was found in better position among high socio-economic group of respondents. (iii) Educated individuals had better marital adjustment than those of marital adjustment of non educated individuals. (iv) Respondents belonging to positive attitude families had better marital adjustment than those of marital adjustment of respondents belonging to negative attitude families.

KEY WORDS : *Marital adjustment, Familiar, Factors, Womens.*

INTRODUCTION :

Marital adjustment is a process which is created during couple's life because it is necessary for taste conformity, person's traits, recognition, behavioral rules, creation and relational models formation.

Marital adjustment denotes emotional stability, intellectual efficiency and social effectiveness people. Marriage is the key to while some adjustment involvement and satisfaction. Marital adjustment seems complex than it may appear basically, in marriage; two persons adjust to each other's sensory, motor, emotional and intellectual capacities. Thus marital adjustment is an evolutionary process between couples. It is the state in which there is an overall feeling in husband and wife of happiness and satisfaction with their marriage and with each other (Thomas, 1977).

Marital adjustment refers to a state of accommodation which is achieved in different areas where conflict many exist. Marital adjustment of individual's largely upon their familiar background factors.

Marital adjustment is almost a century old issue, being studied by psychologists and sociologist. Relationship quality of married couples is deemed to be of great importance for the stability of the whole family, as husband and wife are the pillars, which hold the family together.

The present study has been undertaken to study the marital adjustment in relation to familiar background factors among women.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE :

Srivastava, Singh and Nigam (1988) studied the effect of certain demographic characteristics such as age differences, duration of marriage, education, occupation, socio-economic status and numbers of children on marital adjustment. The findings in this context indicate that age differences between husband and wife highly contributed toward marital adjustment.

Hansen (1989) had conducted a study on assessment of factors in marital adjustment and found that more factors are significantly related to adjustment for urban than for rural subjects and they are lower predictor for the urban groups.

According to Hashmi et al, (2007) marital adjustment has been related to personality, job, home stress, mental illness, depression, education, sex role attitude, happiness and success in life.

Sabre, K. (2016) studied the marital adjustment among women of nuclear and joint family and found that there was significant difference in marital adjustment among women and nuclear and joint family. In this context they found that women belonging to nuclear families showed higher level of marital adjustment as compared to women of joint families.

In another study Pal, Renu (2016) found in their study that working women face more marital adjustment problems in their married life as compared to non-working married women.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY :

The main objective of the study was to present the impact of familiar factors on marital adjustment among women.

HYPOTHESIS :

- (i) There is significant difference in marital adjustment between single family respondents and joint family respondents.
- (ii) There is significant difference in marital adjustment between respondents of high and low socio-economic families.
- (iii) There is significant difference in marital adjustment between respondents of educated and non-educated respondents.
- (iv) There is significant difference in marital adjustment between respondents of positive attitude and negative attitude families.

METHOD :

(i) SAMPLE :

Total 200 women selected as a research sample from Kalyanpur Block area in Samastipur District areas in Bihar State. The age ranges of research sample were from 26 years to 40 years with an average age range of 33 years.

(ii) SCALES USED :

Following research scales were used to collect the data from research sample.

(a) Marital Adjustment Inventory :

The Marital Adjustment Inventory developed by P. Kumar and K. Rohatogi (1985) was used to measure the respondent's marital adjustment level. The scale involves 25 questions with dichotomous options (yes / no). The higher scores on this scale shows better marital adjustment and lower scores on this scale denotes poor marital adjustment.

(b) Personal Data Sheet :

Self prepared Personal Data Sheet regarding respondent's background information's like name, age, sex, rural-urban inhabitation, financial status, type of family, nos. of family members, academic background of respondent's and their family member etc was applied.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION :

Table No.-i

Comparison of Marital Adjustment between Single family Respondents and Joint family Respondents :

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	df
Respondents of Single family	100	30.6	4.11	7.69	<.01	198
Respondents of Joint family	100	25.7	3.67			

Table No.-ii

Comparison of Marital Adjustment between Respondents of High SES Group and Low SES Group :

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	df
Respondents of High SES Group	86	31.01	4.62	6.34	<.01	158
Respondents of Low SES Group	74	27.05	3.44			

Table No.-iii

Comparison of Marital Adjustment between Educated and Non-educated Respondent's :

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	df
Educated Respondents	100	34.45	4.10	8.61	<.01	198
Non-educated Respondents	100	31.06	3.88			

Table No.-iv

Comparison of Marital Adjustment between Respondents of Positive Attitude and Negative Attitude Families :

Groups	N	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	df
Respondents of Positive Attitude Families	80	27.22	4.01	10.42	<.01	168
Respondents of Negative Attitude Families	90	22.41	3.85			

An observation of above table no-i, revealed that, there were significant difference between single family respondents and joint family respondents. In this context, respondents of single families were obtained more mean (30.63) and SD (4.11) and joint family respondents were obtained less mean (25.71) and SD (3.67) on marital adjustment measures. The calculated t-value (7.69) was found significant at <.01 level of confidence. This result clears that marital adjustment of single family respondents were found better than those of joint family respondents. Thus, these results confirm our hypothesis no.-i that "there is significant difference in marital adjustment between single family respondents and joint family respondents".

An observation of above table no.-ii clears that, the high socio-economic groups of respondents were found in better marital adjustment than those of low socio-economic group of respondents. In this context, t-value (6.34) was found significant at <.01, level of confidence. According to this result, it can be said that, respondent's socio-economic status play positive role in respondents marital adjustment. Thus, this result confirms our earlier made hypothesis no.-ii. That, "there is significant difference in marital adjustment between respondents of high socio-economic status families and low socio-economic families".

Table no.-iii shows the significant difference between educated and non-educated respondents interm of their marital adjustment. Because of educated respondents were obtained more mean (34.45) and SD (4.10) while non educated respondents were obtained less mean (31.06) and SD (3.88) on marital adjustment measures. The calculated t-value (8.61) was found significant at <.01 level of confidence. This result revealed that educated couples understand the better marital adjustment than those of non-educated couples.

Table no.-iv clears the marital adjustment of respondents belonging to positive attitude families were found better while marital adjustment of respondents belonging to negative attitude families were found in poor status. The calculated t-value (10.42) was found significant at <.01 level of confidence. Thus, this result confirms our earlier made hypothesis that, "there is significant difference in marital adjustment between respondents of positive and negative attitude families.

CONCLUSION :

- (i) The respondents belonging to single families had better marital adjustment while respondents belonging to joint families had poor marital adjustment level.
- (ii) There was significant difference between high socio-economic status group of respondents and low socio-economic status group of respondents. In this context, marital adjustment was found in better position among high socio-economic group of respondents.

- (iii) Educated individuals had better marital adjustment than those of marital adjustment of non educated individuals.
- (iv) Respondents belonging to positive attitude families had better marital adjustment than those of marital adjustment of respondents belonging to negative attitude families.

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AGRICULTURAL PRACTICES IN SHEOHAR DISTRICT OF BIHAR : A GEOGRAPHICAL APPROACH

by

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Abstract:

The term 'pattern' simply expresses the landscape. In particular context to the pattern of agricultural practices, the clear cut concept goes to the agricultural landscape of the region concerned. Agricultural land utilization is the most dominant form of resource utilization in the area under study. Being a part and parcel of the Gangetic plain, the state is predominantly an agricultural tract and will remain in similar condition in the years to come as around 80% of its working population is engaged in agricultural pursuits. Hence agricultural instinct is thoroughly embodied in the life and culture of the people. In the true sense of the term agricultural lands are the providers of human wants, the sustenance to the living, i.e. food. Geographical methods can be used advantageously in analysis of farm units, patterns of cropping and livestock, intensity of usage, diffusion of techniques, effects of changed methods and innumerable other aspects of agriculture.

Keywords: Land utilization, resource utilization, agricultural tract, agricultural pursuits, culture, sustenance, providers,

▪ **Geographical personality:**

Sheohar district its total geographical area as 442.99 square kilometers is a level plain rising very slowly and gradually towards north. Thus, the present district of Sheohar, the western part of the old district of Sitamarhi lies between 26°18'30" N and 26°56'15" N latitudes and 85°12'15" E long to 85°28'30" E longitude. The district is a fertile alluvial plain with a general slope from north to south or south-eastward varied by a depression in the centre, corresponding roughly with Tajpur. (Ahmad, E, 1982, pp 2-5). Between two streams the general elevation is lower and considerable areas are liable to inundation (Choudhury, P.C.R. 1963, pp. 2-11). Geologically, the region is composed of more recent deposits of sand and silt brought down by river Bagmati. This wide alluvial plain forms a part of genetic depression with alluvial deposit of immense depth. (Ayyer, N.P., 1969, pp. 17-23). It is broken elsewhere by groups and low land of elevated or isolated land arising abruptly from the level country at their feet. They gradually disappear the further north while the southern part of the district that comprises Tariani Chowk block is the lower part of the district. The region under study can be divided into following three physiographic units: northern or north-western higher land, intermediate flat plain tract and southern low land. The whole of this tract is drained by Bagmati river coupled with several small tributaries which take their origin from the northern hills and follow, more or less, in right-angle or angular course towards southern direction. (Ahmad, E, 1965, pp. 12-19). The average annual rainfall in the district is 1254.3 mm. The rainfall generally increases from south-west toward to north-east. The highest temperature occurs in the region in the month of May which is 39.62°C and the lowest in January that is 6.24°C. The soil of

the district is entirely alluvial. The Soil consists mainly of the older alluvium or banger, yellowish clay with frequent deposits of kankar or granular but in some parts this has been cut away by the river Bagmati or its tributaries. The humidity never goes below 40% throughout the year. Soil of the region is of two types: (a) Bhangar Soil (Older Alluvium) and (b) Khadar Soil (Newer Alluvium). The Bhangar soil is restricted to the higher surface of land and Bhangar varies to a great extent in texture and chemical composition. But mostly it is loam with a fairly high clay factor.

▪ **Net Area Sown:**

Net area sown denotes the geographical extent of cultivated or sown land during a year. Such land that has been brought under agricultural purposes is known as net area sown. Out of the total geographical area of the region 68.24% area is used for agricultural purposes. The total area under NAS is 30230 sq. km. (302.30 sq. km.). All land classed as net area sown plus all the fallows may be regarded as arable land. (Ahmad, E, 1965, p, 87). As the study region is basically an agricultural one, so the net area sown naturally shared the highest percentage in the basin. but there is a good deal of regional variation in the use of land under this category as mentioned in the following table :

Table - 01
Dist. - Sheohar
Net Area Sown, 2015-18

S.N. Block	TAH	NSA	%age of NSA to total area	
1	Purnahiya	6410	4611.14	71.94
2	Piprarhi	8268	6033.21	72.97
3	Sheohar	9282	6327.54	68.17
4	DumriKatsari	6659	4109.83	61.72
5	TarianiChowk	13680	9148.28	66.87
	Dist.- total	44299	30230.00	68.24

Source: Computed by research scholar.

TAH--Total area in hect., NSA--Net area sown in hectares.PTA--%age of NSA to total area of the dist.

The above mentioned table shows the distribution of net area sown among different blocks of the district. The highest percentage of NAS (72.97%) is found in Piprarhi block next followed by Purnahiya block (71.94%), Sheohar block (68.17%), Tarianichowk block (66.87%) . and the lowest percentage (61.72%) of net area sown in DumriKatsari block.

▪ **Total Cropped Area:**

Total cropped area includes the net area sown plus area sown more than once. The following table displays percentage of the total cropped land in each and every block to its total area in Sheohar district.

Table - 02
Dist. - Sheohar
Total Cropped Area, 2015-18

S.N. Block	NASH.	ASMH.PASMOH	TCAH.	PTCA		
1	Purnahiya	4611.14	1044.45	22.65	5655.59	88.23
2	Piprarhi	6033.21	1345.20	22.30	7378.41	89.24
3	Sheohar	6327.54	2187.77	34.58	8515.31	91.74

4	DumriKatsari	4109.83	1062.78	25.86	5172.61	77.68
5	TarianiChowk	9148.28	1526.69	16.69	10674.97	78.03
	Dist.- total	30230.00	7166.88	23.71	37396.88	84.42

Computed by Research Scholar.

NASH--Net area sown in hectares.,ASMH--Area sown more than once. In hect.,PASMOH--%age Area sown more than once in hect.,TCAH--Total cropped area in hect., PTCA--%age of TCA to total cropped area

The above mentioned table shows the distribution of net area sown along with the distribution of the area sown more than once among different blocks of the district. Out of the total geographical area in the district 84.42 percent area comprising 37396.88 hectares of land is the total cropped area. The area sown more than once of NAS is 23.71% comprising 7166.88 hectares of land. The highest percentage of the total cropped land is 91.74% in Sheohar block comprising 8515.31 hectares of land. The area sown more than once is 34.58% in Sheohar block that comprises 2187.77 hectares of land. The block of Sheohar is next followed by Piprarhi block where the percentage of total cropped land is 89.24% comprising 7378.41 hectares of land. Purnahiyablock stands third in this regard where the percentage of TCA is 88.23% comprising 5655.59 hectares of land. In the block 22.65% NAS is sown more than once that comprises 1044.45 hectares of land. TarianiChowkblock stands fourth in this regard where the percentage of TCA is 78.03% comprising 10674.97 hectares of land. In the block 16.69% NAS is sown more than once that comprises 1526.69 hectares of land. DumriKatsari is the last block where the lowest percentage 77.68% is the total TCA that comprises 5172.61 hectares of land. The percentage of NAS sowed more than once is 25.86% that comprises 1062.78 hectares of land.

▪ **Agricultural harvests:**

Seasonal cropping is the main agricultural practice of the region. The agricultural year is divided into two main seasons ie. Kharif, the season of summer crops and rabi, the season of winter crops (Shafi, M.,1983,pp. 39-47). Based on harvesting periods, the agricultural year of the district is classed under the following heads (i) Bhadai--Early monsoon crops.(ii) Agahani--Winter or end monsoon crops.(iii) Rabi--Spring crops (iv) Garma--Summer crops. (Gosal, G.S. &Ojha, B.N., 1967,pp. 41-49).Bhadai harvest consists mainly of quick naturing crops like autumn rice, maize, millets, marua, jawar, bazra, mung, urid, and fibre crops like jute, sanai, mesta etc. These crops are sown in May-June months and harvested in August-September (Bhado) months. The agahani harvests consist essentially of paddy (winter rice), urid, kutthi, til, potato, sweet potato, suthani. Oilseeds and vegetables etc. These are sown in June- July and harvested usually in the months of December (Agahan). The rabi harvests include a large number of crops such as wheat, barley, pulses, oilseeds, gram, peas, mansoor, khesari, potato, sweet potato. Chillies, mustard, linseeds, onion, garlic, haldi, dhanian, etc. which are sown in October-November and harvested in March (Falgun and Chait) months. Garma harvestos relatively of less significance and includes summer maize, summer paddy, cheena. Mung, and a variety of orchard fruits like mango, lichi, jack fruits etc. Some horticultural cropla, namely watermelon, Kharbuja, kakri, khira and vegetable are also grown in this season. The area under different harvests are as follows:

Table - 03

Dist. - Sheohar			
Total Cropped Area Under Various Harvest Seasons, 2015-18			
S.N.	Harvests	Area in hect.	%age to the total cropped area

1	Bhadai	10982.26	29.37
2	Agahani	5675.09	15.18
3	Rabi	19452.32	52.02
4	Garma	1287.21	3.44
	Total	37396.88	100.00

Source : District Statistical Office, Sheohar (Ave. of three yrs.).

The above mentioned table shows the distribution of different crops in different seasons of harvests. The highest hectareage of cultivable area is under rabi crops. It covers 19452.32 hectares of land that accouts 52.02% out of the total cropped area. The rabi is followed next by bhadaï crops that covers 10982.26 hectares accounting 29.37% of the total cropped land . Agahani stands third in this regard that covers 5675.09 hectares accounting 15.18% of the total cropped land. Garma crops are of little significance in the district that covers only 1287.21 hectares accounting only 3.44% of the total cropped land

▪ **Distribution of important Crops:**

a) - Paddy:

Rice , the most dominating crop of the region in both acreage and production, occupies an area of 63.33 thousand hectares (2015-18) while, 118.35 thousand hectares in 2012-13 under all varieties i.e. Aghani, Garma, Vasmatee, Bhadaï and high yield varieties. It covers more than four-fifth of the total cropped land. The seeds are sown after commencement of the rains in June or July on lands selected for seed nurseries which have previously been ploughed three or four times and the seedlings are transplanted. The Bhadaï rice which covers 878.6 hectares is also sown in June or July and not transplanted which is locally known as Jalai. There is another kind of rice known as the 'boro' or 'spring rice' which is sown in January, transplanted after a month and harvested in April, but it is insignificant. It is grown only on marshy land and in the beds of shallow streams.

Table - 04

Dist. - Sheohar			
Area And Production of Different Crops (Ave. 2015-18)			
Crops	ATH	PTT	PHPT
1. Paddy	63.33	190.66	0.72
2. Wheat	83.00	81.00	0.97
3. Maize	13.00	8.66	1.66
4. Barley	5.66	3.00	0.53
5. Masur	13.00	5.00	0.38
6. Gram	12.33	6.66	0.54
7. Arhar	2.6	3.00	1.15
8. Pea	1.60	1.33	0.83
9. Potato	6.3	50.89	8.08
10. Sugarcane	5.00	89.33	17.86
Total	405.82	439.53	31.72

Source : District Statistical Office, Sheohar (Ave. of three yrs.).

ATH--Area in 000 Hectares, PTT--Productions in 000 m. tons., PHPT--Per Hectare Production in tons.

Out of the net cropped area sown about 62 per cent grows Aghani, 40 percent Rabi, and only 19 per cent Bhadaï crops. Paddy covers around 60 % of the net cropped area and is the important crop in the district and no less than 80 percent of the crop consists of winter rice crops are played flood. Among all types of rice, the highest share goes to Aghani rice seconded by high yield variety and Bhadaï paddy respectively. The paddy is grown in three main harvesting seasons Aghani, Bhadaï and Rabi. The winter crop is known as Aghani which is harvested in the month of Aghans and the Bhadaï is the early or autumn crop reaped in the month of Bhado (August-September) consisting of 60 days (Sathi) rice, while the Rabi crop, includes such cold weather crops as wheat, barley oats, grams pulses etc. Rice is the most popular foodgrain of the district. The following table represents the average area under rice and its average production of three consecutive years :

Table - 05

Dist. - Sheohar				
Area under rice and Production (Ave. 2015-18)				
S.N.	Block	Area in hect.	Prod. in tons	Kg. per hect.
1	Purnahiya	30758	17101	556
2	Piprarhi	22857	12663	554
3	Sheohar	33415	19247	576
4	DumriKatsari	16185	7526	465
5	TarianiChowk	15138	6933	458
Dist.- total		118353	63470	522

Source : Agricultural statistics, Govt. of Bihar, 2015-18.

As per the above mentioned table, the highest area under rice cultivation was found in Sheohar block that was 33415 along with the highest rice production that was 19247 tons and the highest per hectare production that was 576 kg. per hectare. The block of Purnahia stood second in this regard where the total area under rice cultivation was 30758 hectares while its total production was 17101 tons at the production rate of 556 kg. per hectare. The block of Piprarhi stood third in this regard where the total area under rice cultivation was 22857 hectares while its total rice production was 12663 tons at the production rate of 554 kg. per hectare. The block of DumriKatsari stood fourth in this regard where the total area under rice cultivation was 16185 hectares while its total rice production was 7526 tons at the production rate of 465 kg. per hectare. The block of TarianiChowk stood last in this regard among all the blocks of the district. In this block the total area under rice cultivation was 15138 hectares while its total rice production was 6933 tons at the production rate of 458 kg. per hectare. The total area under rice cultivation in the district of Sheohar is 118353 hectares in 2015-18 and its total production was 63470 tons while its average per hectare rice production was 522 kg. per hectare

b) - Wheat:

The leading rabi crop or second most important cereal is Wheat that is generally a dry zone crop occurring mostly in the areas under forty inches of annual rain. The geographical distribution of wheat is controlled primarily by winter rain. In the district, wheat covers only 40 % of the net cropped area. Land form in plain nature having domat soil becomes much and more suitable for wheat, barley, oat, etc. production. But irrigation is essential for better production. But in the areas of intensive cultivation mostly in Purnahia. A Piprarhi and Sheohar block where irrigational methods are well developed, wheat is the significant crop. The inter-stream area or

interfluves registers its better cultivation. The following table shows the latest data regarding wheat cultivation.

Table - 06

Dist. - Sheohar

Area under wheat and Production (Ave. 2015-18)

Sl.No.	Block	Area in hect.	Prod. in tons	Kg. per hect.
1.	Purnahiya	12758	17785	1394
2.	Piprarhi	12857	16547	1287
3.	Sheohar	13425	19144	1426
4.	DumriKatsari	16185	20976	1296
5.	TarianiChowk	15148	21101	1393
	Dist.-total	70373	95553	1359

Source :Agricultural statistics, Govt. of Bihar, 2015-18.

As per the above mentioned table, the total area under wheat cultivation in the district of Sheohar is 70373 hectares in 2015-18 and its total production was 95553 tons while its average per hectare wheat production was 1359 kg. per hectare. The highest area under wheat cultivation was found in DumriKatsari block that was 16185 hectares along with the wheat production that was 20976 tons and the per hectare production that was 1296 kg. per hectare. The block of TarianiChowk stood second in this regard where the total area under wheat cultivation was 15148 hectares while its total production was 21101 tons at the production rate of 1393 kg. per hectare. The block of Purnahia stood the last in this regard among all the blocks of the district. In this block the total area under wheat cultivation was 12758 hectares while its total wheat production was 17785 tons at the production rate of 1394 kg. per hectare.

c) - Maize:

Maize is the most important Agahani crops sown in October or November and harvested in April. It accounts 13.0 thousand hectares of land (2015-18) from which 8.66 thousand tons of maize was produced at the rate of 1.70 tons per hectare. Maize is grown luxuriantly on the 'birth' or upland which is completely immune from early floods. Maize requires light and sandy loam which does not permit water to collect near its roots. Its greatest enemy is standing water or water logged land. High rain is compensated by well drained soils (Dayal,P.,1967,pp 71--76). Maize is grown in all the five blocks of the district especially to capture price in urban markets but is grown in the highly favoured land where irrigation is available.

Table - 07

Dist. - Sheohar

Area under Maize and Production (Ave. 2015-18)

S.N.	Block	Area in hect.	Prod. In tons	Kg. per hect.	
1	Purnahiya	313	1119	3576	
	2	Piprarhi	3771	264	3354
	3	Sheohar	1007	264	3816
	4	DumriKatsari	1762	6759	3836
5	TarianiChowk	2142	8399	3921	
	Dist.- total	4858	18549	3700	

Source :Agricultural statistics, Govt. of Bihar, 2015-18.

As per the above mentioned table, the total area under maize cultivation in the district of Sheohar is 4858 hectares in 2015-18 and its total production was 18549 tons while its average per hectare maize production was about 3700 kg. per hectare. The highest area under maize cultivation was found in Tariani Chowk block that was 2142 hectares along with the maize production that was 8398 tons and the per hectare maize production was 3921 kg. per hectare.

d) - Pulses :

Pulses are often sown in October and harvested in March and April. The average per hectare yield of gram is around 550 kg. in the district. The total production of barley in Sheohar district is 3000 metric tons from 5660 hectares (2015-18). Its per hectare production is 530 kg per hectare. Within the region, Masur, Peas, Arhar, Urad, Mung etc. are important in pulses.

Table - 07
Dist. - Sheohar
Pattern of Pulses and Millets, 2015-18 (Area in percent)

S.N.	Block	Pulses	Millets
1.	Purnahiya	3.21	0.65
2.	Piprarhi	1.64	0.47
3.	Sheohar	1.24	0.28
4.	Dumri Katsari	2.52	0.23
5.	Tariani Chowk	4.45	1.42
Dist.- total		2.61	0.61

Source: Agricultural statistics, Govt. of Bihar, 2015-18.

e) - Oil-seeds:

Linseed and Mustard are Rabi crops while Teel belong to Agahani. They are grown widely. These oil seeds grow in every block. Mustard, rape seed and linseeds grown in the district are most important oil seeds and others are sesame, castor, Surguja, etc. rape-seed and mustard flourish in the humid area of the region while linseed likes drier climate and is grown in the drier area.

f) - Sugarcane:

The average area under cane cultivation is five thousand hectare. The average production amounts to 89.33m. Tons having its per hectare 17.86 m. tons production. Sugarcane is considered to be one of the most profitable commercial crops which not only exhausts the soil but also occupies the ground for a long period extending over a year.

g) - Potato:

Potato is grown well in loam, clayey loam, sandy loam and other types of soil. It is an important vegetable and occupies an important place in the food of the peoples. If fields are well prepared and well watered, potatoes can be ready in sixty days and the same plot can grow them more than once.

▪ Multiple uses of agricultural land:

The index of multiple cropping can be used as a yardstick for measuring the intensity of agricultural land use. The Sheohar district experiences the climatic rhythm that favours multiple cropping in the district. The nature of crops differs considerably as they require different combinations of moisture and temperature conditions. (Dayal, P., 1967, pp. 21-25). As such the same field is used for raising more than one crops, the practice being called multiple cropping. (Mukherjee, A.B., 1969, pp. 07--12).

▪ **Rotation of crops:**

Crop rotation shows the order of cropping during the period for one year, two year and three years. The rotation on lowland is in the order of rice-pulse-fallow. (Shafi, M., 1966, p. 16). Now, it has changed to rice-wheat-fallow. On the Bhith land, however, the above course will complete with maize wheat-fallow, maize-potato-fallow or maize-groundnut-fallow. Now and then, it has an order of maize-oilseed-fallow. The changeover of wheat with arhar during rabi in 2 years rotation is common in the district.

▪ **Mixed cropping:**

Mixed cropping gives the advantage of crop rotation especially when leguminous plants are inter-cultivated with other crops. It is a very popular method (Mandal, A.B., 1969, p. 22). Seeds of different crops are mixed-up together and are broadcasted or in line pattern. This practice is also common due to insufficient size of holdings and farmers are anxious to be self-sufficient in all the grains of their requirements from limited fields in their possessions. (Weaver, J.C., 1954, pp. 24-31). It is prevalent also because if one crop fails other crops find a suitable background for their growth. Thus, the mixed cropping is a sort of insurance against vicissitudes of weather. This type of mixed cropping is practiced in kharif as well as rabi crops. Some of the common mixture is (i) Maize- arhar- urad (ii) Maize-arhar- urad (iii) Arhar -til (iv) Wheat- barley (v) Barley-gram (vi) Gram-oil seeds etc.

▪ **Agricultural production and marketing:**

The infra-structural development is the first requirement for the marketing of the agricultural production. (Yadav, R.P., 2006, pp. 6.2-6.7). A cheap, quick and easy mode of communication and transport between the fields, threshing floors and the primary market is not up to mark. In spite of being a good agricultural tract, the agricultural production of the district is insufficient to meet the requirements of the huge population within its limit. Therefore, it has to import more than it can export. As a matter of fact, if imports are prohibited, the region will starve. Great progress has been made in connecting the rural areas with the neighbouring village- markets and towns during the five year plans, but still many villages lying in the interior have yet to be linked with the main highways passing nearby.

▪ **Findings and Conclusions:**

Unfertile soil, indefinite monsoon, mass poverty, conservatism, illiteracy of farmers, lack of infra-structural facility and resources are the main problems of the study area. The farmers are practically poor and illiterate. Almost all of them perform their cultivation in traditional methods. Their poverty consequently lack of capital discourages them to use hybrid seeds hence they do not cultivate it as an economic activity. Lack of rural service centres and communication facility always discourages the mechanization of agricultural practices. Due to conservatism and illiteracy of farmers, fail to realize the causes of agricultural problems. Illiteracy and the poverty of the peasants in general have led them to miserable economic backwardness.

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ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦਾ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਵਿੱਚ ਸਥਾਨ

ਡਾ. ਮਨਜੀਤ ਕੌਰ ਬਾਜਵਾ

ਅਸੈਸਟੈਂਟ ਪ੍ਰੋਫੈਸਰ,

ਗੁਰੂ ਤੇਗ ਬਹਾਦਰ ਖਾਲਸਾ ਕਾਲਜ ਫਾਰ ਵੋਮੈਨ,

ਦਸੂਹਾ।

ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਦਾ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਵਿੱਚ ਵਿਲੱਖਣ ਸਥਾਨ ਹੈ। ਕਿਉਂਕਿ ਉਹ ਕਿਸੇ ਵਿਸ਼ੇਸ਼ ਵਰਣ ਜਾਂ ਸ਼੍ਰੇਣੀ ਦੀ ਭਲਾਈ ਲਈ ਯਤਨ ਨਹੀਂ ਸਨ ਕਰਦੇ ਰਹੇ ਬਲਕਿ ਸਮੁੱਚੀ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦਾ ਕਲਿਆਣ ਹੀ ਇੱਕ ਮਾਤਰ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਆਦਰਸ਼ ਸੀ। ਭਾਰਤ ਅਤੇ ਖਾਸ ਕਰਕੇ ਪੰਜਾਬ ਦੇ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਵਿੱਚ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਦਾ ਕੋਈ ਸਾਨੀ ਨਹੀਂ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਇੱਕ ਬਹੁਤ ਉੱਚਾ ਤੇ ਸੁੱਚਾ ਸਥਾਨ ਪ੍ਰਾਪਤ ਹੈ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਦੁੱਖੀ ਅਤੇ ਮਾਸੂਮ ਜਨਤਾ ਨੂੰ ਡਰ ਅਤੇ ਲੋਭ ਤੋਂ ਮੁਕਤ ਕਰਕੇ ਸੱਚੇ ਪਿਆਰ ਦਾ ਪਾਠ ਪੜ੍ਹਾਇਆ ਅਤੇ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਦੇ ਮਨਾਂ ਵਿੱਚੋਂ ਜਹਾਲਤ ਰੂਪੀ ਹਨ੍ਹੇਰੇ ਨੂੰ ਕੱਢਕੇ ਪਿਆਰ ਦੀ ਰੋਸ਼ਨੀ ਪੈਦਾ ਕੀਤੀ। ਜਨਤਾ ਨੂੰ ਸੱਚਾ ਮਾਰਗ ਦਰਸਾਇਆ। ਦੂਸਰੇ ਧਰਮਾਂ ਦੇ ਮਹਾਨ ਆਗੂਆਂ ਈਸਾ ਮਸੀਹ, ਮਹਾਤਮਾ ਬੁੱਧ, ਕ੍ਰਿਸ਼ਨ, ਮੁਹੰਮਦ, ਕਨਫੀਊਸ਼ਸ ਵਾਂਗ ਆਪ ਨੇ ਵੀ ਦੁੱਖੀ ਜਨਤਾ ਦੀ ਸਹਾਇਤਾ ਕਰਨ ਦੀ ਕੋਸ਼ਿਸ਼ ਕੀਤੀ। ਇਸ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਹੀ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਸੱਚੇ ਨਾਮ ਦਾ ਪਾਠ ਪੜ੍ਹਾਕੇ ਉਸ ਘੋਰ ਕਲਯੁਗ ਦੇ ਵੇਲੇ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਸਿੱਧੇ ਰਸਤੇ ਪਾਇਆ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੀ ਜਗਾਈ ਹੋਈ ਜੋਤ ਸਦੀਆਂ ਤੋਂ ਮਨੁੱਖ ਜਾਤੀ ਨੂੰ ਸਹੀ ਰਸਤੇ ਤੇ ਪਾਉਂਦੀ ਚਲੀ ਆ ਰਹੀ ਹੈ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੀ ਸਰਲ ਭਾਸ਼ਾ ਤੇ ਲੋਕ ਪਿਆਰ ਹਮੇਸ਼ਾ ਹੀ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਦੀਆਂ ਪੀੜਾਂ ਤੇ ਮਰਹਮ ਲਾਉਂਦਾ ਰਹੇਗਾ। ਪ੍ਰਸਿੱਧ ਇਤਿਹਾਸਕਾਰ ਬਿਗਲੇ ਕਹਿੰਦਾ ਹੈ ਨਾਨਕ ਤੇ ਬੁੱਧ ਦੋਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਉਸ ਧਰਮ ਵਿਰੁੱਧ ਬਗਾਵਤ ਕੀਤੀ, ਜਿਹੜਾ ਸਮਾਜਿਕ ਵਿਤਕਰੇ ਪੈਦਾ ਕਰਦਾ ਸੀ। ਕਰਮ, ਕਾਂਡਾਂ ਉੱਤੇ ਜੋਰ ਦਿੰਦਾ ਸੀ, ਫੋਕੀਆਂ ਰਸਮਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਹੀ ਧਰਮ ਕਹਿੰਦਾ ਸੀ। ਦੋਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਪਿਆਰ ਅਤੇ ਸ਼ਾਂਤੀ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਜੀ ਨੇ

ਰੱਬੀ ਏਕਤਾ ਤੇ ਜੋਰ ਦਿੱਤਾ ਅਤੇ ਕਿਹਾ :-

ਅੰਮ੍ਰਿਤ ਵੇਲਾ ਸਚੁ ਨਾਉ ਵਡਿਆਈ ਵੀਚਾਰੁ।

ਕਰਮੀਂ ਆਵੈ ਕਪੜਾ ਨਦਰੀ ਮੋਖ ਦੁਆਰੁ।

ਨਾਨਕ ਏਵੈ ਜਾਣੀਐ ਸੁਭ ਆਪੋ ਸਚਿਆਰੁ ॥

ਮਹਾਤਮਾ ਬੁਧ ਨੇ ਰੱਬ ਦੇ ਵਿਸ਼ੇ ਵਿੱਚ ਚੁਪ ਧਾਰੀ ਸੀ ਅਤੇ ਆਪਣੇ ਅਨੁਆਈਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਕਿਸੇ ਇੱਕ ਆਦਰਸ਼ ਵੱਲ ਪਰੇਰਨਾ ਨਹੀਂ ਸੀ ਦਿੱਤੀ। ਪਰ ਗੁਰੂ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਰੱਬੀ ਏਕਤਾ ਨੂੰ ਆਪਣਾ ਧਰਮ ਮੰਨਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਸੱਚੇ ਰੱਬ ਦੀ ਪ੍ਰਾਪਤੀ ਨੂੰ ਹੀ ਆਦਰਸ਼ ਬਣਾਇਆ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਰੱਬ ਦੀ ਸਰਬ ਵਿਆਪਕਤਾ ਅਤੇ ਬੇਅੰਤਤਾ ਦਾ ਵਰਨਣ ਕੀਤਾ।

ਜੇ ਹਉ ਜਾਣਾ ਆਖਾ ਨਾਹੀਂ

ਗੁਰੂ ਸਾਹਿਬ ਨੇ ਸੁੱਚੇ ਜੀਵਨ ਅਤੇ ਸੱਚੇ ਰੱਬ ਦਾ ਸਿਮਰਨ ਹੀ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਜੀਵਨ ਦਾ ਆਧਾਰ ਦੱਸਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਕਿਹਾ ਕਿ ਇਸ ਤੋਂ ਬਿਨਾਂ ਸੱਚੇ ਰੱਬ ਨੂੰ ਮਿਲਣਾ ਬਹੁਤ ਕਠਿਨ ਹੈ। ਕੇਵਲ ਸੱਚਾ ਮਨੁੱਖ ਹੀ ਗੁਰਮੁੱਖ ਦਾ ਦਰਜਾ ਪ੍ਰਾਪਤ ਕਰ ਸਕਦਾ ਹੈ :

ਜਿਨਾ ਰਾਸਿ ਨ ਸਚੁ ਹੈ

ਕਿਉ ਤਿਨ ਸੁਖੁ ਹੋਇ ॥

ਖੋਟੈ ਵਣਜਿ ਵਣਜੀਐ

ਮਨ ਤਨ ਖੋਟਾ ਹੋਇ ॥

ਆਪ ਨੇ ਵਹਿਮੀ ਜਨਤਾ ਨੂੰ ਪਾਖੰਡਾਂ ਵਿੱਚੋਂ ਕੱਢ ਕੇ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਠੀਕ ਰਸਤੇ ਪਾਇਆ। ਆਪ ਨੇ ਪੁਰਾਣੇ ਅਤੇ ਨਵੇਂ ਖਿਆਲਾਂ ਦੀ ਏਕਤਾ ਕੀਤੀ। ਮਹਾਤਮਾ ਬੁੱਧ ਵਾਂਗ ਗੁਰੂ ਸਾਹਿਬ ਨੇ ਵੀ ਝੂਠੇ ਪਾਖੰਡਾਂ ਦਾ ਵਿਰੋਧ ਕੀਤਾ ਅਤੇ ਸਹੀ ਤੇ ਸੁੱਚਾ ਮੁਕਤੀ ਦਾ ਮਾਰਗ ਦਰਸਾਇਆ :-

ਕਾਲੁ ਨਾਹੀ ਜੋਗ ਨਾਹੀ

ਨਾਹੀ ਸਤ ਕਾ ਢਬੁ

ਥਾਨਿਸਟ ਜਗ ਭਰਿਸਟ ਹੋਏ

ਭੂਬਤਾ ਇਵ ਜਗੁ

ਕਲ ਮਹਿ ਰਾਮ ਨਾਮੁ ਸਾਰੁ

ਅਖੀ ਤ ਮੀਟਹਿ ਨਾਕ ਪਕੜਹਿ

ਠਗਣ ਕਉ ਸੰਸਾਰ

ਜਿਸ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਮਹਾਤਮਾ ਬੁੱਧ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਬਰਾਬਰੀ ਆਪਸੀ ਪ੍ਰੇਮ ਅਤੇ ਭਾਈਚਾਰੇ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ, ਉਸੇ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਸਮਾਨਤਾ, ਸਦਾਚਾਰ ਅਤੇ ਗਿਆਨ ਨੂੰ ਆਪਣੇ ਉਪਦੇਸ਼ਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਸ਼ਾਮਲ ਕਰ ਦਿੱਤਾ।

ਈਸਾ ਮਸੀਹ ਵਾਂਗ ਵੀ ਗੁਰੂ ਸਾਹਿਬ ਨੇ ਪਰਮ ਪਿਤਾ ਪ੍ਰਮਾਤਮਾ ਨੂੰ ਦੁਨੀਆਂ ਦਾ ਕਰਤਾ ਧਰਤਾ ਮੰਨਿਆ। ਇਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਕਲਯੋਗ ਦੇ ਜੀਵਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਠੀਕ ਮੰਜਿਲ ਤੇ ਪਹੁੰਚਣ ਲਈ ਬਖਸ਼ਿਸ਼ ਦੀ ਲੋੜ ਦੱਸੀ। ਪਰ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਮਹਾਤਮਾ ਈਸਾ ਵਾਂਗ ਆਪਣੇ ਆਪ ਨੂੰ ਰੱਬ ਦਾ ਪੁੱਤਰ ਕਹਿ ਕੇ ਬੁਲਾਇਆ ਬਲਕਿ ਰੱਬ ਦਾ ਬਣਾਇਆ ਇੱਕ ਦੁਨਿਆਵੀ ਜੀਵ ਹੀ ਕਿਹਾ :-

ਤੂੰ ਹੈ ਨਿਰੰਕਾਰ ਕਰਤਾਰ, ਨਾਨਕ ਬੰਦਾ ਤੇਰਾ।

ਆਪਣੇ ਜੀਵਨ ਨੂੰ ਸੰਸਾਰ ਦੇ ਆਮ ਜੀਵਾਂ ਵਾਂਗੂੰ ਸਭ ਨੂੰ ਅਮਲ ਵਿੱਚ ਲਿਆਂਦਾ ਤਾਕਿ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਇਹ ਮਾਰਗ ਅਪਨਾਉਣ ਦੇ ਵਿੱਚ ਮੁਸ਼ਕਲ ਨਾ ਆਵੇ। ਇਸ ਕਰਕੇ ਹੀ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੂੰ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦਾ 'ਨਾਇਕ' ਅਤੇ 'ਰਾਖਾ' ਕਿਹਾ ਜਾਂਦਾ ਹੈ।

ਜਿਸ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਕ੍ਰਿਸ਼ਨ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਕਲਿਆਣ ਦੇ ਲਈ ਗੀਤਾ ਰਚੀ ਉਸੇ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਹੀ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਆਪਣੀ ਬਾਣੀ ਮਨੁੱਖਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਪ੍ਰਦਾਨ ਕਰਕੇ ਹਮੇਸ਼ਾ ਲਈ ਪੱਕੀਆਂ ਲੀਹਾਂ ਸਥਾਪਿਤ ਕਰ ਦਿੱਤੀਆਂ। ਕ੍ਰਿਸ਼ਨ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਮਹਾਂ ਭਾਰਤ ਦੇ ਯੁੱਧ ਦੇ ਵਿੱਚ ਬੁਰਾਈਆਂ ਦਾ ਨਾਸ਼ ਕਰਨ ਲਈ ਖੂਨ ਖਰਾਬਾ ਕਰਵਾਉਣ ਤੋਂ ਵੀ ਗਰੇਜ਼ ਨਹੀਂ ਕੀਤਾ, ਪਰ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਪਿਆਰ ਅਤੇ ਦਲੀਲ ਦੇ ਰਸਤੇ ਨੂੰ ਹੀ ਠੀਕ ਸਮਝਿਆ। ਸੰਸਾਰ ਦਾ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਜੀਵਾਂ ਨਾਲ ਹੀ ਚੱਲਦਾ ਹੈ ਨਾ ਕਿ ਪਰਾ-ਮਨੁੱਖ ਕਹਿੰਦੇ ਰਹੇ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਰੱਬ ਦੇ ਬਣਾਏ ਆਮ ਬੰਦਿਆਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਆਪਣੀ ਗਿਣਤੀ ਕੀਤੀ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਤੋਂ ਪਹਿਲਾਂ ਕਿਸੇ ਨੇ ਵੀ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦੇ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਤੇ ਆਪਣੇ ਕੰਮਾਂ ਦੀ ਇੰਨੀ ਗਹਿਰੀ ਤੇ ਅਮਿੱਟ ਛਾਪ ਨਹੀਂ ਸੀ ਲਗਾਈ ਜਿੰਨੀ ਕਿ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਲਗਾਈ। ਮਨੁੱਖ ਕਲਿਆਣ ਦੇ ਲਈ ਉਹ ਪਹਾੜਾ ਦੀਆਂ ਖੁੰਧਰਾਂ

ਤਕ ਵੀ ਪਹੁੰਚੇ। ਦੂਸਰੇ ਦੇਸ਼ਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਵੀ ਗਏ ਅਤੇ ਖਾਸ ਕਰਕੇ ਪੰਜਾਬ ਦੇ ਇਲਾਕੇ ਵਿੱਚ ਜਿੱਥੇ ਕਿ ਇਸਲਾਮ ਦਾ ਬੋਲ ਬਾਲਾ ਸੀ, ਉੱਥੇ ਆਪਣੇ ਆਦਰਸ਼ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਬਰਾਬਰੀ ਦਾ ਵਿਸ਼ੇਸ਼ ਨਾਹਰਾ ਦਿੱਤਾ। ਹਿੰਦੂ ਮੁਸਲਮਾਨਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਇੱਕ ਦੂਸਰੇ ਦੇ ਨੇੜੇ ਲਿਆਂਦਾ। 'ਗਫ' ਕਹਿੰਦਾ ਹੈ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਕਿਸੇ ਰਾਜੇ ਜਾਂ ਹੁਕਮਰਾਨ ਵਾਂਗੂੰ ਹੁਕਮ ਨਹੀਂ ਦਿੱਤੇ ਬਲਕਿ ਵਾਹਿਗੁਰੂ ਦਾ ਆਪਣੇ ਆਪ ਨੂੰ ਇੱਕ ਨਿਮਾਣਾ ਸੇਵਕ ਦੱਸ ਕੇ ਖਹਿ ਖਹਿ ਕਰਦੇ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਸ਼ਾਂਤੀ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਨਾਂ ਸਿਰਫ਼ ਏਸੇ ਲਈ ਉੱਘਾ ਨਹੀਂ ਕਿ ਉਹ ਇੱਕ ਬੜੇ ਵੱਡੇ ਸੁਧਾਰਕ ਸਨ, ਸਗੋਂ ਇਸ ਲਈ ਕਿ ਉਹ ਸ਼ਾਇਦ ਇੱਕੋ ਇੱਕ ਮਨੁੱਖ ਸਨ ਜਿਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਹਿੰਦੂ ਅਤੇ ਮੁਸਲਮਾਨਾਂ ਨੇ ਪਿਆਰ ਨਾਲ ਸੁਣਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਮੰਨਿਆ। ਇਸ ਸਨਮਾਨ ਦਾ ਕਾਰਨ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੀ ਆਪਣੀ ਸ਼ਖਸੀਅਤ ਹੀ ਨਹੀਂ ਸੀ। ਸਗੋਂ ਇੱਕ ਤਰੀਕਾ ਸੀ ਜਿਸ ਰਾਹੀਂ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਪੂਰਨ ਨਿਮਰਤਾ ਨਾਲ ਬਗੈਰ ਕਿਸੇ ਦੇ ਦਿਲ ਦੁਖਾਏ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਗੁਰੂ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਆਤਮ ਤਿਆਗ ਅਤੇ ਕੁਰਬਾਨੀ ਦਾ ਰਸਤਾ ਵੀ ਦਰਸਾਇਆ। ਹਜ਼ਰਤ ਮੁਹੰਮਦ ਸਾਹਿਬ ਵਾਂਗ ਆਪਣੇ ਅਨੁਆਈਆਂ ਲਈ ਕੋਈ ਕਰੜੇ ਸਿਧਾਂਤ ਨਹੀਂ ਰੱਖੇ ਬਲਕਿ ਸਿੱਧੇ ਅਤੇ ਅਮਲੀ ਅਸੂਲਾਂ ਤੇ ਹੀ ਜ਼ੋਰ ਦਿੱਤਾ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਕਿਸੇ ਗੁੰਝਲਦਾਰ ਜਾਲ ਵਿੱਚ ਨਹੀਂ ਫਸਾਇਆ ਬਲਕਿ ਹਰ ਚੀਜ਼ ਸਪੱਸ਼ਟ ਕਰਕੇ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਸਾਹਮਣੇ ਰੱਖੀ। ਭਾਈ ਗੁਰਦਾਸ ਜੀ ਦੇ ਕਹਿਣ ਅਨੁਸਾਰ ਬਾਬਾ ਜੀ ਅਕਾਲ ਰੂਪ ਸਨ। ਭਾਵ ਇਹ ਕਿ ਅਕਾਲ ਨਹੀਂ ਸਨ ਬਲਕਿ 'ਅਕਾਲ ਰੂਪ' ਸਨ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਅਕਾਲ ਪੁਰਖ ਨੇ ਆਪਦੀਆਂ ਸਾਰੀਆਂ ਸਿਫਤਾਂ ਭਰੀਆਂ ਹੋਈਆਂ ਸਨ। ਇਸੇ ਕਰਕੇ ਭਾਈ ਗੁਰਦਾਸ ਜੀ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਰੱਬ ਦੇ ਰੰਗਿਆ 'ਮਸਤਾਨਾ' ਕਹਿੰਦੇ ਹਨ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ 'ਮਸਤਾਨਾ' 'ਆਦਮੀ' ਸਨ।

ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਜੀ ਦਾ ਕੰਮ ਕਰਨ ਦਾ ਖੇਤਰ ਬਹੁਤ ਵਿਸ਼ਾਲ ਸੀ। ਧਾਰਮਿਕ, ਸਮਾਜਿਕ ਖੇਤਰ ਦੇ ਇਲਾਵਾ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਰਾਜਨੀਤਕ ਖੇਤਰ ਵਿੱਚ ਵੀ ਹੱਥ ਪਸਾਰਿਆ। ਉਹ ਇੱਕ ਪੱਕੇ ਦੇਸ਼ ਭਗਤ ਅਤੇ ਕਲਿਆਣਕਾਰੀ ਜੀਵ ਸਨ। ਅਪਾ ਨੇ ਮੁਸਲਮਾਨ ਹਾਕਮਾਂ

ਦੇ ਤੌਰ ਤਰੀਕੇ , ਬੋਲੀ ਅਤੇ ਬੁਰੇ ਕੰਮਾਂ ਦੀ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਸਾਹਮਣੇ ਨਿਖੇਧੀ ਕੀਤੀ। ਬਾਬਰ ਅਤੇ ਲੋਧੀ ਹੁਕਮਰਾਨਾਂ ਦੀ ਸਿੱਧੇ ਸ਼ਬਦਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਆਲੋਚਨਾ ਕੀਤੀ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਲੋਕ ਭਾਸ਼ਾ ਵਿੱਚ ਆਪਣੇ ਉਪਦੇਸ਼ਾਂ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ

ਕਰਕੇ ਸੰਸਕ੍ਰਿਤ ਅਤੇ ਫਾਰਸੀ ਬੋਲੀ ਨੂੰ ਇੱਕ ਸਟ ਮਾਰੀ ਅਤੇ ----- ਗਿਆਨ ਦਾ ਘੇਰਾ ਇੱਕ ਖਾਸ ਸਮਾਜਿਕ ਸ਼੍ਰੇਣੀ ਦੇ ਹੱਥੋਂ ਕੱਢ ----- ਪਹੁੰਚਾਇਆ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਆਪਣੇ ਫਰਜ਼ਾਂ ਦੀ ਪਰੇਰਨਾ ਦਿੱਤੀ। -----
- ਕਰਕੇ ਅੱਜ ਤੱਕ ਲੋਕ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਨਾਂ ਬੜੀ ਸ਼ਾਨ ਅਤੇ ਮਾਣ ਨਾਲ ਲੈਂਦੇ ਹਨ ਅਤੇ ਲੋਕ ਸਨਮਾਨ ਨਾਲ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦਾ ਅਵਤਾਰ ਮੰਨਦੇ ਹਨ।

ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਦੇ ਜੋਸ਼ੀਲੇ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਅਤੇ ਭਾਰਤੀ ਸਮਾਜ ਦੀਆਂ ਧਾਰਮਿਕ ਬੁਰਾਈਆਂ ਦੀ ਜ਼ੋਰਦਾਰ ਨਿਖੇਧੀ ਦੇ ਕਾਰਨ ਕਈ ਇਤਿਹਾਸਕਾਰ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਮੁਕਾਬਲਾ ਜਰਮਨੀ ਦੇ ਇੱਕ ਸੁਧਾਰਕ ਮਾਰਟਨ ਲੂਥਰ ਨਾਲ ਕਰਦੇ ਹਨ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਵਿਚਾਰ ਹੈ ਕਿ ਦੋਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਝੂਠੇ ਪਾਖੰਡ, ਰਸਮਾਂ ਰਿਵਾਜ, ਧਾਰਮਿਕ ਗੁੰਝਲਾਂ ਦੇ ਵਿਰੁੱਧ ਜੋਰਦਾਰ ਆਵਾਜ਼ ਉਠਾਈ ਅਤੇ ਕੁਝ ਸਮੇਂ ਤੋਂ ਬਾਹਦ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਦੇ ਉਪਦੇਸ਼ਾਂ ਦੇ ਕਾਰਨ ਦੋਹਾਂ ਦੇ ਵੱਖੋ ਵੱਖ ਧਰਮ ਬਣ ਗਏ। ਦੋਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਲੋਕ ਭਾਸ਼ਾ ਵਿੱਚ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਨੂੰ ਹੀ ਸਰਬ ਸਰੋਸਟ ਮੰਨਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਹਰ ਉਸ ਚੀਜ਼ ਤੋਂ ਘਿਰਣਾ ਕਰਨੀ ਸਿਖਾਈ ਜਿਹੜੀ ਮਨੁੱਖ ਨੂੰ 'ਸੱਚ' ਤੋਂ ਦੂਰ ਲਿਜਾਂਦੀ ਸੀ। ਨਾਰੰਗ ਕਹਿੰਦਾ ਹੈ ਕਿ ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਨੂੰ ਲੂਥਰ ਨਾਲ ਤੁਲਣਾ ਨਹੀਂ ਦੇਣੀ ਚਾਹੀਦੀ , ਕਿਉਂਕਿ ਉਹ ਲੂਥਰ ਨਾਲੋਂ ਰੁਹਾਨੀ ਤੌਰ ਤੇ ਬਹੁਤ ਉੱਚੇ ਹਨ ਕਿਉਂਕਿ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਰੱਬ ਦਾ ਅਸਲੀ ਭੇਦ ਪਾਇਆ ਸੀ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਨੂੰ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੇ ਅਨੁਆਈ ਰੱਬ ਦਾ ਸਰੂਪ ਮੰਨਦੇ ਹਨ। ਜਦ ਕਿ ਲੂਥਰ ਦੇ ਅਨੁਆਈ ਉਸ ਨੂੰ ਇਹ ਥਾਂ ਦੇਣ ਲਈ ਤਿਆਰ ਨਹੀਂ ਹਨ। ਸਾਧੂ ਟੀ.ਐੱਲ. ਵਾਸਵਾਨੀ ਲਿਖਦਾ ਹੈ : ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੀ ਨਿਰਮਲਤਾ ਤੋਂ ਬਾਰੇ ਪ੍ਰਭਾਵਿਤ ਹੁੰਦੇ ਸਨ ਅਤੇ ਲੂਥਰ ਇੱਕ ਅਭਿਮਾਨੀ ਪਰਸ਼ ਸੀ। ਲੂਥਰ ਦੇ “ਖਤ” ਅਤੇ ਉਸ ਦੀਆਂ ਕੀਤੀਆਂ ਗੱਲਾਂ ਤੋਂ ਸਪੱਸ਼ਟ ਹੈ ਕਿ ਉਹ ਕਿਸ ਦਰਜੇ ਤੱਕ ਹੰਕਾਰੀ ਸੀ। ਲੂਥਰ ਗਰੀਬਾਂ ਤੇ ਕਿਰਸਾਣਾਂ ਵਿਰੁੱਧ ਸੀ ਜੋ ਆਪਣੇ ਹੱਕ ਲਈ ਲੜਦੇ ਸਨ। ਉਸ ਦੇ ਰਾਜਿਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਪਰੇਰਿਆ ਕਿ ਉਹ ਕਿਸਾਨਾਂ ਦੀ ਬਗਾਵਤ ਨੂੰ ਕਰੜੇ ਹੱਥਾਂ ਨਾਲ ਦਬਾਉਣ। ਇਸ ਮੰਤਵ ਲਈ ਉਸ ਨੇ ਇੱਕ ਭੜਕਾਊ ਪੈਂਫਲਿਟ ਵੀ ਲਿਖਿਆ। ਦੂਜੇ ਪਾਸੇ ਨਾਨਕ ਗਰੀਬਾਂ ਦਾ ਹਮਦਰਦ ਹੀ ਨਹੀਂ ਸੀ ਬਲਕਿ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਰਹਿ ਕੇ ਅਨੰਦ ਮਾਣਦਾ ਸੀ। ਉਹਨਾਂ ਕੋਲ ਆਪਣੇ ਨਿਗਰ ਧਾਰਮਿਕ ਸਿਧਾਂਤ ਸਨ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਆਤਮਿਕ ਤੌਰ ਤੇ ਲੂਥਰ ਨਾਲੋਂ ਬਹੁਤ ਉੱਚੇ ਸਨ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ

ਜੀ ਆਮ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਦੇ ਹਮਦਰਦ ਅਤੇ ਸਹਾਇਕ ਸਨ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਆਦਰਸ਼ ਆਮ ਜਨਤਾ ਨੂੰ ਨੀਵੇਂ ਪੱਧਰ ਤੋਂ ਚੁੱਕ ਕੇ ਉੱਚੇ ਪੱਧਰ ਤੇ ਲਿਜਾਣਾ ਸੀ। ਜਿਸ ਨੂੰ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਆਪਣੀ ਬਾਣੀ ਵਿੱਚ ਲਿਖਿਆ ਹੈ :-

ਨੀਚਾ ਅੰਦਰਿ ਨੀਚ ਜਾਤਿ ਨੀਚੀ ਹੂੰ ਅਤਿ ਨੀਚ।

ਨਾਨਕ ਤਿਨ ਕੈ ਸੰਗਿ ਸਾਥਿ ਵਡਿਆ ਸਿਉ ਕਿਆ ਰੀਸ।

ਜਿਥੈ ਨੀਚ ਸਮਾਲਿਅਨਿ ਤਿਥੈ ਨਦਕਿ ਤੇਰੀ ਬਖਸੀਸ।

ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਸੰਸਾਰਕ ਅਮਨ ਦੇ ਪਜ਼ਾਰੀ ਹਿੰਦੂਆਂ ਦੇ ਆਗੂ, ਮੁਸਲਮਾਨਾਂ ਦੇ ਪੀਰ ਤੇ ਸਿੱਖਾਂ ਦੇ ਗੁਰੂ ਸਨ। ਭਾਵ ਇਹ ਕਿ ਉਹ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦੇ ਹੀ ਨੇਤਾ ਸਨ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਹਰ ਇੱਕ ਨੂੰ ਪ੍ਰੇਮ ਭਾਵ ਹਮਦਰਦੀ ਅਤੇ ਨਿਮਰਤਾ ਦਾ ਪਾਠ ਪੜ੍ਹਾਇਆ। ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ ਦੇਵ ਜੀ ਦੀ ਸੋਚ ਸ਼ਕਤੀ ਵਿਗਿਆਨਕ ਸੀ ਅਤੇ ਉਹਨਾਂ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖਾਂ ਦੇ ਦਿਨ ਅੰਦਰ ਨਵੀਂ ਰੋਸ਼ਨੀ ਪੈਦਾ ਕੀਤੀ। ਰੀਤੀ ਰਿਵਾਜ਼ਾਂ ਪਖੰਡਾਂ ਦੀਆਂ ਗੁੰਝਲਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਤੋੜਿਆ। ਝੂਠੇ ਵਹਿਮਾਂ ਅਤੇ ਅਨੇਕ ਰਸਮਾਂ ਦਾ ਮਹੱਲ ਟੁੱਕੜੇ ਟੁੱਕੜੇ ਕੀਤਾ। ਸੱਚੇ ਨਾਂ ਦਾ ਰਸ ਪਿਲਾਇਆ। ਜਨਤਾ ਦੀ ਆਵਾਜ਼ ਨੂੰ ਜੁਲਮ ਦੇ ਖਿਲਾਫ ਇਕੱਤਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਰੱਬੀ ਏਕਤਾ ਦੇ ਨੂਰ ਦਾ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰ ਕੀਤਾ। ਉੱਚ ਆਚਰਨ ਨੂੰ ਨਿਸ਼ਾਨਾਂ ਬਣਾਇਆ। ਮਾਨਵੀਂ ਪ੍ਰੇਮ ਨੂੰ ਅਪਣਾਇਆ। ਆਰਥਿਕ ਸਮਾਨਤਾ ਦਾ ਸਬਕ ਪੜ੍ਹਾਇਆ ਅਤੇ ਹੋਰ ਸਮਾਜਿਕ ਉਣਤਾਈਆਂ ਦਾ ਭੇਦ ਖੋਲਿਆ। ਏਡਾ ਵੱਡਾ ਮਹਾਨ ਕੰਮ ਸੰਸਾਰ ਵਿੱਚ ਸ਼ਾਇਦ ਹੀ ਕਿਸੇ ਹੋਰ ਵਿਅਕਤੀ ਨੇ ਕੀਤਾ ਹੋਵੇ। ਗੁਰੂ ਜੀ ਨੇ ਸਾਂਝੀ ਮਿਲਵਰਤਨ, ਖਾਣਾ ਪੀਣਾ, ਬੈਠਣਾ ਉਠਣਾ, ਨਾਮ ਜਪਣਾ ਸਭ ਦਾ ਸਾਂਝਾ ਕੀਤਾ। ਨਫਰਤ ਦੀ ਅੱਗ ਨੂੰ ਸ਼ਾਂਤ ਕੀਤਾ। ਡਿਗਦੀ ਹੋਈ ਮਨੁੱਖ ਜਾਤੀ ਨੂੰ ਆਤਮ ਬੱਲ ਦੇ ਕੇ ਖੜਾ ਕੀਤਾ। ਜਬਰ ਅਤੇ ਜੁਲਮ ਦਾ ਮੁਕਾਬਲਾ ਕਰਨਾ ਸਿਖਾਹਿਆ ਕੁਰਬਾਨੀ ਦਾ ਰਸਤਾ ਦਿਖਾਇਆ। ਸੰਸਾਰ ਦੇ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਨਵੀਂ ਰੂਹ, ਨਵਾਂ ਜੋਸ਼ ਤੇ ਨਵੀਂ ਰਵਾਨੀ ਪੈਦਾ ਕੀਤੀ ਅਤੇ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਦੇ ਪੰਨਿਆਂ ਤੇ ਇੱਕ ਅਮਿੱਟ ਛਾਪ ਲਗਾਈ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਨਾਂ ਇਤਿਹਾਸ ਵਿੱਚ ਹਮੇਸ਼ਾ ਦੇ ਮਹਾਨ ਧਾਰਮਿਕ ਸੰਚਾਲਕਾਂ ਵਿੱਚ ਲਿਆ ਜਾਂਦਾ ਰਹੇਗਾ।

ਗੁਰੂ ਨਾਨਕ - ਬਹੁਪੱਖੀ ਸ਼ਖਸ਼ੀਅਤ

ਗੁਰੂ ਜੀ ਬਹੁਪੱਖੀ ਸ਼ਖਸ਼ੀਅਤ ਦੇ ਮਾਲਕ ਸਨ, ਉਹ ਜ਼ਾਲਮਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਸਹਿਣਸ਼ੀਲ, ਡਾਕੂਆਂ ਠੱਗਾਂ ਨੂੰ ਭਗਤ, ਹੰਕਾਰੀਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਵਲੀ ਅਤੇ ਦਰਿਦਿਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਇਨਸਾਨ ਬਣਾਣ ਦੀ ਸ਼ਕਤੀ ਦੇ ਮਾਲਕ ਸਨ। ਹਰ ਕੋਈ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਵੱਲ ਦੇਖ ਦੇ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੇ ਪ੍ਰਭਾਵ ਥੱਲੇ ਆ ਜਾਂਦਾ ਸੀ ਕਿਉਂਕਿ ਉਹ ਇੱਕ ਦਿਲ ਖਿਚਵੀਂ ਸ਼ਖਸ਼ੀਅਤ ਦੇ ਮਾਲਕ ਸਨ। ਜਿਹੜਾ ਵੀ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੇ ਸੰਪਰਕ ਵਿੱਚ ਆਉਂਦਾ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦਾ ਚੇਲਾ ਅਤੇ ਅਨੁਆਈ ਬਣ ਜਾਂਦਾ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੀ ਰਚੀ ਹੋਈ ਬਾਣੀ ਨ ਕੇਵਲ ਅੱਜ ਹੀ ਇੱਕ ਚਾਨਣ ਮਨਾਰੇ ਦੀ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਭੁਲਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਭੱਟਕਿਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਰਾਹ ਦਿਖਾ ਰਹੀ ਹੈ ਬਲਕਿ ਸਦੀਆਂ ਤੋਂ ਹੀ ਮਨੁੱਖੀ ਕਲਿਆਣ ਵਿੱਚ ਬਹੁਤ ਵੱਡਾ ਹਿੱਸਾ ਪਾ ਰਹੀ ਹੈ। ਉਹ ਇੱਕ ਮਹਾਨ ਕਵੀ ਸਨ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੁਆਰਾ ਲਿਖੀ ਬਾਣੀ ਜਪੁਜੀ, ਆਸਾ ਦੀ ਵਾਰ ਅਤੇ ਹੋਰ ਬਾਣੀਆਂ ਅੱਜ ਵੀ ਵਿਸ਼ੇਸ਼ ਮਹੱਤਤਾ ਦੀਆਂ ਮਾਲਕ ਹਨ। ਬਾਣੀ ਵਿੱਚ ਆਏ ਸ਼ਬਦ, ਜੋੜ, ਅਲੰਕਾਰ ਇੱਕ ਨਿਰਾਲਾ ਰੂਪ ਪ੍ਰਸਤੁਤ ਕਰਦੇ ਹਨ। ਉਹ ਲੋਕ ਬੋਲੀਆਂ ਨੂੰ ਭਲੀ ਭਾਂਤੀ ਸਮਝਦੇ ਸਨ ਅਤੇ ਆਮ ਲੋਕਾਂ ਦੇ ਪੱਧਰ ਤੋਂ ਵੀ ਚੰਗੀ ਤਰ੍ਹਾਂ ਜਾਣੂ ਸਨ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਨੇ ਮਨੁੱਖਤਾ ਦੀ ਨਬਜ਼ ਨੂੰ ਟੋਹਿਆ ਅਤੇ ਇੱਕ ਉਤਸ਼ਾਹੀ ਪ੍ਰਚਾਰਕ ਦੇ ਰੂਪ ਵਿੱਚ ਪ੍ਰਗਟ ਹੋਏ। ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਦੀਆਂ ਸਿੱਧਾਂ ਨਾਲ ਹੋਈਆਂ ਗੋਸ਼ਟੀਆਂ ਇਸ ਗੱਲ ਦੀਆਂ ਪ੍ਰਮਾਣ ਹਨ ਕਿ ਗੁਰੂ ਜੀ ਇੱਕ ਪ੍ਰਭਾਵਸ਼ਾਲੀ ਵਿਦਵਾਨ ਸਨ। ਮੁਲਤਾਨ ਵਿਖੇ ਸਾਧੂਆਂ ਦੁਆਰਾ ਭੇਜੇ ਗਏ ਦੁੱਧ ਦੇ ਪਿਆਲੇ ਵਿੱਚ ਚੰਬੇਲੀ ਦਾ ਫੁੱਲ ਪਾ ਕੇ ਆਪ ਨੇ ਇਹ ਸਾਬਤ ਕਰ ਦਿੱਤਾ ਕਿ ਉਨ੍ਹਾਂ ਵਰਗਾ ਗਿਆਨੀ ਹੋਰ ਕੋਈ ਨਹੀਂ ਹੈ।

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Inter-State Boundary and Water Disputes in India: A Constitutional Perspective

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Man is a social animal who by his nature and necessity lives in the society. As a member of a society, he enjoys certain privileges which he could not enjoy outside the society. At the same time, the society imposes certain duties on individual. There arises the need of organization to regulate the activities of the individual in the society. This is also necessary. Man, as a member of society, gives birth to particular institutions which perform such functions wherein the people find an opportunity to decide about their political future and opt for a particular type of political system for managing their affairs. To fulfill their needs, necessities and aspirations, they establish some institutions which help them in giving practical shape to their ambitions. Their preference for a particular kind of political system is greatly influenced by the socio-economic, political and geographical setting of the society. Since these situations vary from one society to another, one can easily find the justifications for managing the affairs of different societies. If one looks at the world around, one can find that while in some parts of the world there are democratic institutions, the dictatorial regime of one kind or the other are also in existence in other part.

Thus the difference of *Social world* gives birth to different political systems. Democracy is successful in some countries while other countries have experienced dictatorship. Some countries have adopted unitary form of Government, while the federal Government functions successfully in other parts of the world. Parliamentary form of government is successful in some societies while some have adopted Presidential type of Government. Every political community has some features unique to it and some political avails also take birth as a result of the socio-economic milieu.

After independence, the founding fathers of the Indian Constitution had two models before them, i.e., Parliamentary and Presidential. The Constituent Assembly was sharply divided with regard to the model to be adopted out of these two. Although the merits of the Presidential model were advocated and recognized but the overwhelming majority opted for Parliamentary model because its merits in addition to the acquaintance of the Indian masses with this.

The framers of Indian Constitution had another problem before them. They were to decide about the nature of Indian polity i.e., whether should adopt a federal form of Government or the unitary form of government. The diversity in Indian society, on the basis of caste, religion, language, region coupled with the vastness of Indian Territory compelled the Constitution makers to immediately opt for a federal structure. They were sure that this would ensure not only the

uniformity in administration but also the fulfillment of the regional aspirations of the people to the greatest extent. Although the American model of federation was kept in view but that was not imported and adopted in India. Rather, in view of the socio-economic, political and geographical compulsions, a unique type of federal polity was given birth to meet the needs and necessities of the Indian masses.

The framers of India's Constitution themselves exercise great care to strike a compromise between the contending forces of State's rights and national integration. While establishing a federation they avoided the conservatism, unnecessary legalism and weak government-the three evils of federalism tested by Dicey.^{xiii} There is no doubt "India is a case *Sui genre*" (altogether unique).^{xiii} C.H. Alexandrowicz, concluded that Federation making in full swing though Constitution-making has completed.^{xiii} The Assembly's decision to give India a Parliamentary and Federal Constitution was not made in a day. Two and a half year were spent on the discussion before final decisions were taken. The federal Constitution of India, which represents a deliberate effort to reconcile the need for powerful central authority with the strength of regional feelings, proves to be a work of political genius.^{xiii} According to the Constitution of India;

1. India is that Bhart, Shall be a Union of States.
2. The States and the territories thereof shall be as^{xiii} specified in the First Schedule.
3. The territory of India shall comprise
 - (a) the territories of the States;
 - (b) the Union^{xiii} territories specified in the First Schedule; and
 - (c) such other territories as may be acquired.

The Article has been amended by the Constitution (7th Amendment) Act 1956.

The republic of India is described as a union and not a federation. The Constitution makers had a purpose in choosing the word *Union* in preference to *Federation*. they were of the view that the word *Union* better express the fact that the Union of India is not the outcome of an agreement among the old provinces, with the result that it is not open to any State or a group of States to secede form the Union or to vary the boundary of their State on their own free will.^{xiii}

Accordingly Article 1, India is described as a Union of States, and the States and territories are specified in the First Schedule. None of the constituent units of the Indian Union was sovereign and independent in the sense American colonies or the Swiss Cantons were before they formed their federal unions. The Constituent Assembly of India, deriving its power from the sovereign people, was unfettered by any previous commitment in evolving a constitutional pattern suitable to genius and requirement of the Indian people as a whole. The Constitution contemplates changes of territorial limits of the constituent States and gives no guarantee of their territorial integrity.^{xiii}

The territory which is described in clause (3) falls under three categories^{xiii}: 1) State territories^{xiii} 2) Union territories^{xiii} 3) territories which may be acquired by the Government of India.^{xiii} No parliamentary legislation is required to acquire a foreign territory. It is an inherent attribute of sovereign State to acquire new territories. Article 1(3)(c) therefore, in including the

acquire territory as part of the Indian territory, merely states a factual situation and does not consider a particular area to have been acquired by it, is binding on the court.^{xiii}

A territory can be said to have been acquired when the Indian Union acquires sovereignty over such territory. The expression “acquired” should be taken to be a reference to “acquisition”, as understood in public international law.^{xiii} If there was any public notification, assertion or declaration by which the Government of India had declared or treated a territory as part and parcel of India, the courts would be bound to recognize an “acquisition” as having taken place, with the consequence that the territory would be part of the territory of the Union within Article 1(3)(c). A statement of the Government of India that it did not consider particular area to have been acquired by it, is binding on the court.^{xiii}

It matters not how the acquisition has been brought about. It may be by conquest, it may be by cession following treaty, it may be by occupation of territory hitherto unoccupied by a recognised ruler, or it may be by accretion. After the commencement of the Constitution annexation of Sikkim, Goa, Daman and Diu, Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Pondicherry are examples of acquisition.^{xiii}

No cession of Indian Territory can take place without a Constitutional amendment. But settlement of boundary between India and any of the neighbouring countries about a dispute territory on the borders does not amount to cession of territory. An agreement to refer the dispute regarding boundary involves ascertainment and representation on the surface of the earth of a boundary line dividing two neighbouring countries. The very fact of referring such a dispute implies that the executive may do such acts as are necessary for permanently fixed the boundary. A settlement of a boundary dispute can not, therefore, be held to be a cession of territory. It contemplates a line of demarcation on the surface of the earth. It only seeks to reproduce a line, a suitable boundary, and it is so fixed. In Such a case each contending State ex facie is uncertain of its own right and therefore, consents to the appointment of arbitral machinery. Such a case is plainly distinguishable from a case of cession or territory known to be home territory.^{xiii} Similarly, a perpetual lease in favour of another country to use a part of Indian territory such as that of Teen Bigha in favour of Bangladesh, does not amount to cession of Indian territory and, therefore, can be executed without an amendment of the Constitution.^{xiii}

According to Article 2 of the Indian Constitution ‘Parliament may by law admit into the Union, or establish, new States on such terms and conditions as it think fit’.^{xiii}

This Article gives two powers to Parliament 1) the power to admit into the Union new States, and 2) the power to establish new states. Several territories, such as Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Goa, Daman and Diu, Pondicherry and Sikkim have been admitted into the Union since the commencement of the Constitution. But in all these case Article 2 was not invoked; admission in all these cases was done by an amendment of the Constitution under Article 368. The only example of admission of a territory under Article 2 appears to be of Chandernagore under the Chandernagore

(Merger Act) 1954. But in view of Explanation 1 of Article 3, it is doubtful whether the expression “States” in Article 2 includes a Union territory.

Since the States, in every federation, normally act as independent units in the exercise of their internal sovereignty, conflicts of interest between the units are sure to arise. Hence, in order to maintain the strength of the Union, it is essential that there should be an adequate provision for judicial determination of disputes between the units and for settlement of disputes by extra judicial bodies as well as their prevention by consultation and joint action.^{xiii} Thus the makers of the Constitution incorporated provisions in the constitution of India to regulate the inter-state boundary and water disputes.

Constitutional Provisions for Inter-State Disputes

It has already been pointed out that the Indian federation differs from system insofar as it empowers Parliament to alter the territory or integrity of its units, namely, the States, without their consent or concurrence. Where the federal system is the result of a compact or agreement between independent States, it is obvious that the agreement cannot be altered without the consent of the parties to it. This is why the American federation has been described as “an indestructible Union of indestructible States”. It is not possible for the national Government to redraw the map of the United States by forming new States or by altering boundaries of the States as they existed at the time of the compact without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned. But since federation in India was not the result of any compact between independent States, there was no particular urge to maintain the initial organisation of the States as outlined in the Constitution even though interests of the nation as a whole demanded a change in this respect. The makers of Constitution, therefore, empowered Parliament to reorganise the States by a simple procedure, the essence of which is that the affected State or States may express their views but cannot resist the will of Parliament.^{xiii} Thus Article 3 of the Constitution, Parliament has the power to alter the boundaries of any State and therefore, has the power to settle boundary dispute under the same Article.

Article 4 provides that any such law may make supplemental, incidental and consequential provisions for making itself effective and may amend the First and Fourth Schedules of the Constitution, without going through the special formality of a law for the amendment of the Constitution as prescribed by Article 368. These Articles, thus, demonstrate the flexibility of the Constitution. By a simple majority and by the ordinary legislative process Parliament may form new States or alter the boundaries, etc., of existing States and thereby change the political map of India. The only conditions laid down for the making of such a law are

- (a) No Bill for the purpose can be introduced except on the recommendation of the President.
- (b) The President shall, before giving his recommendation, refer the Bill Procedure for to the Legislature of the State which is going to be Reorganisation of affected by the changes proposed in the Bill, for expressing its views on the changes within the period specified by

the President. The President is not, however, bound by the views of the State Legislature, so ascertained.

Here is, thus, a special feature of the Indian federation, *viz.*, that the territories of the units of the federation may be altered or redistributed if the Union Executive and Legislature so desire.^{xiii}

Inter-State Comity

Though a federal Constitution involves the sovereignty of the unit within their respective territorial limits, it is possible for them to remain in complete isolation from each other and the very exercise of internal sovereignty by a Unit would require its recognition by, and co-operation of, the other Units of the federation. All federal Constitutions, therefore, lay down certain rules of comity which the Units are required to observe, in their treatment of each other. These rules and agencies relate to such matters as

- (a) Recognition of the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of each other.
- (b) Extra-judicial settlement of disputes.
- (c) Co-ordination between States.
- (d) Freedom of inter-State trade, commerce and intercourse.

Recognition of Public Acts, etc. Since the jurisdiction of each State is confined to its own territory,^{xiii} acts and records of one State might have been refused, to be recognised in another State, without a provision to compel such recognition. The Constitution, therefore, provides that:

“Full faith and credit shall be given throughout the territory of India to public records and judicial proceedings of the Union and every State”^{xiii}

This means that duly authenticated copies of statutes or statutory instruments, judgments or order of one State shall be given recognition in another State in the same manner as the statutes, etc., of latter State itself. Parliament has the power to legislate as to the mode of proof of such acts and records or the effects thereof.^{xiii}

Extra judicial Settlement of Dispute

Article 131^{xiii}: Original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court: Subject to the provisions of the Constitution, the Supreme Court shall, to the exclusion of any other court, have original jurisdiction in any dispute:

- (a) between Government of India and one or more States; or
- (b) between the Government of India and any State or States one side and one or more other States on the other; or
- (c) between two or more States,

if and in so far as the dispute involves any question (whether of law or fact) on which the existence or extent of a legal right depends:

Provided that the Said Jurisdiction shall not extend to a dispute arising out of any treaty, agreement, convention, engagement, *sand* or other any instrument which, having been entered into or executed before the commencement of this Constitution, continues in operation after such commencement, or which provides that the said jurisdiction shall not extend to such a dispute.^{xiii}

Original jurisdiction: Article 131 defines the *exclusive* and the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. Articles 132-136 deal with appellate jurisdiction and Article 141 with the advisory jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.

A court has original jurisdiction when it has authority to hear and determine a case in the first instance. It has exclusive jurisdiction when it has authority to hear and determine a case which no other court can hear or determine.

In a federal or a quasi-federal structure, which the Indian Constitution sets up, disputes may arise between the Government of India and one or more States, or between two or more States. A forum should be provided for the resolution, such disputes. The forum should be the highest court so that final adjudication could be achieved expeditiously. Article 131 serves that purpose.

The article imposes two limitations on the exercise of the original jurisdiction by the Supreme Court: *first* as to the party, and second as to the *subject-matter*.

Parties: There must be an inter-State dispute, i.e. the dispute must be between the units of the Union or between the Union and any one or more of the States, or between the Union and any State or States on one side and one or more States on the other. The idea behind this condition is that if there is a dispute between two States or between the Union and the States, it is not desirable that should be litigated in the court of one of the disputing parties. The Supreme Court in its original jurisdiction cannot entertain suits brought by private individuals against the Government of India. Where a private individual has a claim against the Government of India, the case must go in the first instance to the local courts and from there it can go to the Supreme Court in appeal, provided that the appeal fulfils other requirements of law. In *State of Bihar v. Union of India*^{xiii}, the court held that a dispute between the State of Bihar and the Hindustan Steel Ltd., a registered company under the Companies Act, 1956, did not fall within its original jurisdiction because a body like the Hindustan Steel Ltd. was not “a State” for the purposes of Article 131.

In suits by the State Governments for compensation etc. against the railway administration, Union of India is a necessary party. These suits, however, cannot be filed under Article 131 because they do not involve any question with respect to the rights or claim either of the States or Union as such, but only to rights and claims relating to ordinary business or commercial transactions which are not in any way different from similar transactions between private persons.^{xiii} Similarly, a dispute jointly brought by a State with its agent, who has an independent right to challenge a notification of another State in writ proceedings, does not fall under this article.^{xiii}

In *State of Rajasthan v. Union of India*^{xiii} (*Rajasthan Dissolution case*), the court faced the question whether “State” in Article 131(a) also includes within its purview “State Government”. Majority of the court in that case observed that the true construction of Article 131(a), true in substance and true pragmatically, is that a dispute must arise between the Union of India and a State. Such a dispute cannot be but a dispute which arises out of the differences between the government in office at the Centre and the government in office in the State. The purpose of Article 131 is to provide a forum for the resolution of disputes which must involve a question, whether of

law or of fact, on which the existence or extent of a legal right is based, not a mere political issue. The issuance of a directive from the Government of India to State Governments that the Chief Ministers should tender a certain advice to their Governors for the dissolution of State Assemblies on the grounds mentioned in the Home Minister's letter to the Chief Ministers raised a legal, not a political, issue arising out of the existence and extent of a legal right falling within the purview of Article 131. The legal right of the States consists in their immunity in the sense of freedom from the power of the Union Government and to contend that the Centre has no power to dissolve the State Assemblies. However, it is not necessary for attracting Article 131 that the plaintiff must assert a right for it self. It is sufficient if the plaintiff questions the legal or constitutional right asserted by the defendant, be it the Government of India or any other State.^{xiii} Minority of the court, however, did not agree with this view and observed that the "State" can not be identified with the Government of the State. In their view a dispute between the Government of India and the Government of a State did not come within the purview of Article 131 because even after the dissolution of the Assembly, the State will continue to have a government.

In *State of Karnataka v. Union of India*^{xiii} the court had the occasion to consider the nature, scope and applicability of Article 131. On the question whether any legal right of the State is involved when the Central Government notified the appointment of a commission of enquiry on charges of corruption, etc. against the Chief Minister and other Ministers of the State, and whether the suit brought by the State Government was maintainable, following the decision in the *Rajasthan Dissolution case*^{xiii}, the Supreme Court by a majority held that the suit was maintainable. It was observed that a distinction between the State and its government is, at the most, one between the whole and an inseparable part of the whole. It would be immaterial as regards claims on behalf of either the State or its government, whether the two are distinct juristic entities. Even if they could be distinctly separate, the claim of the government would be that of the State.^{xiii} Untwalia, Shinghal and Jaswant Singh JJ in their dissent maintained that a restricted meaning should be given to the scope of the suit filed under Article 131.

Subject-matter: The dispute must involve any question on which the existence or extent of a legal right depends. A legal right is an interest recognised and protected by a rule of legal justice-an interest the violation of which would be a legal wrong done to him whose interest it is, and respect for which is a legal duty.^{xiii} In *United Provinces v. Governor General in Council*, a case under Section 204, Government of India Act, 1935, which defined the exclusive original jurisdiction of the Federal Court in a language similar to that used in the present article, the Federal Court held that although a legal right is commonly accompanied by the power of instituting legal proceedings for the enforcement of it, yet it is not necessarily the case and does not pertain to the essence of the conception. In that case, the plaintiff brought a suit against the defendant for the recovery of certain sums of money, which he alleged were wrongfully credited to the cantonment fund. The defendant, inter alia, pleaded that since no suit could be instituted by a Province against the Government of India under the law prevailing at the relevant period, the dispute was one which was not justifiable

before the Federal Court in its original jurisdiction. The Federal Court held that the suit would lie, because the dispute involved a question on which the existence or extent of a legal right depended. In the course of the judgment, Sulaiman J said:

The term 'legal right' used in Section 204 obviously means a right recognised by law and capable of being enforced by the power of a State but not necessarily in a court of law. It is a right of an authority recognised and protected by a rule of law, a violation of which would be a legal wrong to his interest and respect for which is a legal duty, even though no action may actually lie. The only ingredients seem to be a legal recognition and a legal protection. The mere fact that under the previous Act the provincial governments were subordinate administrations under the control of the Central Government and could only have made a representation to the Governor-General-in-Council or the Secretary of State would not be sufficient in itself for holding that the former could not possibly possess any legal right at all against the Central Government, even in respect of rights conferred upon them by the provisions of the Act or the rules made there under.

But where the claim made by a party is dependent not on law but on non-legal considerations, the court has no jurisdiction under Article 131. The matter must be such as may properly be taken to the court. A matter in order to be justifiable must be such that a controversy of a like nature could arise between individual persons, and must be such that it can be determined upon the principles of law. The words in Article 131 "if and insofar as the dispute involves any question (whether of law or of fact) on which the existence or extent of a legal right depends" are words of limitation on the exercise of that jurisdiction. These words indicate that the disputes should be in respect of legal rights and not disputes of political character.^{xiii}

What Article 131 requires is that the dispute must be one which involves "a question" on which the existence or extent of "a legal right depends". This article does not say that the legal right must be of the plaintiff. It may be of the plaintiff or of the defendant. What is necessary is that the existence or extent of the legal right must be in issue in the dispute between the parties. There is no reference to a suit or "cause of action" in Article 131 and the article confers jurisdiction on the Supreme Court with reference to the character of the dispute which may be brought before it for adjudication. The requirement of "cause of action", which is necessary in a suit, cannot, therefore, be imparted while construing the scope and ambit of Article 131. The word "right" in Article 131 is used in a generic sense. Thus, in the *Rajasthan Dissolution case*,^{xiii} it was held that the suit was maintainable within the scope and ambit of Article 131, as it sought to enforce a legal right of the States under the Constitution due to the unconstitutional exercise of power by the President under Article 356, affecting adversely the rights of several persons and infringing not only the individual rights of the members of the Legislative Assembly, but also the constitutional rights of the States, to insist that their constitutional status shall not be violated by unconstitutional assault under Article 356. So also in *State of Karnataka v. Union of India*, the claim of the State was held to raise a "legal dispute" as to the extent of the power of the State alone to investigate and control misuse of

governmental power by the Chief Minister and other Ministers of the State, and the existence of a superior or coordinate power in the Central Government to inquire into the conduct of the Chief Minister and other Ministers of the State in the discharge of their governmental functions. A suit under this article is maintainable if one of the State parties refuses to honour the decision of the Inter-State Water Disputes Tribunal. The court may, however, not issue a mandatory injunction in such cases without any definite conclusion on the question of irreparable injury and balance of convenience as well as positive data about the adverse effects in the absence of such injunction.^{xiii} The court, however, issued mandatory injunction to a State Government which failed to discharge its legal obligation towards another government not falling within the Inter-State Water Disputes Act, 1956.^{xiii}

Under Article 131, the Supreme Court is not required to adjudicate upon the disputes in exactly the same way as ordinary courts of law are normally called upon to do for upholding the rights of the parties and for the enforcement of its orders and decisions. Article 131 does not prescribe that a suit must be filed in the Supreme Court for complete adjudication of the dispute envisaged therein, or the passing of a decree capable of execution in the ordinary way as decrees of other courts are. It is open to an aggrieved party to present a petition to the Supreme Court containing a full statement of the relevant facts and praying for the declaration of its rights as against other disputants. Once this is done, the function of the Supreme Court under Article 131 is at an end.^{xiii} Before going into the merits of a case the court may also send for mediation for settlement.^{xiii}

Disputes excluded from Article 131: The exclusive jurisdiction conferred on the Supreme Court under this article is subject to the other provisions of the Constitution. In the following matters, the exclusive jurisdiction of the Supreme Court is excluded by the Constitution:

1. The proviso to Article 131 declares that the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court does not extend to a dispute arising out of any treaty, agreement, covenant, engagement, *sanad* or other similar instrument which, having been entered into or executed before the commencement of the Constitution, continues in operation after such commencement, or which provides that the jurisdiction shall not extend to such a dispute. A dispute involving interpretation of these documents has evidently been left within the exclusive discretion of the executive.
2. Parliament may by law exclude the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in disputes between States with respect to the use, distribution or control of waters of any inter-State river or river valley. In such disputes, different modes of adjudication may be prescribed.^{xiii} Inter-State Water Disputes Act, 1956 enacted by Parliament under Article 262 is such a legislation. An agreement between States for digging up a canal linking two rivers is not a matter falling under this provision and can be entertained by the court under Article 131.^{xiii}
3. Matters referred to the Finance Commission.^{xiii}
4. Adjustment of certain expenses between the Union and the States.^{xiii}

The Union of India and each one of its States is treated as a person in the eyes of law. A State may sue and be sued. The Government of India may sue or be sued by the name of the Union of India. The Government of a State may sue or be sued by the name of the State.^{xiii}

Article 262: Adjudication of Disputes Relating to Waters of Inter-State Rivers or River Valleys^{xiii}

- (1) Parliament may by law provide for the adjudication of any dispute or complaint with respect to the use, distribution or control of the waters of, or in, any inter-State river or river valley.
- (2) Notwithstanding anything in this Constitution, Parliament may by law provide that neither the Supreme Court nor any other court shall exercise jurisdiction in respect of any such dispute or complaint as is referred to in clause (1)

This article empowers Parliament to enact laws in order to provide for the adjudication of disputes relating to waters of inter-State rivers or river valleys.

Clause (2) empowers Parliament to enact provisions barring the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court or other courts in respect of such disputes.

In explaining the need for an extra-judicial machinery to settle inter-State disputes relating to water-supplies, the Joint Parliamentary Committee Report observed:

The effect of this is to give each Province complete powers over water supplies within the Province without any regard whatever to the interests of neighbouring Provinces. The Federal Court would indeed have jurisdiction to decide any dispute between two Provinces in connection with water supplies, if legal rights or interests are concerned; but the experience of most countries has shown that rules of law based upon the analogy of private proprietary interests in water do not afford a satisfactory basis for settling disputes between Provinces or States where the interests of the public at large in the proper use of water supplies are involved. It is unnecessary to emphasise the importance from the public point of view of the distribution of water in India, upon which not only the prosperity, but the economic existence of large tracts depends.

For the first time in the constitutional history of India, the term 'river valleys' has placed in juxtaposition to 'inter-state rivers' prior to that it was "water from any natural source of supply", without reference to river valleys. This important change brought significance in relation to inter-state rivers, in particular to the powers that may be exercised by the union both under Entry 56^{xiii} of List I of the Seventh Schedule and Article 262 of the Constitution of India.

The distribution of legislative powers is provided for in Chapter 1 of Part XI of the Constitution of India. Article 246^{xiii} provides, among other things, that subject to clauses (1) and (2) of the said Article, the legislature of any State has exclusive power to make laws for such State or any part thereof with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the State List in the Seventh Schedule.

Clauses (1) and (2) of the said Article refer to the Parliament's exclusive powers to make laws with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the Union List and the power of the Parliament and the Legislature of the State to make laws with respect to any of the matters enumerated in the Concurrent List or the State List.^{xiii}

A reading of Entry 56 shows that so far as Inter-State rivers and river valleys are concerned, their regulation and development can be taken over by the Union by a parliamentary enactment. However, that enactment must declare that such regulation and development under the control of the Union's expedient in the public interest.

The distinction between Article 262 and Entry 56 of List I is whereas, Article 262 (1) speaks of *adjudication of any dispute or complaint* and that too with respect to the use, distribution or control of the waters of or in any inter-state river or river valley, Entry 56 of List I speaks of regulation and development of inter-state river and river valleys.

Under the List II, of Seventh Schedule, the State is empowered to make legislation of the item, water. Entry 17 of the State list reads follows:

“Water, that is to say, water supplies, irrigation and canals, drainage and embankments, water storage and water power subject to the provisions of Entry 56 of List I”.

An examination of both the Entries show that the State has competence to legislate with respect to all aspects of water including water flowing through inter-state rivers, subject to certain limitations, viz., the control over the regulation and development of the inter-state river waters should not have been taken over by the Union and secondly, the State cannot pass legislation with to affecting any aspect of the waters beyond Its territory. The competence of the State legislature in respect of inter-state river waters however, denuded by the Parliament legislation only to the extent to which the later legislation occupies the field and more, and only if the Parliamentary legislation in question declares that the control of the regulation and development of the inter-state rivers and river valleys is expedient in the public interest, and not otherwise.

Entry 14^{xiii} of List II relates, among other things, to agriculture. In so far as agriculture depends upon water including river water, the State legislature while enacting legislation with regard to agriculture may be competent to provide for the regulation and development of its water resources including water supplies, irrigation and canals, drainage and embankments, water storage and water power which are the subjects mentioned in Entry 17. However, such legislation enacted under Entry 14, subject to the provisions of Entry 56 List I. So also Entry 18^{xiii} of List II which speaks. among other things, of land improvement which may give the State Legislature the powers to enact similar legislation as under Entries 14 and 17 and subject to the same restrictions.

Under Entry 97^{xiii} of the List I, the Union has the residuary power to make legislation in respect of any matter touching inter-state river water which is not enumerated in the State list or the Concurrent List. Correspondingly, the State legislature cannot legislate in relation to the said aspects or matters.

Under Entry 24 of List I (Union List), the Union has power to declare, by law, any river (whether inter-State or intra-State) as a 'national waterway', as regards mechanically-propelled vessels and to lay down the rule of the road on such water ways. Under Entry 30 of that list, the Union may control the carriage of passengers and goods by 'national waterways, in mechanically-propelled vessels.^{xiii}

The River Board Act, 1956

By virtue of powers vested in it under Entry 56 of List I of Seventh Schedule, read with Article 262 of the Constitution, the Parliament enacted the River Boards Act, 1956 (No.49 of 1956). In view of the 'wider purpose' of the River Boards Act, Section 3(b) of this provides:

"Governments interested", in relation to a Board, means the Governments of those States which, in the opinion of the Central Government, are likely to be interested in, or affected by, the functions of the Board under this Act."^{xiii}

This makes it possible for even non-riparian or non-basin states to participate in the activities of a board and to share in the benefits from a river valley development, by agreement with basin States. This provides an important distinction between the two Acts, as under the Inter-State Water Dispute Act, only that state can invoke the machinery of the Act which can establish claim to an interest in the waters of an inter-State river. Such a claim can validly be made by a riparian or basin State under Entry 17 to the State List in 7th Schedule of the Constitution. However Section 4(4) of River Board Act lays down:^{xiii}

"Every Board shall exercise its jurisdiction within such limits of the river (including its tributaries, if any) or river valley as may be specified in the notification under sub-section (i)"^{xiii}

Sub-Section 4(1) referred to above, provides:

"The Central Government may, on a request received in this behalf from a State Government or otherwise, by notification in the Official Gazette, establish a River Board for advising the Governments interested in relation to such matters concerning the regulation or development of an inter-State river or river valley or any specified part thereof and for performing such other functions as may be specified in the notification, and different Boards may be established for different inter-State rivers or river valleys."^{xiii}

In other words, the Jurisdiction of River Board cannot go beyond the limits of the basin of the river for which the Board is set up. It may be added that in the notifications for the River Boards, as prepared in 1963. The "Area of Operation" of each River Board was to include "Such areas adjoining the drainage basin of the river to which the water of the river are or may be carried for the purpose of development."

A River Board may be empowered, by notification to perform all or any of the following function which have been set out in Section 13 of the Act:^{xiii}

- (a) advising the Governments interested on any matter concerning the regulation or development of any specified inter-State river or river valley within its area of operation and in particular, advising them in relation to the co-ordination of their activities with a view to,

resolve conflicts among them and to achieve maximum results in respect of the measures undertaken by them in the inter-State river or river valley for the purpose of

- (i) conservation, control and optimum utilisation of water resources of the inter-State river;
 - (ii) promotion and operation of schemes for irrigation, water supply or drainage;
 - (iii) promotion and operation of schemes for the development of hydro-electric power;
 - (iv) promotion and operation of schemes -for flood control;
 - (v) promotion and control of navigation;
 - (vi) promotion of a forestation and control of soil erosion;
 - (vii) prevention of pollution of the waters of the inter-State river;
 - (viii) such other matters as may be prescribed;
- (b) preparing schemes, including multi-purpose schemes, for the purpose of regulating or developing the inter-State river or river valley and advising the Governments interested to undertake measures for executing the scheme prepared by the Board;
- (c) allocating-among the Governments interested the costs of executing any scheme prepared by the Board and of maintaining any works undertaken in the execution of the scheme;
- (d) watching the progress of the measures undertaken by the Governments interested;
- (e) any other matter which is supplemental, incidental or consequential to any of the above functions.

According to the River Boards Act 1956, "where any dispute or difference arises between two or more Governments interested with respect to any advice tendered by the Board under that Act or any measure undertaken by any Government interested in pursuance of any advice tendered by the Board or other matters covered by that Act or touching or arising out of it, any of the Governments may, in such form and in such manner as may be prescribed, refer the matter to arbitration."^{xiii}

The arbitrator shall be a person to be appointed in this behalf by the Chief Justice of India from among persons who are, or have been, Judges of the Supreme Court or are Judges of a High Court. The arbitrator may appoint two or more persons as assessors to assist him in the proceeding before him. The decision of the arbitrator shall be final and binding on the parties to the dispute and shall be given effect to by them.

Inter-State Water Disputes Act, 1956

Again by virtue of the power under Article '262 of the Constitution, Parliament enacted the Inter-State Water Disputes Act 1956 (Act 33 of 1956). The Act is entitled as "an Act to provide for the adjudication of disputes relating to waters of inter-State rivers or river valleys,"^{xiii}

The main object of the Act is to provide for the constitution of a tribunal for adjudication of a water dispute. The Act defines a water dispute to mean any dispute or difference between the two or more state governments with respect:^{xiii}

- (i) the use, distribution or control of the waters of, or in, any inter-State river or river valley;
or^{xiii}

(ii) the interpretation of the terms of any agreement relating to the use, distribution or control of such water or the implementation of such agreement; or^{xiii}

(iii) the levy of any water rate in contravention of the prohibition contained in section 7.^{xiii}

In Section 3 of the Inter-State Water Dispute Act, 1956, the following provisions are made

“If it appears to the Government of any State that a water dispute with the Government of another State has arisen or is likely to arise by reason of the fact that the interests of the State, or of any of the inhabitants thereof, in the waters of an inter-State river or river valley have been, or are likely to be, affected prejudicially by-

- (a) any executive action or legislation taken or passed, or proposed to be taken or passed, by the other State; or
- (b) the failure of the other State or any authority therein to exercise any of their powers with respect to the use, distribution or control of such waters; or
- (c) the failure of the other State to implement the terms of any agreement relating to the use, distribution or control of such waters, the State Government may, in such form and manner as may be prescribed, request the Central Government to refer the water dispute to a Tribunal for adjudication.”

Section 4 of the Act deals with the establishment of a tribunal:

^{xiii}“(1) When any request under section 3 is received from any State Government in respect of any water dispute and the Central Government is of opinion that the water dispute cannot be settled by negotiations, the Central Government shall, within a period not exceeding one year from the date of receipt of such request, by notification in the Official Gazette, constitute a Water Disputes Tribunal for the adjudication of the water dispute.”

Provided that any dispute settled by a Tribunal before the commencement of Inter-State Water Dispute (Amendment) Act 2002 shall not be re-opened;

Originally the Act provided for one-man tribunal nominated by the Chief Justice of India from among retired or sitting judges of the Supreme Court or High Court.

But the Act has been amended in 1968, according to this amendment:

“The Tribunal shall consist of a Chairman and two other members nominated in this behalf by the Chief Justice of India from among persons who at the time such nomination are Judges of the Supreme Court or a High Court.^{xiii} And the Central Government may, in consultation with the Tribunal appoint two or more persons as assessors to advise the Tribunal in the proceeding before it.^{xiii}

Section 5 of the Act provides:

1. When a Tribunal has been constituted under section 4, the Central Government shall, subject to the prohibition contained in section 8, refer the water dispute and any matter appearing to be connected with, or relevant to, the water dispute to the Tribunal for adjudication.^{xiii}

2. The Tribunal shall investigate the matters referred to it and forward to the Central Government a report setting out the facts as found by it and giving its decision on the matters referred to it within a period of three years;^{xiii}

It Provided that if the decision cannot be given for unavoidable reasons, within a period of three years, the Central Government may extend the period for further period not exceeding two years.

3. If, upon consideration of the decision of the Tribunal, the Central Government or any State Government is of opinion that anything therein contained requires explanation or that guidance is needed upon any point not originally referred to the Tribunal, the Central Government or the State Government, as the case may be, within three months from the date of the decision, again refer the matter to the Tribunal for further consideration, and on such reference, the Tribunal may forward to the Central Government a further report giving such explanation or guidance as it deems fit and in such a case, the decision of the Tribunal shall be deemed to be modified accordingly;^{xiii}

Provided that period of one year within which the Tribunal may forward its report to the Central Government, for such further period as it considers necessary.

4. If the members of the Tribunal differ in opinion on any point, shall be decided according to the opinion of the majority.^{xiii}

- 5A. If for any reason a vacancy (other than temporary absence) occurs in the office of the Chairman or any other member of a Tribunal, such vacancy shall be filled by a person to be nominated in this behalf by the Chief Justice of India in accordance with the provisions of sub-section (2) of section 4, and the investigation of the matter referred to the Tribunal may be continued by the Tribunal after the vacancy is filled and from the stage at which the vacancy occurred.^{xiii}

Section 6 of the Act deals with the publication of Tribunal decision:

- (1) The Central Government shall publish the decision of the Tribunal in the Official Gazette and the decision shall be final and binding on the parties to the dispute and shall be given effect to by them.^{xiii}
- (2) The decision of the Tribunal, after its publication in the Official Gazette by the Central Government under sub-section (1), shall have the same force as an order or decree of the Supreme Court.^{xiii} Now, by the virtue of Section 6A:
 - (1) Without prejudice to the provisions of section 6, the Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette frame a scheme or schemes whereby provision may be made for all matters necessary to give effect to the decision of a Tribunal.
 - (2) A scheme framed under sub-section (1) may provide for-
 - (a) The establishment of any authority (whether described as such or as a committee or other body) for the Tribunal;

- (b) The composition, jurisdiction, powers and functions of the authority, term of office and other conditions of service of, of the procedure to be followed by, and the manner of filling vacancies among, the members of the authority;
 - (c) The holding of a minimum number of meetings of the authority every year, the quorum for such meetings and the procedure thereat;
 - (d) The appointment of any standing, ad-hoc or other committees by authority;
 - (e) The employment of a Secretary and other staff by the authority, the pay and allowances and other conditions of service of such staff.
 - (f) The constitution of a fund by the authority, the amounts that may be credited to such fund and the expenses to which the fund may be applied;
 - (g) The form and the manner in which accounts shall be kept by the authority;
 - (h) The submission of an annual report by the authority of its activities;
 - (i) The decisions of the authority which shall be subject to review;
 - (j) The constitution of the committee for making such review and the procedure to be followed by such committee; and
 - (k) Any other matter which may be necessary or proper for the effective implementation of the decision or directions of the Tribunal.
- (3) In making provision in any scheme framed under sub-section (1) for the establishment of an authority for giving effect to the decision of a Tribunal; the Central Government may, having regard to the nature of the jurisdiction, powers and functions required to be vested in such authority in accordance with such decision and all other relevant circumstances, declare in the said scheme that such authority shall, under the name specified in the said scheme, have capacity to acquire, hold and dispose of property, enter into contracts, sue and be sued and do all such acts as may be necessary for the proper exercise and discharge of its jurisdiction, power and functions.
- (4) A scheme may empower the authority to make, with the previous approval of the Central Government, regulations for giving effect to the purposes of the scheme.
- (5) The Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, and to, amend, or vary, any scheme framed under sub-section (1).
- (7) Every scheme and regulation made under a scheme shall be laid, as soon as may be after it is made, before each House of Parliament, while it is in session, for a total period of thirty days which may be comprised in one session or in two or more successive sessions, and if, before the expiry of the session immediately following the session or the successive sessions aforesaid, both Houses agree in making any modification in the scheme or the regulation shall thereafter have effect only in such modified form or be of no effect, as the case may be; so however, that any such modification or annulment shall be without prejudice to the validity of anything previously done under that scheme or regulation.^{xiii}

According to Section 7 of the Act, no state Government shall, by reason only of the fact that any works for the conservation, regulation or utilisation of water resources of an inter-State river have been constructed within the limits of the State, impose, or authorise the imposition of, any seignior age or additional rate or fee (by whatever name called) in respect of the use of such water by other State or inhabitants thereof.^{xiii} And sub-section (2) states that any dispute or difference between two or more State Governments with respect to levy of any water rate in contravention of the prohibition contained in sub-section (1) shall be deemed to be a water dispute.^{xiii}

Section 8 bars reference to certain disputes to Tribunal:

“Notwithstanding anything contained in section 3 or 5, no reference shall be made to a Tribunal of any dispute that may arise regarding any matter which may be referred to arbitration under the River Boards^{xiii} (1956).”

The Act confers ample of power of investigation on the Tribunal. Thus according to Section 9 of the Act:

- (1) The Tribunal shall have the same powers as are vested in a civil court under the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, in respect of the following matters, namely:-
 - (a) summoning and enforcing the attendance of any person and examining him on oath;
 - (b) requiring the discovery and production of documents and material objects;^{xiii}
 - (ba) requisitioning of any data, as may be required by it.
 - (c) issuing commissions for the examination of witnesses or for local investigation;
 - (d) any other matter which may be prescribed.
- (2) The Tribunal may require any State Government to carry out, or permit to be carried out, such surveys and investigation as may be considered necessary for the adjudication of any water dispute pending before it.
- (3) A decision of the Tribunal may contain directions as to the Government by which the expenses of the Tribunal and any costs incurred by any State Government in appearing before the Tribunal are to be paid, and may fix the amount of any expenses or costs to be so paid, and so far as it relates to expenses or costs, may be enforced as if it were an order made by the Supreme Court.

Under Section 9(4) deals Tribunal procedure and practice:

“Subject to the provisions of Act and any rules that may be made hereunder^{xiii} the Tribunal may, by order, regulate its practice and procedure.”^{xiii}

Under Section 9A, Central Government has the power to maintain a data bank and information system at the national level for each river basin which shall include data regarding water resources, land agriculture, and matters relating thereto, as Central Government may prescribe from time to time. The State Government shall supply the data to the Central Government or to appointed by the Central Government for the purpose, as and when required. The Central Government shall have powers to verify the data supplied by the State Government, and appoint any person or persons for the purpose and take such measures as it may consider necessary. The

person or persons so appointed shall have the powers to summon such record and information from the discharge their functions under this section.^{xiii}

Section 11 of the Act, bars jurisdiction of Supreme Court and other Courts:

“Notwithstanding anything contained in any other law, neither the Supreme Court nor any other court shall have or exercise jurisdiction in respect of any water dispute which may be referred to a Tribunal under this Act.”

The bar of jurisdiction of the Supreme Court and of other Courts contained in Section 11 of the Act was made in pursuance of the express power conferred on Parliament under Article 262 (2) of the Constitution of India.^{xiii}

Section 12 of the this Act empowers the Central Government to dissolve the Tribunal after it has forwarded its report and as soon as the Central Government is satisfied that no further reference to the Tribunal in the matter be necessary.^{xiii}

Thus, in accordance with Article 262 of the Constitution of India, the Parliament enacted the Inter-State Water Disputes Act, 1956 and Under Entry 56 of the Union List enacted the River Boards Act, 1956. The River Board Act, 1956 was enacted for the regulation and development of inter-State rivers and river-valleys, adopts a Co-operative approach towards maximising benefits in respect of development of inter-State rivers. With regard to the dispute settlement machinery, the Inter-State Water Disputes Tribunal established under the 'Inter-State Water Disputes Act, 1956, are empowered to adjudicate the Inter-State water Disputes in India. In terms of Section 11 of the said Act, the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court and other courts is barred as far as the settlement of these disputes is concerned. The Awards of the Tribunals are open to revision and modification by any Tribunal of Competent Authority if the Concerned Tribunal so envisage.

Coordination between States

Though a federal Constitution involves the sovereignty of the units within their respective territorial limits, it is not possible for them to remain in complete isolation from each other and the very exercise of internal sovereignty by the units requires its recognition by and coordination of other units of the federation. Federal Constitution generally provides rules for cooperation which the units are expected to take into consideration while dealing with each other. The Indian Constitution also dose so.^{xiii}

Inter- State Council:

There is a provision in the Constitution of India for the establishment of Inter-State Council to effect co-ordination between States. The Inter-State Council is appointed by the President if it appears to him that the public interest would be served by its establishment of such Council.^{xiii} The Inter-State Council is generally charged with the duty of:

- (a) inquiring into and advising upon disputes which may have arisen between States;
- (b) investigating and discussing subjects in which some or all of the States, or the Union and one or more of the States, have a common interest; or

(c) making recommendations upon any such subject and, in particular, recommendations for the better co-ordination of policy and action with respect to that subject,

It shall be lawful for the President by order to establish such a Council, and to define the nature of the duties to be performed by it and its organisation and procedure.

The Supreme Court has jurisdiction to hear disputes between the States involving the existence or extent of a legal right.^{xiii} But experience of the working of federations has shown that inter-State disputes of a non-legal character sometimes arise. It was considered desirable to provide some Constitutional machinery for disposing of such differences. Power, therefore, is given to the President to setup an Inter-State Council charged with the duty of enquiring into and advising as to inter-State disputes, investigating subjects of interest to one or more States or to the Union and one or more States, and making recommendations in particular for the better coordination of policy and action on any subject. On this subject the Joint Parliamentary Committee in its report observed as below:^{xiii}

“It is obvious that if departments or institutions of co-ordination and research are to be maintained at the Centre in such matters as agriculture, forestry, irrigation, education and public health, and if such institutions are to be able to rely on appropriations of public funds sufficient to enable them to carry on their work the joint interest of the Provincial Governments in them must be expressed in some regular and recognised machinery of inter-governmental consultation. Moreover, we think that it will be of vital importance to establish some such machinery at the very outset of the working of the new Constitution, since it is precisely at that moment that institutions of this kind may be in most danger of falling between two stools through failing to enlist the active interest either of the Federal or the Provincial Government, both of whom will have many other more immediate occupations”.

The main object behind this provision is to establish regular recognised machinery for inter-Governmental consultation so that departments or institutions of coordination and research are to be maintained at the Centre in Bud' matters as agriculture, foresting, irrigation, education and public health. Such a body will give an opportunity to the State to express their views freely on common matters and would enable the Union to understand the feelings of the States and inter-Governmental cooperation will ensure smooth Constituted so far. In the exercise of this power, the President has already constituted the Central Council of Health, the Central Council Local Government, Central Council of Indian Medicine and Central Council of Homeopathy.

Zonal Councils:

The States Reorganisation Act, 1956 has set up five Zonal Councils, namely the Northern Zone Council, the Council of the Central Zone, the Eastern Zone Council, the Western Zone Council and the Council of the Southern Zone. A sixth Council named as the North-Eastern Council was set up under the North-Eastern Council Act, 1971. Each of these Councils consists of the Home Minister of the Government of India, Chief Ministers of the member States and two other ministers nominated by the Governor of the States concerned. The Union Home Minister is the ex officio

Chairman of each of these Councils. In each Council there are included advisers from the Planning Commission and the Chief Secretaries of the State Governments concerned. It has a separate staff and a secretariat. Such Councils have been established for the promotion of collective approach and effort to solve common problems of the member States. They are intended to foster inter-State concord and thereby to strengthen the Centre and the States. They would work top remote cooperation, successful implementation and execution of development projects and would also act as advisory bodies in matters of com-mon interest, particularly in respect of economic and social planning. They would also provide a forum for settling border disputes and other problems relating to linguistic minorities or inter-State transport, etc. By and large these Councils have been non-functional, inter alia, for lack of initiative, absence of proper secretariat, shyness to discuss controversial and sensitive issues, and one-party rule at the Centre and most of the States in the early years of the Constitution. The Commission on Centre-State Relations has recommended revamping of these Councils by removing their weaknesses and to activate them for the purpose of achieving the objectives in Article 263(c). Besides, the Commission has also recommended the setting up of an Inter-Governmental Council consisting of the Prime Minister, all Chief Ministers and all Union Cabinet Ministers for the purpose of achieving the objectives laid down in clauses (a) and (b) of Article 263. The Janata Dal Government of V.P. Singh in 1989-90 had implemented this recommendation. But before any tangible results could be seen, the government itself fell. However, the meetings of the inter-State Council are now occasionally held.^{xiii}

These Zonal Councils have been established for the promotion of cooperation and for making efforts to solve common problems, like border disputes, inter-State transport, matters arising out of the reorganisation of States and the like, and give advice to the Governments of the States concerned as well as the Government of India.^{xiii}

Hence, it should be remembered that these Councils do not owe their origin to the Constitution but an act of Parliament, having been introduced by the state

Reorganisation Act, as a part of the scheme of re-organisation of the States with a view to securing cooperation and coordination between the States, the Union Territories and the Union, particularly in the respect of economic and social development. The creation of the Zonal Councils was a logical outcome of the re-organisation of the State on a linguistic basis. For, if the cultural and economic affinity was to be maintained and their common interests were to be served by cooperative action, a common meeting ground of same sort was indispensable.^{xiii}

The foregoing analysis of the inter-State relations reveals that the Constitution of India provides various promises regarding the setting up of various statutory bodies to regulate the relations between the States.

भारतीय जनसंख्या वृद्धि का 1872 ई० से स्वरूप : जन्म दर, मृत्यु दर और लिंगानुपात के संदर्भ में

लेखक : श्री बिजेन्द्र कुमार

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संक्षेप :

भारत की पहली जनसंख्या 1867 से 1872 तक चली यानी इसमें पांच वर्ष से अधिक का समय लगा। 1872 की जनगणना का मुख्यतः ऐतिहासिक महत्व है क्योंकि यह पहला प्रयास था। भारत की जनसंख्या में वृद्धि हाल ही की घटना है। उपलब्ध आंकड़ों के अनुसार 300 ईसा पूर्व से लेकर 1750 ई० तक जनसंख्या लगभग अपरिवर्तित रही। बनारस हिन्दू विश्वविद्यालय के प्रो० प्राणनार्थ¹ ने अपनी "थीसिस" – "एस्टडी इन द इकोनोमिक कण्डीशन ऑफ ऐसिन्ट इण्डिया" में भारत की जनसंख्या 10 करोड़ से 14 करोड़ बतायी है। 1600 ई० के लिए डब्ल्यू०एच० मौरलैंड ने दस करोड़ और अजित दास गुप्त ने 13.5 करोड़ की संख्या बतायी है। किंग्सले डेविस² के अध्ययन के अनुसार 1750 में भारती की जनसंख्या 12.5 करोड़ थी। जनसंख्या वृद्धि में सिर्फ 1800 के आस पास ही एक स्पष्ट परिवर्तन दिखाई पड़ा। जब पी०सी० महालानोबिस और डी० भट्टाचार्य³ के आंकड़ों के अनुसार भारत की जनसंख्या 20.70 करोड़ (1801–1901) हो गयी। उस समय के बाद से जनसंख्या की दीर्घ कालीन वृद्धि दर ऊपर की ओर रही। हालांकि अल्पकालिन उतार-चढ़ाव (विशेषकर 1925 ई० तक) होते रहे।

मुख्य शब्द – जन्म दर, मृत्यु दर, लिंगानुपात।

परिचय :

जनसंख्या वृद्धि दर 1921 ई० से त्वरित हो गई। ठीक-ठीक कहें तो 1872 से लेकर 1921 ई० तक के पांच दशकों के दौरान डेविस के आंकड़ों के अनुसार जनसंख्या में 20 प्रतिशत से कम वृद्धि हुई। औसत वार्षिक दर 4 प्रतिशत रही जो उस अवधि के विश्व औसत से, जो लगभग 7 प्रतिशत थी, कम रही। अगले तीन दशकों (1921 ई० – 1951 ई०) में भारतीय जनसंख्या में 44 प्रतिशत वृद्धि हुई जबकि विश्व में वृद्धि लगभग 33 प्रतिशत थी।

तालिका – 1

भारत की जनसंख्या (1872 ई० से 1941 ई० तक)

सरकारी जनगणना के अनुसार

डेविस के संशोधित आंकड़े

वर्ष	संख्या (करोड़ में)	औसत (वार्षिक) वृद्धि	संख्या (करोड़ में)	औसत (वार्षिक) वृद्धि
1867-72	20.34	—	25.52	—
1881	25.02	2.07	25.74	0.09
1891	27.96	1.11	28.21	0.92
1901	28.39	0.15	28.53	0.11
1911	30.03	0.65	30.30	0.60
1921	30.57	0.09	30.57	0.09
1931	33.82	1.01	33.82	1.01
1941	38.90	1.40	38.90	1.40

किंगस्ले डेविस – “पापुलेशन ऑफ इंडिया एंड पाकिस्तान”

उपर्युक्त तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि भारतीय जनसंख्या की वृद्धि के इतिहास को दो भागों में बांट सकते हैं – 1921 से पहले का काल और द्वितीय 1921 ई० के बाद का काल। 1921 ई० के पहले का काल धीमी वृद्धि और उतार-चढ़ाव का रहा। जनसंख्या की वृद्धि दर काफी कम रही और कुल जनसंख्या में भारी उतार-चढ़ाव हुए।

भारत की जनसंख्या में 1921 के पहले और बाद में परिवर्तन मुख्य रूप से प्राकृतिक कारकों यानी जन्म दर और मृत्यु दर के परस्पर संबंध पर निर्भर रहे हैं। 1921 से पूर्व जन्म दर और मृत्यु दरें न सिर्फ ऊँची थी, बल्कि परस्पर काफी करीब थी परिणामस्वरूप एक लंबे समय तक जनसंख्या में कोई बड़ी वृद्धि या कमी नहीं आई। ऊँची मृत्यु दर के पीछे मुख्य कारक थे – अकाल, बाढ़, महामारियाँ और लाईलाज रोग।

1921 ई० के बाद कोई प्रकृति-निर्मित अकाल नहीं पड़ा। सिंचाई सुविधाओं के विस्तार और परिवहन व सिंचाई की बेहतर सुविधाओं के कारण विनाशकारी अकाल पड़ने के खतरे कम हो गए। स्वास्थ्य और सफाई की सुविधाओं की स्थिति में भी सुधार हुआ।

सरकार की नीतियों के परिवर्तन के फलस्वरूप 1921 के बाद दश में कई नए उद्योगों की स्थापना हुई। सूतीवस्त्र उद्योगों जैसे पुराने उद्योगों का विस्तार हुआ। राष्ट्रीय आंदोलन के प्रभाव के कारण ग्रामोद्योगों और खादी में नया जीवन आया। उद्योगीकरण के फलस्वरूप गांवों से लोग शहरों में जाने लगे। ग्रामीण परिवारों को शहरों से नगदी मिलने के कारण उनकी हालत सुधरी। शहरी क्षेत्रों के बढ़ते हुए संपर्क में ग्रामीण जनता में नई चेतना पैदा की जिससे वह अपने स्वास्थ्य को ठीक-ठाक रखने की आवश्यकता के प्रति सजग हो गई। शिक्षा, विशेषकर नारी शिक्षा के विस्तार से बाल विवाहों की संख्या घटी। इन सब कारकों ने मृत्यु दर में भारी कमी ला दी और जनसंख्या बढ़ी।

जन्म दर और मृत्यु दर :-

भारत जैसे देश में प्रवासन कारण की कोई महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका नहीं रही। जनसंख्या वृद्धि दर को जन्म और मृत्यु दर के परस्पर संबंध से ही सही समझा जा सकता है। यद्यपि इन दोनों चरों के संबंध में आंकड़े 1951 ई० से पहले अप्रत्याप्त और अविश्वसनीय हैं तथापि इन सभी खामियों के बावजूद ये आंकड़े इन दोनों चरों की सही प्रवृत्तियों को मौटे तौर पर इंगित करते हैं।

जन्म और मृत्यु दरें (1881-1951)

दशक	आंकलित (जन्मदर)	आंकलित (मृत्युदर)
1881-91	48.9	41.3
1891-1900	45.8	44.4
1901-1910	48.1	42.6
1911-1920	49.2	48.6
1821-1930	46.4	36.3
1831-1940	45.2	31.2
1841-1950	39.9	29.4

स्त्रोत – जे०एन० सिन्हा का शोध निबंध – डेमोग्राफी ट्रेन्ड, भारत सरकार “ग्रोथ ऑफ पॉपूलेशन इन इण्डिया, न्यू देहली”

उपर्युक्त तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि 1921 से पहले मृत्यु दर न सिर्फ काफी ऊँची थी, बल्कि एक हद तक, अनिश्चित सी थी। किंतु 1921 के बाद उसमें सुस्पष्ट गिरावट आई। 1941 तक जन्म दर काफी ऊँची रही और उसके बाद उसमें कुछ हद तक कमी आई।

1921 के पूर्व अकालों और महामारियों का काफी अधिक प्रभाव रहा परन्तु बाद में उसमें कमी आई। उदाहरण के तौर पर प्लेग जिसने 1901-10 ई० के दौरान 51 लाख 20 हजार लोगों की मौत के घाट उतारा, धीरे-धीरे इस देश से लुप्त हो गया। 1936-45 ई० के दौरान जब वह अंतिम बार महामारो के रूप में फैली तो केवल एक लाख 90 हजार लोगों की जाने लगी।

हिसाब लगाया गया है कि सभी महामारियों को एक साथ रखे तो भी मलेरिया सबसे बड़ा जानलेवा बन कर सामने आयी। 1921 से पहले मृत्यु दर की तरह ही जन्म दर न सिर्फ काफी ऊँची थी बल्कि अनिश्चित भी थी। 1921 के बाद जन्म दर धीरे-धीरे कम होने लगी।

लिंगानुपात दर :-

एक मामले में भारत की यह विशेषता देखी गई है कि जो आर्थिक-अल्पविकास औपनिवेशिता आदि से संबंधित नहीं है वह हमारे अपने आर्यावर्त के गौरव के इतिहास का फल है। मतलब यह कि मौटे-तौर पर लड़किया को कम खाना देकर, उनकी उपेक्षा करके अथवा शिशु अवस्था को उनका गला घोट देने के फलस्वरूप जनसंख्या में पुरुष और स्त्री के अनुपात में अंतर था प्रणववर्धन,, सी० एन० गोपालन, लीला बिसरिया तथा अन्य कई विशेषज्ञों में इस विषयता की ओर इंगित किया।

पुरुष-स्त्री दर (लिंगानुपात दर)

प्रति 1 हजार स्त्रियों पर पुरुषों की संख्या

अंचल	1881	1901	1921	1941
पूर्व	995	1005	1031	1080
पश्चिम	1067	1068	1086	1098
मध्य	1040	1019	1029	1032
उत्तर	1115	1102	1135	1125
दक्षिण	978	982	985	998

लीला व प्रवीण बिसारिया और डी० कुमार – "कैम्ब्रिज इकोनोमिक हिस्ट्री ऑफ इण्डिया, वॉल्यूम-11"

उपर्युक्त तालिका में देखा जा सकता है कि पुरुषों की संख्या में अधिकता जो उत्तरी और पश्चिमी अंचलों में विशेषरूप से दिखाई देती है। पूर्व और मध्य अंचलों में अपेक्षाकृत कम है और दक्षिण अंचल में एकदम नहीं है। यह भी देखा जाता है कि इस गौरवमय इतिहास को हमने इस प्रकार पकड़ रखा है कि लड़कियों को कल्ट करने की दर 1881 से 1941 तक के 60 वर्षों में कम नहीं हुई थी कहीं-कहीं लगता है, बढ़ी थी।

निष्कर्ष :-

उपर्युक्त तालिका से स्पष्ट है कि जिन सब स्थानों पर जैस उतरी अंचल में जहाँ स्त्री-शिशु हत्या 19वीं शताब्दी में प्रचलित थी, वहाँ 1881-1951 तक पुरुष और स्त्री के बीच संख्या की यह विषमता सबसे ज्यादा थी कार्यकरण संबंध स्पष्ट है और फिर दक्षिण अंचल में जहाँ अनेक स्थानों पर स्त्रियों की सामाजिक मयार्दा और स्थिति उन्नत हुई और संपत्ति में भी उन्हें उत्तराधिकार मिला हुआ है। वहाँ स्त्री और पुरुष की संख्या में यही विषमता नहीं है और सबसे अंत में यह भी ध्यान में रखने की जरूरत है कि कानूनी तौर पर स्त्री-शिशु की हत्या दंडनीय है। 1980 में जनगणना कार्यालय के आंकड़ों के अनुसार पुरुष/स्त्री शिशुओं (4 वर्ष की आयु तक) की मृत्यु दर इस प्रकार थी - यू0पी0 56/66, हरियाणा 32/43, पंजाब 24/30, म0प्र0 53/60, केरल, तमिलनाडू, आन्ध्र प्रदेश और असम को छोड़कर सभी स्थानों पर स्त्री शिशुओं की मृत्यु की दर पुरुष शिशुओं से ज्यादा थी। 1961-71 के दशक में औसत आयु (लाईफ एक्सपेक्टेन्सी एट बर्थ) पुरुष की 46.4 वर्ष और स्त्रियों की 44.7 वर्ष थी।

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संत साहित्य का सामाजिक महत्त्व एवं मानवतावाद

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शोध सार : मनुष्य एक सामाजिक प्राणी है। समाज के केन्द्र बिन्दु हमेशा व्यक्ति ही है। मनुष्य की आवश्यकताओं की पूर्ति समाज ही करता है। इसलिए मनुष्य की समझदारी से वह समाज में अपना जीवन यापन बहुत ही सहज व सूझ-बूझ से करता है, क्योंकि वे उसके कभी-कभी उसकी भौतिक सुख-सुविधा और आध्यात्मिक उन्नति के लिए सहायक सिद्ध होते हैं। इसलिए वास्तविक सामाजिकता व्यक्ति पर ही आधारित होती है।

मुख्य शब्द : शिक्षा, इसाई धर्म, भारतीय विद्या, सामाजिक।

शोध-प्रविधि : इस शोध-पत्र के लिए शोध सामग्री अधिकांश रूप में द्वितीयक स्रोतों से ग्रहण की गई हैं। इसमें ऐतिहासिक विश्लेषण व वर्णनात्मक दृष्टिकोण के साथ-साथ शोधकर्ता ने अपने व्यक्तिगत अनुभवों को भी स्थान दिया है। शोध सामग्री प्रसिद्ध पुस्तकों, पत्र-पत्रिकाओं व समाचार पत्रों से प्राप्त की गई है।

साहित्यकारों ने सच्ची मानवता को समाज में देखा है व सच्ची समाज सृष्टि का प्रयत्न करते हैं। सामाजिक परिवेश में रहकर उनके विचारों का बखान करते हैं। उनकी विचार शैली व्यक्ति हमेशा दार्शनिक और प्रवाहमय होती है। हमें पता है कि मध्यकालीन सामाजिक व्यवस्था बहुत शोचनीय थी। अनेक प्रकार के आपसी ईर्ष्या-द्वेष से समाज में बहुत कुरीतियाँ पनपती रहती थी। इन ही बुराइयों को एक साहित्यकार लेखक अपने साहित्य के माध्यम से उन्हें दर्शाता है। मध्यकाल में धर्म के नाम पर कई तरह की रूढ़ियाँ, आडम्बर, अंधविश्वास समाज में देखने को मिलते हैं। संत कवि सत्य और मानव धर्म के प्रचारक हिंदू और मुसलमानों की जीवन शैली को एक सच्चा मार्ग दिखाना चाहते हैं। मध्यकाल में कबीर जैसे संत कविया ने जिस सामाजिक स्थिति को देखा था वहीं सामाजिक स्थिति ही आज भी पाँच सौ वर्ष के बाद कायम है। मूल रूप से वही साम्प्रदायिक व धार्मिक अंधविश्वास और बुराइयाँ समाज में आज भी प्रचलित हैं।

मनुष्य को भौतिक सुख व विषय-वासनाओं की ओर ले जाने वाले कई तरह के उपकरण विज्ञान और टेक्नॉलोजी द्वारा उसे धकेलने का काम किया है। ऐसी स्थिति में संतों और अन्य भक्तों की वाणी अत्यंत महत्वपूर्ण ऐसे मानवीय प्रयत्नों को बढ़ावा देने में संतों की विचारधारा एक स्पष्ट और सुनिश्चित उपकरण है। समाज क्षेत्र में एक क्रांतिकारी के रूप में संत कबीर सुधार कार्य करता है। उन्होंने ही सबसे पहले हिन्दी साहित्य में साम्यवाद की प्रतिष्ठा की है। उन्होंने समाज के भेद-भावों को स्वीकार नहीं किया, उसको बढ़ावा देने के लिए अवसर ही नहीं दिया। उन्होंने भेद-भावों में पड़े रहने वालों की खूब भर्त्सना की है। उनका दृढ़ विश्वास यह था कि मनुष्य को शांति तब मिल सकती है, जब उसमें समृद्धि आ जाती है।

“लोहा कंचन सम करि जानहि, ते मूरत भगवाना।”¹

संत साहित्य में मानवतावाद

सभी संत मानवतावादी हुए थे। भारत में एक सच्चे रूप में मानवतावाद का बीजाणि संतो के द्वारा ही हुआ था। कबीर सच्चे अर्थ में मानवतावाद के पक्षपाती थे। भक्ति की व्यष्टि साधना के साथ समष्टि हित भक्ति की व्यष्टि के साथ-साथ पूरे समाज में समष्टि हित के लिए योग्य बनाना ही सच्ची मानवतावादी दृष्टि है। कबीर की भक्ति भावना में पर्याप्त हैं। अपने माध्यम से उन्होंने अमीर-गरीब, हिन्दू-मुस्लिम, पंडित-मूर्ख, सभी छोटे-बड़े भेदभावों को मिटाकर, सच्चे मानवतावाद की प्रतिष्ठा करने का प्रयास किया है। समाज में मानवता को प्रतिष्ठित करने हेतु स्वयं कष्ट सहन करना, सहिष्णुता, सहानुभूति, दया अत्यंत जरूरी है, जो कि कबीर में देखने को मिलती है। "कबीर ने अपने जीवन में दूसरों के कष्टों को स्वीकार किया था। उनका जीवन जनता के उद्बोधन में ही व्यतीत हुआ। वह अपने लिए नहीं संसार के लिए रोते और विलाप करते रहे।" ² उन्होंने समस्त मानव जाति के लिए बिना किसी स्वार्थ भाव के अपना जीवन उनके जीवन के लिए समर्पित कर दिया है।

"सुखिया सब संसार है, खावै अरु सोवै।

दुखिया दास कमीर है, जागै अरु रोवै।" ³

कबीर ने समस्त समाज को एक दृष्टि से देखा। वहीं हिन्दुओं और मुसलमानों को भी एक समानता की दृष्टि से देखा है। दोनों धर्मों के बाह्य आडम्बरों व अंधविश्वासों की एक ही तरह से भर्त्सना की है कबीर भक्त कवि बाद में थे पहले वे एक समाज सुधारक के रूप में जाने जाते हैं।

विजेयन्द्र स्नातक के अनुसार – "कबीर तो समाज सुधारक की भाँति किसी सामाजिक जीवन दर्शन का उपदेश देते हुए थे और न धर्म या जाति में एकता स्थापित करना उनका ध्येय था। यथार्थ में वह तो ईश्वर-भक्ति के साथ अपने जीवन को शांति से व्यतीत करना चाहते थे, किन्तु जब उन्होंने अपने चारों ओर धर्म के नाम पर मानव-मानव के बीच भेदों की खाई देखी, छल-कपट का व्यवहार देखा, वर्ग भेद के कारण दुःख-दैन्य का प्रसार देखा तो वह अपने सुख को छोड़ मानव की पीड़ा को दूर करने में मनोयोगपूर्वक जुट गए।" ⁴

कबीर की दृष्टि में आदर्श मानव को ईश्वर में विश्वास, संसार के आकर्षणों से विरक्ति, संपूर्ण भेद-भाव से परे, सत्यनिष्ठ तथा मन, वाणी और कर्म से एक होना चाहिए। विषय वासनाओं की ओर मन का लगाव मानव के सद्मार्ग की सबसे प्रमुख बड़ी बाधा है।

"कबीर मारौ मन कूं, ढूक ढूक हवै जाई।

विष की वंयारी बोई करि लुगट कहा पधताई।" ⁵

कबीरदास एक मानवतावादी धर्मात्मा के रूप में जाने जाते हैं और समाज सुधारक के रूप में भी। जब मनुष्य में आत्मिक चेतना का उदय होता है तो वह अपनी सच्ची आत्मा के सद् मार्ग की ओर अग्रसर होता है। मनुष्यता पर मानव जीवन की भलाई करना ही संतों का लक्ष्य रहा है। छल, कपट इर्ष्या-द्वेष आदि को समाप्त

कर वे हमेशा शांति निर्माण करना ही इनका एक लक्ष्य मार्ग है।

एक सच्चे मानवतावाद के प्रदर्शन के लिए साधक को 'समभाव' रखने की आवश्यकता है। अपने सेवा में बाधा डालने वाले के अहं का तिरस्कार करने में भी कोई बुराई नहीं है। दादू दयाल कहते हैं –

“आप गवे गुमान नहि, मदं मछर हकार।”⁶

आधुनिकता के इस दौर में मानवतावाद की मशाल देने वाले झूठ समाज सुधारकों व राजनीतिज्ञों के लिए संत साहित्य की असली मानवीयता अत्यंत लाभदायक है।

“संत मनुष्य की प्रतिष्ठा स्थापित करता है, उसके अंत चैतन्य की रस धारा और अमृत व्यक्ति पर विश्वास है। आज के बुद्धिवादी मानवतावाद के अनुकूल मनष्य की निहित बौद्धिकता में उसे विश्वास नहीं किन्तु आस-संस्कार द्वारा उस विशुद्ध आत्मबल की प्राप्ति पर उसकी अस्था है जो मानवता का मूल है।”⁷

अतः हम कह सकते हैं कि संत मानवतावादी और मानव जीवन के दृष्टा और सृष्टा के रूप में भी विख्यात है। मनुष्य की महत्ता की संतों की चिंतन शैली धारा ही मूल स्रोत है जो उनके व्यापक मानवतावादी दृष्टिकोण का फल है।

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Socio-Economic Exclusion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India

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Abstract

Social exclusion reflects the multiple and overlapping nature of the disadvantages experienced by certain groups and categories of the population, with social identity as the central axis of their exclusion. While the Constitution recognizes equal opportunity and equal treatment as a fundamental right of all Indian citizens, disparities continue to be pronounced between the various castes. People from the Scheduled castes, previously referred to as the “untouchables”, make up 16 percent of the population and Scheduled Tribes make 8 percent of population consistently fare poorer across various indicators related to education, employment and living standard. Furthermore, the structural causes of social exclusion, such as continued high level of poverty of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes also remain as significant constraints. There are other problems of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes which remain largely unaddressed such as social discrimination. Therefore, such unequal treatment of these social groups has become a significant barrier to their economic and social upliftment. This paper will review the underlying causes of social discrimination and disadvantaged status related to education, employment, which keep them under the vicious circle of poverty. The present paper analyses the extent of social as well as economic exclusion of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in India and argues for a comprehensive policy response which addresses the various barriers to accessing education and employment of these disadvantaged groups.

Keywords: Exclusion, Discrimination, Disadvantage, Disparity, Treatment.

Introduction

While the constitution recognizes equal access to education, employment etc. and some concessions are accorded to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to bring them at par with other social groups, disparities continue to be pronounced between the various castes. People from the Scheduled Castes, previously referred to as the “untouchables”, make up 16 percent of the population and Scheduled Tribes make 8 percent of population consistently fare poorer across various indicators related to education, employment and income (Census, 2011). This paper will review the underlying causes of the disadvantaged status related to education, employment, poverty and other wrongs being inflicted on them due to social discrimination. Furthermore, the structural causes of social exclusion, such as continued high level of poverty of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, also remain as significant constraints.

The poor economic condition of socially marginalised groups namely Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes has its historical root in the social exclusion where scheduled castes were excluded and discriminated from the caste system while Scheduled Tribes were physically excluded. Inequality has been commonly seen since a long time. After the adoption of draconian new economic policies which open and liberalise the market for the capitalists, inequality further perpetuated to flourish in India. Between the periods 2000 and 2014, the percentage share of the top decile in total household wealth increased from 65.9 to 74 percent. In general, social inequalities have played a major role in the augmenting economic backwardness of these social groups. Therefore, this study analyses the social as well as economic reasons which are collectively responsible for backwardness of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

Historical Framework

Prevailing social exclusion has its origin in the ancient times, which emerges since the inception of the Hindu caste system, although the magnitude of deprivation and marginalisation are diminishing among them but with the slower and unequal rate. Scheduled Castes are a constitutionally declared collection of castes, which has suffered from the practice of untouchability. In the earlier times, Scheduled Castes were denied access to social institutions such as temples and drinking water tanks by upper castes people. Even shadow of scheduled castes was considered impure by upper caste Hindus. Such stigma related to untouchability has kept them away from social participation as well as economic participation. Scheduled Tribes are identified on the basis of certain criteria such as primitive traits, distinctive culture, geographical isolation and general backwardness. However, the terms 'Scheduled Caste' and 'Scheduled Tribe' are nowhere defined in the constitution of India. They include more than four hundred castes and tribes respectively, with a great cultural heterogeneity (Singh, 1993). The former "untouchables" were considered to be at the bottom of the Hindu social hierarchy and were not part of the "Varna system" quadruple with Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaishya and Shudra. The tribal people known as "Adivasis" meaning people of the earth are not social in the context of the Hindu hierarchy. Scheduled Castes historically suffered from social stigma due to untouchability and were therefore, excluded from society, although physically, they have always been a part of society. Scheduled Tribes on the other side were physically or geographically excluded, but not against any social stigma and are not socially excluded (Mutatkar, 2005).

As a definition, "social exclusion reflects the multiple and overlapping nature of the disadvantages experienced by certain groups and categories of the population, with social identity as the central axis of their exclusion (Kabeer, 2006). The value-addedness of the social exclusion approach is its emphasis on the role of relational features in deprivation. Social exclusion can therefore, be explained in terms of group interactions aimed at maximizing value and minimizing costs. Individuals are most vulnerable when they have fewest personal capacities and material resources. But none of these threatens their survival so long as they enjoy the protections afforded by membership of an inclusive group that co-operates productively and redistributes its product (Jordan, 1996).

Educational Status of Various Social Groups

Exclusionary trends in education particularly in higher education are the result of not only factors like increase in private costs to be incurred by students, the poor quality of education in government and aided schools but also due to strengthening of non-financial entry barriers and inadequate attention to the problems of disadvantaged groups.

The table 1 shows literacy rate of various social groups in India since 1991 to 2011. Analysis illustrates that Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are on disadvantage in case of education. Despite adequate concessions provided by constitution to raise educational level of these marginal sections, they are unable to attain the satisfactory level of education. It is clear from table that increase in literacy level of these social groups has not been satisfactory. As in 1991, total literacy rate was 52.21, whereas it was 37.41 and 29.60 among scheduled castes and scheduled tribes respectively. No doubt at all India level, there has been an increase in literacy rate but Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are unable to reap the benefits of such increment. As literacy rate was 72.99 in 2011 of all social groups collectively, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes were still marching behind at 66.07 percent and 58.96 percent respectively.

Table: 1. Literacy Rate of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (1991-2011)

Year	All Social Groups	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes
1991	52.21	37.41	29.60
2001	64.84	54.69	47.10
2011	72.99	66.07	58.96

Source: Census of India, Registrar General of India

Owing to various number of constraints, and socio-economic factors, the benefits of expansion of educational facilities have not fully reached to all the communities specifically among the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. According to all India survey on higher education conducted by Ministry of Human Resource Development, the enrolment of OBC students in higher educational institutions in India during 2010-11 has gone up to 27 percent but in case of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students, it continues to be low. The Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe students' enrolment ratio during 2009-10 was 15 percent and it was 18.8 percent in 2010-11. During 2010-11 out of 100 students getting into higher educational institutions, less than eleven are from Scheduled Caste and less than five are from Scheduled Tribe. Scheduled Caste students' enrolment was 10.2 percent and Scheduled Tribe students' enrolment was 4.4 percent including enrolment through distance mode.

Incidence of Poverty among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The poor economic condition of these socially marginalised groups has its historical root in the social exclusion where Scheduled Castes were excluded and discriminated from the caste system while Scheduled Tribes were physically excluded. Inequality has been commonly seen since a long time. After the adoption of draconian new economic policies in 1991 which open and liberalise the market for the capitalists, inequality further perpetuated to flourish in India. Between the periods 2000 and 2014, the percentage share of the top decile in total household wealth increased from 65.9 to 74 percent. The share of the top 1 percent in the total wealth of households was even more drastic which has increased from 36.80 percent in 2000 to 49 percent in 2014 (Patnaik 2014). It has led to wide level of inequalities among caste groups. The economic hardship has drastically increased for Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes who were already on receiving end. A high level of poverty among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes can be observed by analysing given table.

In table 2, the poverty rate is shown of various social groups. Forward caste (FC) or upper caste, who has been enjoying all the social, economic and political privileges since long ago constitutes only 28 percent of the total population but poverty rate among them is the lowest (12.5 percent). In the last one decade, the poverty rate has declined faster among this group from 23 percent to 12.5 percent. Other backward class (OBC), another social group, stay in the middle of Forward Caste and schedule caste (SC) and schedule tribe (ST). They are neither so deprived like Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes nor so affluent like Forward Castes.

Table 2: Poverty in India (Rural + Urban) (In Per Cent)

Social Groups	Share in Population in 2011-12	2004-05	2011-12
Scheduled Tribes	8.9	60.0	43.0
Scheduled Castes	19.0	50.9	29.4
OBC	44.1	37.8	20.7
Forward Castes	28.0	23.0	12.5
All	100	37.7	22.0

Source: Arvind Panagariya and Vishal More: 2013

The poverty rate among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, which constitutes about 19 and 8.9 percent of the total population respectively, is 29.4 and 43 percent respectively. The reduction in the poverty rate, which has to be the fastest, is also the slowest among this group.

Employment Status of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

However, since the 19th century, the link between caste and occupation has become less rigid as it became easier for people to change occupations. This change has accelerated with the economic boom which has taken place in India since the early 1990s. There has not, however, been a corresponding fluidity in caste, as intermarriage is very rare. Privileged sections of society tend to be from “upper castes” while the disadvantaged sections by the so called “lower castes”. Caste “can be seen as the institution that has been structuring and maintaining for centuries relations of power among different communities, and seeks to legitimize these power relations through systematically dispensing mixes of economic and cultural assets/opportunities and deprivations to different communities.

Table 3 shows the unemployment rate among social groups. It shows that unemployment rate is the highest among other groups (4.2 percent) and the lowest in Scheduled Tribes (2.1 percent). The unemployment rate among Scheduled Castes and Other backward Classes is 3.1 and 3.4 percent respectively. The high rate of unemployment rate among others and low among Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes do not mean a good sign for deprived section. The little bit fairness shown in unemployment rate is due to their involvement as agricultural labourers and casual labourers in rural and urban areas respectively. In case of agriculture, it is clear that mostly Scheduled Castes are landless and they are involved in agriculture as labourers only. In case of Scheduled Tribes even if they have some land but they have been unable to utilize land resources properly due to lack of education and modern technology. Such large contribution of Scheduled castes and Scheduled Tribes to agriculture and casual work left them with meagre wage, uncertain works and without social security.

Table 3: The Unemployment Rate (UR) for Different Social Groups based on UPSS Approach

Group	Scheduled Castes	Scheduled Tribes	Other Backward Classes	Others
Unemployment Rate	3.1	2.1	3.4	4.2

Labour Bureau, 2015

It can be articulated from the table that Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribe are so much of depriving that they cannot remain without any work. Therefore, they get involved in any kind of work available to them resulting in the low rate of unemployment but a high rate of underemployment.

Conclusion

Lack of education, poverty, underemployment, social discrimination are the major constraints in the path of development of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Informalisation of work and educational institutions further deteriorates the working conditions and educational level of these social groups. Affirmative action has promoted them to get government jobs but in an unfair way, this trend is being obstructed by informalisation of institutions. The little bit fairness shown in unemployment rate is due to their involvement as agricultural labourers and casual labourers in rural and urban areas respectively. Such large contribution of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to agriculture and casual work left them with meagre wage, uncertain works and without social security. Most of the people from these groups are either landless or hold marginal and small land in rural areas which is not enough to survive with minimum standard level. Such deprivations force them to remain multi dimensionally poor. It cannot be denied from the available data and information that poverty among these groups is not reducing but the main argument is, even if it is declining, but at the slower rate. Most of the output of the recent economic growth have been utilised by the upper section of the society.

Policy Implications

As it is illustrated by study that scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are lagging behind education, employment and have been living with the stigma of untouchability and various types of social discrimination. Therefore, a pragmatic approach is required to break down the chains of social and economic discrimination.

In case of social discrimination, strict laws and regulations should be prepared and implemented to protect these sections instead of diluting the provisions already provided by constitution to safeguard rights of these marginalised sections.

On the other hand, informalisation of the institutions should be stopped and the reservation must be implemented in informal sector to uplift scheduled castes and scheduled tribes who have meagre representation in informal sector. It will help these sections to attain education and employment with equal opportunity.

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A DETAILED STUDY ON ROLE OF GOOD PHARMACY PRACTICES IN RETAIL PHARMA IN NAGPUR CITY

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Abstract

The aim of any medicine management system is to deliver the right medicine to the patient who needs the medicine. The steps of selection, procurement, and distribution are necessary precursors to the rational use of medicines (RUM).

The requirements of the rational use of medicines (RUM) can be fulfilled only if the process of both prescribing and dispensing is appropriately followed. This includes steps concerned with proper diagnosis, correct prescription, dispensing, and giving proper information to the patient.

The inappropriate use of medicines on a wide scale can have significant serious effects on health care costs as well as on the quality of drug therapy and medical care. Other negative effects are increased likelihood of adverse reactions, and a patient's inappropriate dependence on medicines.

Keyword: Diagnosis, Correct Prescription, Dispensing.

Introduction

A large numbers of drugs are available in the market and this number will grow continuously, almost all the common existing diseases can be cured by more than 300 drugs. The WHO categorised such drugs as essential drugs. The WHO Model List of Essential Medicines is a useful reference, derived from the consensus of recognized international experts and updated every two to four years. The medicines that appear on this list are recognized as safe, efficacious and cost effective.

The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MoH&FW), Government of India (GoI) came up with a National List of Essential Medicines in 2003. The list includes 392 medicines in 27 different categories.

Unfortunately in India this list has so far not been strictly followed, as a result of which thousands of drugs and FDCs continue to be manufactured and marketed.

The concept of the rational use of medicines (RUM) has not yet penetrated the minds of health care providers and the public, and as a result there is rampant irrationality in both the medicines available, as well as the medicines prescribed.

The inappropriate use of medicines on a wide scale can have significant serious effects on health care costs as well as on the quality of drug therapy and medical care. Other negative effects are increased likelihood of adverse reactions, and a patient's inappropriate dependence on medicines.

Pharmacists, particularly those in community pharmacies, play a key role in instructing patients in the correct use of medicines.

- The pharmacist should interact with other healthcare providers and promote rational medicines in spite of pressure to do so otherwise from both patients and company representatives. They must also inform clients about policy changes, specific warnings/ banning of medicines, non-availability of medicines, and medicine related problems.
- Any adverse drug reactions (ADR) noted should be reported to appropriate monitoring (Pharmacovigilance) centers in the region or in the country.
- Pharmacies should maintain adequate stocks of essential medicines (including those that are not often required, but are critical and life saving) and minimize 'out of stock' situations by adopting good inventory control measures.
- Patient or consumer education plays an important role in promoting rational use of medicines (RUM). The pharmacist can play a key role in patient education to promote the rational use of medicines (RUM). Inappropriate prescribing patterns may arise from the demands or misconceptions of patients, although these demands are often exaggerated by prescribers to justify their prescribing habits.

Pharmacists need to motivate themselves to promote rational use of medicines (RUM). They should make an effort to:

- The rational medicine recommended must be used correctly, and its misuse should be avoided. Pharmacists should talk to the client about the medicine, and its proper use and advice against misuse.
- Acquire knowledge about Essential medicines and rational use.
- Starting with their clients, pharmacists must try to educate the public about the rational use of medicines (RUM) through leaflets, pamphlets and poster displays in the pharmacy.
- Prepare a list of rational OTC medicines.
- Recommend only these medicines to their clients.
- If clients ask for irrational OTC medicines, try to explain to them why they should not use those particular medicines. They should recommend rational ones.

Objectives of Study

- To understand the concept of the rational use of medicines (RUM) in detail.
- To understand to develop and maintain a quality of work life of Retail Pharmacy shops.

Hypothesis

H1: Rational use of medicines plays an important role in Good Pharmacy Practices in Retail Pharma.

Data analysis

To test the hypothesis “Rational use of medicines plays an important role in Good Pharmacy Practices in Retail Pharma” one-way ANOVA test is applied taking overall importance of good pharmacy practices as fixed factor and factors representing Rational use of medicines as dependent factors.

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
How important is to explain the sales literature & label/ package inserts of medicines to the patient?	Between Groups	0	1	0	0	0.993
	Within Groups	144.75	98	1.477		
	Total	144.75	99			
How important is to counsel patient for the use of medicines?	Between Groups	0.152	1	0.152	0.237	0.028
	Within Groups	62.848	98	0.641		
	Total	63	99			
How Important is to give patient additional information on storage of medicine (apart from info available on medicine)?	Between Groups	2.258	1	2.258	1.865	0.017
	Within Groups	118.652	98	1.211		
	Total	120.91	99			
How Important is to give patient information for the rational use of medicines through pamphlets and poster displays in the pharmacy?	Between Groups	0.492	1	0.492	0.273	0.063
	Within Groups	176.668	98	1.803		
	Total	177.16	99			

The above table shows the F value in the 6th column and sig. value (p value) in the 7th column, calculated from the difference between the mean values. Since the p value calculated above in almost all the factors is less than the alpha value of 0.05, it is concluded that there is significance of good pharmacy practices. Hence on the basis of means and ANOVA calculated it is concluded that the hypothesis i.e. **Rational use of medicines plays an important role in Good Pharmacy Practices in Retail Pharmacy is accepted.**

Conclusion

In the Indian health care system, pharmacist is underutilized because community pharmacy and pharmacy practice are yet to be established strongly and pharmacists working in community pharmacies do not provide patient counselling in the usual situation.

In a nutshell, 'Pharmacist in the health care system is like circumventer of a triangle with physicians, patients and nurses at the corners of the triangle. He has direct contact with all health care professionals and patients'.

Recommendations

Community Pharmacists are merely involved in 'Pharmacy Trading' and not in services of 'Pharmacy Care'. Hence continuous education is the only solution for updating pharmacists, which not only builds the confidence in the practicing pharmacists but they can accept challenges of 'chain shoppies'. After analyses of the views, recommendations and suggestions given by the respondents (Pharmacist & Customer of Retail Pharmacy), the important recommendations are as under:

- The pharmaceutical storage area(s) must be under the control of the responsible pharmacist.
- Stocks received by the pharmacy should be quarantined in a separate area and necessary checks should be performed to ascertain the quality and quantity of stocks received.
- The storage requirements of the different products must be noted and products must be stored according to the manufacturer's instructions.
- There is a need to work closely with the pharmacist associations and share common experiences and frame appropriate guidelines for India so that community pharmacist who plays a major role in providing better health care can be recognized.
- Arrangements should be made to store products based on the labeled storage conditions. Within these categories, provisions can be made for fast moving and slow moving products and more serious storage considerations should be given to the slow moving products. The training of pharmacists alone is not sufficient for effective functioning of pharmaceutical care. The benefits that can be gained by pharmaceutical care should make the population aware of services that can be offered by pharmacists. In addition to counseling, pharmacists should take every opportunity to educate a patient. They should encourage patient to ask questions and to speak up when dispensing and especially when unusual conditions prevail.

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GOVERNMENT RESPONSE TO FARMER SUICIDE IN INDIA: A STUDY

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Abstract: Indian Agriculture predominately dependent on nature. Any failure of nature adversely affects the farmers. Additionally our agricultural system is largely unorganized. The farmers work in an unsystematic manner. They lack technical support and institutionalized finance. Agriculture is treated as a seasonal occupation in the country. Farmers remain unemployed in some parts of the year. There is barely any increase in the purchase price of the crops. However, the prices of inputs have hiked tremendously. This further contributes to the misery of an Indian farmer, who has no substantial income to meet his expenses. Indebtedness is the major reason behind the farmer suicides. The loans taken by farmers can be divided into two categories:- personal and agricultural. The personal loans are taken generally to fulfil social obligations related to marriage and death. The agricultural loans are incurred for buying land, seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and setting up a bio-gas plant. In absence of institutionalized finance the farmers take loan from money lenders at high interest rates. Their agricultural profit is insufficient to recover debts. Thus, they are continuously harassed by the money lenders for the recovery of debts. The trend of farmer suicide in the country has been growing during 1995-2015. As many as 17,368 farmers and agricultural labourers committed suicide in 2009, a drought year nationwide. Suicides declined to 11,772 in 2013, rising 5% to 12,360 in 2014 and 8% over two years to 12,602 in 2015.

Keywords: Agrarian Crisis, Government Response, Political Instability, Unorganised agriculture.

Introduction

India has been witnessing huge number of farmers' suicides in the last two decades. Never before in the history of mankind has the spate of farmers' suicides occurred anywhere in the world. As per reports available, farmer suicides did occur in certain countries. However, these are noted to be a few in number and occasional at times, when compared to the continuing spate of farmers' suicides in India. This is the manifestation of farmers' untold misery and suffering, which is considered as a great human tragedy. Nothing is greater and nothing is so dear and near to ones heart than ones' own life. Such a precious human life is put an end to unnaturally by resorting to forced suicides.

Several studies conducted in India have linked the phenomenon of farmer suicides generally to agrarian crisis, particularly to crop failure, raising input prices, inferior quality of seeds and pesticides, private money lending, inter-linkages of product and credit markets and non-remunerative prices. There is a feeling of insecurity due to crop failure, land alienation and

indebtedness. This has resulted in a spate of farmers' suicides in different parts of the country (Vasavi, 1999).

In order to mitigate the growing farmer's suicide in the country, the central and state government has initiated a series of schemes. This chapter deals with analysis of such schemes in detail. Presently the government offers a number of relief and insurance programs to the farmers. Under the said schemes the farmers are provided with loans on "low rate of interest", support price and crop insurance.

Major Steps Taken by the Government to Tackle Farmer's Suicide in India

Several programmes have been implemented by the government of India to eradicate the growing farmer's suicide in the country in association with state governments. The programmes aim to improve the agriculture situation in the country as well as the socio-economic status of farmers. Some programmes have made significant contribution in improving the status of farmers and keep the farmers away from the risk of crop failure. Important programmes initiated by the government are discussed in this chapter.

The government appointed a number of inquiries to look into the causes of farmers suicide and farm related distress in general. Krishak Ayog (National Farmer Commission) visited all suicide prone farming regions of India, then in 2006 published three reports with its recommendations. Subsequently Prime Minister Manmohan Singh visited Vidarbha in 2006 and promised a package of 110 billion (about \$2.4 billion). The families of farmers who had committed suicide were also offered an ex gratia grant of 100,000 (about \$2,000) by the government, though this amount was changed several times.

In 2006, the Government of India identified 31 districts in the four states of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Kerala with high relative incidence of farmer's suicides. A special rehabilitation package was launched to mitigate the distress of these farmers. The package provided debt relief to farmers, improved supply of institutional credit, improved irrigation facilities, employed experts and social service personnel to provide farming support services, and introduced subsidiary income opportunities through horticulture, livestock, dairying and fisheries. The Government of India also announced ex-gratia cash assistance from Prime Ministers National Relief Fund to the farmers.

Government of India Announcements

- In the Vidarbha region of Maharashtra, that had received considerable mass media news coverage on farmer suicides, all farmer families of Vidarbha in six affected districts of Maharashtra were given a cash sum of 05 million (US\$79,000) each, to help pay off the debt principal.
- 7.12 billion (US\$110 million) in interest owed, as of 30 June 2006, was waived. The burden of payment was shared equally between the Central and the State government.

- The Government created a special credit vehicle for Vidarbha farmer, to the tune of 12.75 billion (US\$200 million). Special teams comprising NABARD and banks were deputed to ensure fresh credit starts flowing to all farmers of the region.
- An allocation of 21.77 billion (US\$350 million) was made to improve the irrigation infrastructure so that the farmers of Vidarbha region had assured irrigation facilities in the future.
-

Agricultural Debt Waiver and Debt Relief Scheme, 2008

The Government of India implemented the Agricultural debt Waiver and Debt Relief Scheme, 2008 to benefit over 36 million farmers at a cost of 653 billion (US\$10 billion). This spending was aimed at writing off part of loan principal as well as the interest owed by the farmers. Direct agricultural loan by stressed farmers under so-called Kisan Credit Card were also covered under this Scheme.

a) Direct Agricultural Loan

Direct finance to agriculture includes short, medium and long term loans given for agriculture and allied activities (dairy, fishery, piggery, poultry, bee-keeping, etc.) directly to individual farmers, Self-Help Groups (SHGs) or Joint Liability Groups (JLGs) of individual farmers without limit and to others (such as corporate, partnership firms and institutions) for taking up agriculture/allied activities

b) Kisan Credit Card

In spite of various measures to rejuvenate farm credit, the flow of credit remained quantitatively and qualitatively poor. The institutional sources of credit meet only 51 per cent of the credit requirements of farm sector. The non-institutional sources were mainly reached by farmers due to lack of collaterals, frequent needs, undue delays, complicated procedures and malpractices adopted by institutional lending agencies. With a view to inquiring into the reasons for the problems of the farm credit and suggesting measure for improving the delivering system, RBI set up a one man Committee of Shri R. V. Gupta to in December 1997. The Committee submitted its report in April 1998. It was against this background that RBI directed all Public Sector Banks (PSBs), RRBs and cooperative banks to introduce "Kisan Credit Card Scheme (KCCS)" on the lines of the model scheme formulated by NABARD and in due course of time the KCCS was adopted by all the directed agencies.

The KCCS aims at adequate and timely support from banking system to farmer for crop production and ancillary activities. The credit limit (loan) is sanctioned in proportion to the size of the owned land but some flexibility is provided for leased-in land in addition to owned land. The borrowing limit is fixed on the basis of proposed cropping pattern. Most of the banks are adhering to Scales of Finance (SOF) decided by the State Level Bankers Committee (SLBC) but some banks have fixed their own SOF. The nature of credit extended under KCCS is revolving cash credit i.e., it

provides for any number of withdrawals and repayments within the limit. This feature would provide flexibility and reduce the interest burden upon KCCS beneficiary. Security and margin norms would be in conformity with the guidelines issued by RBI and NABARD from time to time. With effect from 2001-2002, it was made obligatory for the implementing agencies to operate the KCCS with an in-built component of life-insurance for KCCS beneficiary. The KCCS as envisaged has substituted all other existing institutional modes of short term credit delivery.

Benefit of KCC Scheme

- Simplified disbursement procedures
- Removes rigidity regarding cash and kind
- No need to apply for a loan for every crop
- Assured availability of credit at any time enabling reduced interest burden for the farmer.
- Helps buy seeds, fertilizers at farmer's convenience and choice
- Helps buy on cash-avail discount from dealers
- Credit facility for 3 years - no need for seasonal appraisal
- Maximum credit limit based on agriculture income
- Any number of withdrawals subject to credit limit
- Repayment only after harvest
- Rate of interest as applicable to agriculture advance
- Security, margin and documentation norms as applicable to agricultural advance.

Maharashtra Bill to regulate farmer loan terms, 2008

The State government of Maharashtra, one of the most farmer suicide affected states, passed the Money Lending (Regulation) Act, 2008 to regulate all private money lending to farmers. The bill set maximum legally allowed interest rates on any loans to farmers, setting it to be slightly above the money lending rate by Reserve Bank of India, and it also covered pending loans.

Maharashtra relief package, 2010

The State Government of Maharashtra made it illegal, in 2010, for non-licensed moneylenders from seeking loan repayment. The State Government also announced that it will from Village Farmer Self Help Groups, that will disburse government financed loans, a low rate Crop Insurance program whose premium will be paid 50% by farmer and 50% by government, launch of alternate income opportunities such as poultry, dairy and sericulture for farmers in high suicide prone districts. The government further announced that it will finance a marriage fund under its SamudaikLagna with 10 million (US\$160,000) per year per district, for community marriage celebrations, where many couples get married at the same time to help minimize the cost of marriage celebrations – a cause of suicides among farmers as identified by its own study.

Kerala Farmers' Debt Relief Commission (Amendment) Bill, 2012

Kerala, in 2012, amended the Kerala Farmers' Debt Relief Commission Act, 2006 to extend benefits to all distressed farmers with loans through 2011. It cited continuing farmer suicides as a motivation.

2013 Diversify income sources package

In 2013, the Government of India launched a Special Livestock Sector and Fisheries Package for farmers suicide-prone regions of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Kerala. The package was aimed to diversify income sources of farmers. The total welfare package consisted of 912 million (US\$14 million).

Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana

This is the national mission from PM Modi's government to improve the irrigation in the country and enable the agriculture to become resistant to the vagaries of Indian monsoon. It is important to remember that climate vagaries in just 2014-15 led to 5.3% loss in food grain production and 0.2% loss in agricultural growth rate. In the next 5 years, INR 50,000 crore from the central budget would be utilised for the Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchai Yojana. The contribution of the states will be over and above this.

The main focus of PMKSY will be (i) Micro-irrigation projects ("Har Khet Ko Pani") and (ii) end-to-end irrigation solutions. The PMKSY will also take up the irrigation projects that were started by previous government but either not implemented or poorly implemented. Actually, 1,300 watershed projects of the previous government will be completed. The scheme will also provide Rs 200 crore earmarked as Agri-Tech Infrastructure Fund (ATIF) – the corpus required to promote the National Agricultural Market (NAM) – which will give farmers easy access to the markets for sale of their produce. The scheme will be monitored by a steering committee by PM Modi and ministers of Agriculture, Water Resources and Rural Development.

Pradhan Mantri Fasal Beema Yojna (Crop Insurance for Farmers)

This is another major step that is needed to fight the issue of farmer's suicide. There were crop insurance schemes earlier as well, but they fell short. Here are some of the major features of the crop insurance scheme brought about by PM Narendra Modi:

- The premium rate paid by the farmer will be to a maximum of 2% of the sum insured (rest being paid by the State and Central Government). Specifically, 2% of the sum insured as premium for kharif crops and 1.5% for rabi crops. In the previous scheme, the rates were as high as 4-15%!
- Until now, the government only provided relief. But this new scheme will provide compensation for the losses incurred by the farmer. In fact, the scheme will go beyond the usual norms of such insurance schemes and even compensate for loss of seed plants and post-harvest damage! In a bid to improve the assessment of the calamities (hailstorms, unseasonal rains, landslides and inundation). To speed up the settlement of claims, estimate

losses, and assess compensation the government will use smart phones, remote-sensing data and even drones to assess crop damage!

- The scheme will give an immediate payment of 25% of the due compensation to the farmers directly into their bank accounts. Anyone who knows the level of corruption knows that the babus distributing the funds from Government relief pocket majority of it. That isn't an issue thanks to the Jan Dhan yojana's success!
- The previous crop insurance schemes have a 23% cover. The aim of the new scheme is to get to 50% cover.
- The Scheme will become applicable from the Kharif crop of 2016.

Implementing Agency

The Scheme shall be implemented through a multi-agency framework by selected insurance companies under the overall guidance & control of the Department of Agriculture, Cooperation & Farmers Welfare (DAC&FW), Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers Welfare (MoA&FW), Government of India (GOI) and the concerned State in co-ordination with various other agencies; viz Financial Institutions like Commercial Banks, Co-operative Banks, Regional Rural Banks and their regulatory bodies, Government Departments viz. Agriculture, Co-operation, Horticulture, Statistics, Revenue, Information/Science & Technology, Panchayati Raj etc.

Crop insurance is undertaken by agricultural producers, including farmers, ranchers, and others to protect themselves against either the loss of their crops due to natural disasters, such as hail, drought, and floods, or the loss of revenue due to declines in the prices of agricultural commodities.

The Crop insurance schemes aim at providing comprehensive risk insurance which covers the yield losses that occur to the agricultural output of small and marginal farmers due to non preventable risks.

The crop insurance risks covered under the non-preventable category are listed below:

- Natural Fire and Lightning
- Storm, Hailstorm, Cyclone, Typhoon, Tempest, Hurricane and Tornado
- Flood, Inundation and Landslide
- Drought and Dry spells
- Pests and Diseases

The crops insurance risk does not cover any of the losses that arise out of war and nuclear risks, malicious damage and other risks which are preventable risks. The sum insured under the crop insurance risks covered usually extends to the value of the threshold yield of the insured crop. This is usually subject to the option of the insured farmers. Nevertheless, a farmer may also choose to insure his crop beyond the value of the threshold yield level up to 150 per cent of average yield of the notified area on payment of premium at commercial rates.

The scheme will be a one year cover, renewable from year to year, Accident Insurance Scheme offering accidental death and disability cover for death or disability on account of an accident. The scheme would be offered / administered through Public Sector General Insurance Companies (PSGICs) and other General Insurance Companies willing to offer the product on similar terms with necessary approvals and tie up with Banks for this purpose. Participating banks will be free to engage any such insurance company for implementing the scheme for their subscribers.

Scope of coverage: All savings bank account holders in the age 18 to 70 years in participating banks will be entitled to join. In case of multiple saving bank accounts held by an individual in one or different banks, the person would be eligible to join the scheme through one savings bank account only. Aadhar would be the primary KYC for the bank account

The Actuarial Premium Rate (APR) would be charged under PMFBY by IA. DAC&FW/States will monitor the premium rates considering the basis of Loss Cost (LC) i.e. Claims as % of Sum Insured (SI) observed in case of the notified crop(s) in notified unit area of insurance (whatsoever may be the level of unit area) during the preceding 10 similar crop seasons (Kharif / Rabi) and loading for the expenses towards management including capital cost and insurer's margin and taking into account non-parametric risks and reduction in insurance unit size etc..

Soil Health Card

Under this scheme launched by Prime Minister Narendra Modi in 2015, government issues soil cards to farmers which carry crop-wise recommendations of nutrients and fertilizers required for the individual farms to help farmers to improve productivity through proper use of inputs. The soil testing labs across the country will test the soil samples and give the results which will be added to a farmer's Soil Health Card. A total of 14,752,382 (**147.5 crore**) SHCs have been issued in the country by 29th March 2016.

Under the scheme, the government plans to issue soil cards to farmers which will carry crop-wise recommendations of nutrients and fertilisers required for the individual farms to help farmers to improve productivity through judicious use of inputs. All soil samples are to be tested in various soil testing labs across the country. Thereafter the experts will analyse the strength and weaknesses (micro-nutrients deficiency) of the soil and suggest measures to deal with it. The result and suggestion will be displayed in the cards. The government plans to issue the cards to 14 crore farmers. As of July 2015, only 34 lakh Soil Health Cards (SHC) were issued to farmers as against a target of 84 lakh for the year 2015–16. Arunachal Pradesh, Goa, Gujarat, Haryana, Kerala, Mizoram, Sikkim, TamilNadu, Uttarakhand and West Bengal were among the states which had not issued a single SHC under the scheme by then. The number grew up to 1.12 crore by February 2016. As of February 2016, against the target of 104

lakh soil samples, States reported a collection of 81 lakh soil samples and tested 52 lakh samples. As on 16.05.2017, 725 lakh Soil Health Cards have been distributed to the farmers.

An amount of ₹ 568 crore (US\$87 million) was allocated by the government for the scheme. In 2016 Union budget of India, ₹ 100 crore (US\$15 million) has been allocated to states for making soil health cards and set up labs. The target for 2015–16 is to collect 100 lakh soil samples and test these for issue of soil health cards. 2 crore cards are under printing and will be distributed before March 2016. The government plans to distribute 14 crore soil health cards by 2017.

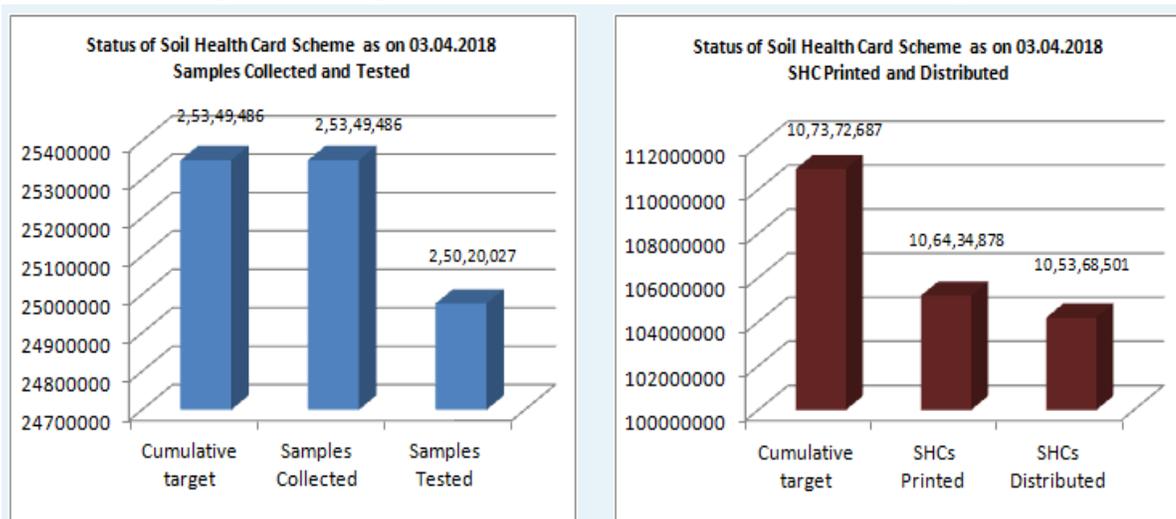


Figure 1: Progress of SHC in India

Minimum Support Price

Minimum Support Price (MSP) is a form of market intervention by the Government of India to insure agricultural producers against any sharp fall in farm prices. The minimum support prices are announced by the Government of India at the beginning of the sowing season for certain crops on the basis of the recommendations of the Commission for Agricultural Costs and Prices (CACP). MSP is price fixed by Government of India to protect the producer - farmers - against excessive fall in price during bumper production years. The minimum support prices are a guarantee price for their produce from the Government. The major objectives are to support the farmers from distress sales and to procure food grains for public distribution. In case the market price for the commodity falls below the announced minimum price due to bumper production and glut in the market, govt. agencies purchase the entire quantity offered by the farmers at the announced minimum price.

Minimum support prices are currently announced for 24 commodities including seven cereals (paddy, wheat, barley, jowar, bajra, maize and ragi); five pulses (gram, arhar/tur, moong, urad and lentil); eight oilseeds (groundnut, rapeseed/mustard, toria, soyabean, sunflower seed, sesamum, safflower seed and nigerseed); copra, raw cotton, raw jute and virginia flu cured (VFC) tobacco.

Such minimum support prices are fixed at incentive level, so as to induce the farmers to make capital investment for the improvement of their farm and to motivate them to adopt improved

crop production technologies to step up their production and thereby their net income. In the absence of such a guaranteed price, there is a concern that farmers may shift to other crops causing shortage in these commodities.

A pilot project under the Direct Payment Deficiency System (DPDS) for paying MSP guarantee for the cotton farmers has been initiated at Hinganghat taluk of Maharashtra in 2015. Under this system, the farmers will directly get the amount which is the difference between the Minimum Support Price (MSP) and the market price, should the market price fall below the MSP. For availing of the benefit, farmers would have to present proof of cotton sold at Agriculture Produce Market Committee yards, plus other papers such as ownership document, yield estimation and other details. If the pilot is successful, the DPDS would be rolled out in all cotton growing regions, as per the present decision. DPDS is essentially a mode of direct benefit transfer to cotton farmers.

Method of Calculation

In formulating the recommendations in respect of the level of minimum support prices and other non-price measures, the CACP takes into account a comprehensive view of the entire structure of the economy of a particular commodity or group of commodities. Other Factors include cost of production, changes in input prices, input-output price parity, trends in market prices, demand and supply, inter-crop price parity, effect on industrial cost structure, effect on cost of living, effect on general price level, international price situation, parity between prices paid and prices received by the farmers and effect on issue prices and implications for subsidy. The Commission makes use of both micro-level data and aggregates at the level of district, state and the country.

Supply related information - area, yield and production, imports, exports and domestic availability and stocks with the Government/public agencies or industry, cost of processing of agricultural products, cost of marketing - storage, transportation, processing, marketing services, taxes/fees and margins retained by market functionaries; etc. are also factored in.

Report of National Commission for Farmers (NCF) had recommended that MSP should be at least 50% more than the weighted average cost of production. However, this had not been accepted by the Government.

Procurement at MSP

Farmers are made aware of the procurement operations by way of advertisements like displaying banners, pamphlets, announcement for procurement and specification in print and electronic media. Some States have taken steps to pre-register farmers for ensuring procurement from them through a software system. Keeping in view the procurement potential areas, procurement centres for MSP operations are opened by Government agencies, both Food Corporation of India (FCI) and State Government, after mutual consultations.

- Procurement centres are opened by respective State Govt. Agencies/ FCI taking into account the production, marketable surplus, convenience of farmers and availability of other logistics / infrastructure such as storage and transportation etc. Large number of temporary purchase centres in addition to the existing Mandis and depots/godowns are also established at key points for the convenience of the farmers.
- The Govt. agencies also engage Co-operative Societies and Self Help Group which work as aggregators of produce from farmers and bring the produce to purchase centres being operated in particular locations/areas and increase outreach of MSP operations to small and marginal farmers. These Co-operative Societies are in addition to the direct purchases from farmers.
- Co-operative societies/Self Help Groups are engaged in many States like Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Jharkhand and Rajasthan. Whereas, in some states like Punjab and Haryana, the Government of India has permitted the State Governments to engage Arhatiyas for procurement of food grains from the farmers on payment of commission. These steps have been taken by Government of India so that Govt. agencies can procure maximum food grains directly from farmers by expanding out- reach of MSP benefit to farmers.

Food Corporation of India (FCI) is the designated central nodal agency for price support operations for cereals, pulses and oilseeds. Cotton Corporation of India (CCI) is the central nodal agency for undertaking price support operations for Cotton.

Commodities covered under the MSP

At present, 26 commodities are currently covered. They are as follows.

- Cereals (7) - paddy, wheat, barley, jowar, bajra, maize and ragi
- Pulses (5) - gram, arhar/tur, moong, urad and lentil
- Oilseeds (8) - groundnut, rapeseed/mustard, toria, soyabean, sunflower seed, sesamum, safflower seed and nigerseed
- Copra
- De-husked coconut
- Raw cotton
- Raw jute
- Sugarcane (Fair and remunerative price)
- Virginia flu cured (VFC) tobacco

Procurement of agricultural crops is made by the FCI, state agencies and cooperatives. A counterpart of the MSP is the Market Intervention Scheme (MIS), under which the state government procures perishable commodities like vegetable items.

Budget Allocation for Various Schemes

The government through various budgets has allocated funds to the development of agriculture and farmers welfare. In most of the budget a general claim has been made regarding the

greater support to farm sector. Despite the claims of greater support for the farm sector, the allocation for agriculture has been raised by 12.8 percent, which is the same as the last year. The allocation for the rural sector has been increased by only 1.8 percent which is substantially lesser than the 19 percent hike in the previous budget. The increase in the allocation for social sector schemes, which largely benefit the farming population, is 14.5 percent in this budget as compared to 21.4 percent in 2016-17.

Table 1: Budgetary allocations for various schemes under Ministry of Rural Development and Ministry of Agriculture (Rs. Crore)

<i>Schemes</i>	<i>2013-14</i>	<i>2014-15</i>	<i>2015-16</i>	<i>2016-17</i>	<i>2017-18</i>	<i>2018-19</i>
<i>Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme</i>	32,993 47,499	32,969	37,341	47,499	55,000	55,000
<i>National Rural Livelihood Mission</i>	2,022	1,413	2,783	3,334	4,350	5,750
<i>Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana</i>	2,551	2,598	2,983	13,240	10,698	13,000
<i>Pradhan Mantra Krishi Sinchai Yojana</i>	6,905	5,580	7,781	5,182	7,392	9,429
<i>Pradhan Mantra Krishi Vikas Yojana</i>	7,053	8,443	3,940	5,400	3,050	3,600
<i>National Food Security Mission</i>	2,027	1,873	1,162	1,700	1,400	1,690.7
<i>Paramparagat Krishi Vikas Yojana</i>	0	0	219	297	250	360

<i>National Mission On Oilseed And Oil Palm</i>	556	316	306	500	328.06	400
<i>National Mission On Horticulture</i>	1,809	1,625	1,696	1,620	2,190	2,536
<i>White Revolution</i>	1,449	1,415	937	1,138	1,633	2,220
<i>Blue Revolution</i>	348	388	200	247	302	643

Source: Compiled from Various Budget Reports

Within the ministry's schemes, the ones that received the maximum rise in allocation from last year are Blue Revolution (113 percent), White Revolution (36 percent), Pradhan Mantri Fasal Bima Yojana (21 percent) and the National Mission on Horticulture (15.8 percent). The allocation for Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana has declined substantially (18 percent) while that of the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) has increased marginally (7 percent). The budget has enhanced the food subsidy for Food Corporation of India by almost 35 percent. The allocation towards crop insurance has been enhanced by 21 percent to help stabilise farmer incomes. The budget assured that the minimum support price (MSP) for a majority of rabi and kharif crops would be one-and-a-half times the production cost.

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