

Indian Agriculture and Rural Development under Five Year Plans : An Appraisal

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Abstract :- Our first Prime Minister Shri J. L. Nehru visited Soviet Russia in 1927. He was impressed by the Five Year Plans of Russia. In 1938, he proposed to adopt the Five Year Plans in India. On the recommendations of the Advisory Planning Board constituted in 1946, under the Chairmanship of K. C. Neogi, the Planning Commission was established in March 1950 by an executive resolution of the Government of India for implementation of the five year plans. The Deputy Chairman of the Commission is responsible for the formulation and submission of the draft Five-Year Plan to the Central Cabinet. Present time twelfth five year plan is continuing prior this 11 five year plans, three annual plans (1966-69) and one rolling plan (1978-80) already implemented in our country. In all plans, there are many programmes and schemes were existed for agricultural and rural development. Those have not reached to the target groups up to a satisfactory level. Therefore, by using proper methods attempts should be made to motivate them

Through an emphasis on the deprived need areas. We know that Indian economy is based on agriculture with a vast segment of its population engaged in agriculture and allied pursuits; growth of the Indian agricultural determines the overall growth rate of the national economy. Development of agricultural (rural) economy and the improvement of the village life are the core concern of economists and also of the agriculturists. This is the biggest challenge before the nation as majority of rural population is still living below the poverty line. The rural folks are mainly engaged in agriculture and allied sector which is still in a backward stage. The constraints in the agricultural and rural development in rural areas need to be removed out and country should

be made self-sufficient by concentrating on the achievement of the goals of the five year plans those are prepared for development of rural India.

Keywords :- Five year plans, GOI, schemes, programmes, agriculture, rural development.

Introduction :- In a scenario of shrinking land and depleting water resources, the challenge of the new millennium is to increase biological yields to feed the ever-growing population without destroying the ecological foundation. It is thus important not to package this challenge as a demand of society on farmers, for which farmers would bear the cost, but as a necessity and methodology to also sustain their welfare and incomes. India has the potential to meet these challenges (MoRD, 2005). This potential can be realized through policy and infrastructure support from the government and by strengthening proactive synergies among the various sectors that play influential roles in the field of agricultural and rural development (MoRD, 2012). The National Policy on Agriculture seeks to actualize the vast untapped growth potential of Indian agriculture, strengthen rural infrastructure to support faster agricultural development, promote value addition, accelerate the growth of agro-business, create employment in rural areas, secure a fair standard of living for the farmers and agricultural workers and their families, discourage migration to urban areas and face the challenges arising out of economic liberalization and globalization (Joachim et al., 2005). According to 2011 census, the country's rural population is almost 83.25 crore (68.8% of total population). There has been wide consensus that the rural development should be inclusive and sustainable in order to alleviate the poverty. The tentative Gross Budgetary Support

(GBS) for the Ministry of Rural Development for the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-17) is Rs. 44,3261 crore (against the Rs. 29,1682 crores of Eleventh Plan period) which includes the major programs. Although agriculture now accounts for only 14% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), it is still the main source of livelihood for the majority of the rural population. As such rapid growth of agriculture is critical for inclusiveness. Important structural changes are taking place within the sector and there are definite signs of improved performance (Sarkar, 2014). Agricultural growth has accelerated compared to the Tenth Plan and diversification is proceeding (GOI, 2012).

According to MoA GOI (2014) as per the land use statistics 2011-12, the total geographical area of the country is 328.7 mha, of which 140.8 mha is reported as net sown area and 195.2 million hectares is the gross cropped area with a cropping intensity of 138.7%. The net irrigated area is 65.3 million hectares. Agriculture and Allied Sector contributed approximately 13.9% of India's GDP (at constant 2004-05 prices) during 2013- 14. (CSO, MoSPI, 2014). There has been a continuous decline in the share of agriculture and allied sector in the GDP from 14.6% in 2010-11 to 13.9 % in 2012-13 (IDFCRDN, 2014). Falling share of Agriculture and Allied Sectors in GDP is an expected outcome in a fast growing and structurally changing economy.

Five-Year Plans for Agricultural and Rural Development

First Five-Year Plan (1951-56) :- Agriculture was given the topmost priority in this plan. It was mainly directed towards increasing agricultural production and strengthening economic infrastructures like irrigation, power and transport after independence. There was an acute food shortage in the country and to solve the food problem priority was given to increase production of food grains. The abolition of zamindari system, launching of the community development programme, growing more food campaign along with improvement in other related spheres like marketing, fisheries, animal husbandry, soil

conservation and forestry were the notable features. The production of food grains increased from 54 million tones in 1950-51 to 65.8 million tones and production of all agricultural commodities increased by 22.2% to 32% at the end of the Plan. The total outlay during this plan was to be spent on agriculture and irrigation. The targets set for the plan were almost achieved and even in some cases, exceeded. The 'Community Development Programme' (CDP) was launched on 2 October 1952, through which emphasis was given to the development of agriculture, irrigation, energy and power, industry and minerals, village small scale industry, transport, employment etc.

The National Extension Service Programme, Mettur Dam, Hirakud Dam, and Bhakra Nangal Dam were established as irrigation programme during the plan (GOI, 1952) The Government had taken steps providing fund for agriculture workers especially to rehabilitate the landless workers. These workers were granted economic fund, training in agriculture, soil conservation and other related agricultural issues were also given consideration. Importance also was given in improving the transport and communication, social services, railway services, telegraphs etc. During this plan, five Indian Institute of Technology were set up in five locations in India. To improve the higher education i.e. college and university education the University Grants Commission was set up in India. The target growth of national income of the first five year plan was 2.1% and achieved 3.6 %.

Second Five-Year Plan (1956-61) :- In this plan, emphasis was shifted from agriculture to industry and only about 21% of the actual plan expenditure was spent for agricultural development. The food production rose from 65.8 million tones to 79.7 million tones as against the fixed target of 80.5 million tones. There was a shortfall in the production of all crops except sugarcane. The second plan was based on the Mahalanobis model, which is an economic development model developed by the Indian statistician P. C. Mahalanobis in 1953. The Khadi and Village

Industries Programme, Intensive Agricultural District Programme, Tribal Area Development Programme, Village Housing Projects Scheme were the major programmes of rural reconstruction.

The Intensive Agricultural District Program (IADP) was introduced in 1962 for increasing of production with the help of essential elements such as supply of fertilizers, pesticides, improve of seeds etc. The objectives of the plan were increase of national income, reduction of poverty, rapid industrialization, reduction of inequality in wealth, large expansion of employment opportunities etc. (GOI, 1956). Heavy industries were established like Hydro-electric power projects and five steel plants at Bhilai, Dugapur and Rourkela were established in India. In 1958, the Atomic Energy Commission was formed under Homi J. Bhabha as the first Chairman. The Tata Institute of Fundamental Research was established as a research institute. The target growth of national income in this plan was 4.5% and achieved 3.6%.

Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66) :- The objective of this plan was to achieve self-sufficiency in food grains and to increase the agricultural production to meet the needs of industry and export. The plan accorded higher priority (20.5%) to agriculture and irrigation than to industrial development (20.1%). The plan targeted to increase overall agricultural production by 30%, but the achievements were disappointing. The actual output of food grains was 88.4 million tones in 1964-65 and 72.3 million tons in 1965-66, caused due to the drought condition of 1965-66. Food production was increased by 10% only as against the target of 30%. Consequently, the country has to import Rs. 1,100 crores worth of food grains to meet the domestic demand. Many cement and fertilizer plants were built. At the grass root level many schools have been started to improve primary education. During this period the State Electricity Boards and State Secondary Education Boards were formed. States were made responsible for secondary and higher education. State road transportation corporations were formed and local

road building became a state responsibility. The target growth of national income was 5.6% and achieved 3.9%. Applied Nutrition Program, Tribal Development Block Programme, Rural Works Programme, Intensive Agricultural Area Programme, The Rural Industries Projects, High Yielding Variety Programme etc were started.

The Applied Nutrition Programme was introduced in the rural areas in 1962 in collaboration with UNICEF (Arora, 1986). The objectives of the programme were production and distribution of nutritious food for pre-school children, pregnant and nursing mothers. In 1957, Balwant Rai Mahta Committee recommended to form the three tiers Panchayatiraj i.e. Gram Panchayatiraj at village level, Panchayats Samiti at Block level and Zila parishad at District level. The three tier system of Panchayatiraj Raj was first adopted by Rajasthan on 2 October, 1959.

Three Annual Plans (1966-69) :- From 1966-1969 the three interim annual plans were made for development. During this period, a high priority was given to minor irrigation and this was followed by adoption of a high yielding variety programme to increase agricultural production and productivity. Thus, this period is considered crucial for Indian agriculture as the green revolution took place during this period and the Government set up Agricultural Prices Commission to assure minimum support prices to farmers and the Food Corporation of India for maintaining buffer-stock to overcome fluctuation in the supplies of food grains and their prices. Due to implementation of HYV programme, there was a recorded food grain production of 95.6 million tones in 1968-69.

Fourth Five-Year Plan (1969-74) :- The Fourth Plan had two objectives for the agricultural sector; (i) to provide the conditions necessary for a sustained increase of food production by about 5% per annum over the decade 1969-78 and (ii) to enable a large section of the rural population including small farmers, farmers in the dry areas and agricultural labourers to participate in the process of agricultural development and share its benefit.

The Green Revolution introduced during the annual plans had a good result and the farmers particularly in the wheat producing belt were here interested to adopt HYV cultivation. The actual production of food grain was 104.7 million tones in 1973-74 as against the targeted increase of 129 million tones. The plan highlighted on the 'social justice' and 'Garibi hatao'. It emphasized on the improvement of poor and down trodden classes. The Government emphasized on nationalization of banks and 14 major Indian banks recognized as national bank. Target growth of the national income was 5.7% and achieved 3.3%. The Crash Scheme for Rural Employment, Drought Prone Area Programme, Small Farmers Development Agency, Tribal Area Development Agency, and Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme were the major rural development programmes during this period. The restoration of ecological balance, soil and moisture conservation, development of small and marginal farmers and agricultural, management of irrigation resources etc. were the objectives of this plan (GOI, 1969). The Pilot Intensive Rural Employment Programme (PIREP), it was started and implemented in areas having different socio-economic conditions on a pilot basis. The Small Farmers Development Agency (SFDA) and the Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers Development Agency (MFALDA) were launched to improve the socio-economic conditions of the small and marginal farmers by providing dug wells, pump sets, tube wells and proving loans for animal husbandry, dairy, sheep and goat rearing, poultry etc. In 1970-1971 the Tribal Area Development programme (TADP) was started in tribal areas in four states Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. The objectives of the programme was bringing the tribal areas in the mainstream of economic development of the country in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry, irrigation development, construction road, land reforms etc. In 1974, the Minimum Needs Programme (MNP) introduced during the tenure of four plans to raise the standard of living below the poverty line. The objectives of the programme were the providing minimum elementary education for the children,

public health facilities, family planning, preventive medicine, nutrition, improvement of urban slums areas, reconstruction of village roads etc.

Fifth Five Year Plan (1974-1979) :- During the Fifth Plan, Rs. 8080 crores (nearly 21% of the plan outlay) was made for agricultural development and irrigation. The plan accorded priority for the spread of HYV cultivation, greater use of fertilizer, pesticides and insecticides to increase agricultural production. The plan also provided special emphasis on; (i) small and marginal farmers, (ii) dry farming technique, (iii) evolving HYV seeds for other crops like paddy, (iv) social conservation measures on saline and alkaline soils and for desert land reclamation. During this plan, the production of food grains increased substantially (232.5 million tones). But the output of pulses and oil-seeds, paddy remained stagnant and caused considerable hardship for the common man. The plan was terminated in 1978 instead of 1979. The Hill Area Development Programme, Special Livestock Production Programme, Food for Work Programme, Desert Development Programme, Training of Youth for Self-employment were started. In 1975-1976 the GOI initiated a Special Livestock Production Programme (SLPP) on the basis of the recommendations of the National Commission on Agriculture for providing greater employment opportunities to the weaker sections of the rural mob. The Desert Development Programme (DDP) was started in 1977-1978 for raising the level of production, income, employment of people of the desert areas. The program started in 131 Blocks in 21 Districts in five states (Rajasthan, Haryana, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, and Jammu & Kashmir). On 15 August, 1979 the Training of Rural Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM) is launched by the Government. The programme is designed as an instrument for transforming the rural youth into a productive force. From 18-35 age groups of the rural youth belonging below the poverty line are eligible for training. Both male and female belonging to SCs/STs were eligible with general categories. The training are imparted through formal training institutions such as Industrial

Training Institutes, Polytechnics, Krishi Vighan Kendras, Nehru Yuva Kendras, Khadi and Village Industries Centres, Voluntary Organisations and also through reputed master craftsmen (GOI, 1974). The target growth of national income was 4.4% and actual growth was 4.9%.

Rolling Plan (1978 - 80) :- There were two Sixth Plans. Government put forward a plan for 1978-1983. However, the government lasted for only 2 years. Congress Government returned to power in 1980 and launched a different plan.

Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-85) :- The Sixth Five-Year Plan recognized that the growth of the Indian economy depends significantly on a rapid growth in agriculture and rural development. The main objective of the plan was to increase agricultural production, generate employment and income opportunities in rural areas and strengthen the forces of modernization for achieving self-reliance. Further, the plan aimed at accelerating the pace of the implementation of the land reforms and institution building for beneficiaries. The plan aimed at 3.8% annual growth in agricultural production. But, the actual growth-rate was 4.3%. This plan was officially held as a great success particularly due to its success on the agricultural fund. One-child policy adapted to birth control. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP), National Rural Employment Programme (NREP). In 1980, replaced the erstwhile Food for Work and launched NREP. Creation of employment, creation of rural economy, livelihood improvement of rural poor etc. are the objectives of the NREP. The major rural development programmes such as SFDA, MFALDA, NREP, IRDP, DPAP and the MNP have become too well known. They are part of the 20-point programme of 1982. In 1982, the Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) is formulated for the development of women and children especially belonging to the SCs and STs. The target group of the DWCRA is as IRDP. The Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP) was introduced in 1983 with the objectives of providing employment opportunities for at least one member of every

landless household. The wages for workers paid under this programme partly in food and partly in cash. RLEGP merged with JRY programme. The target growth of the national income was 5.2% and actual growth was 5.3%.

Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-90) :- The Seventh Plan aimed at an annual average increase of 4% in agricultural production. The plan allocated Rs. 39,770 crores for agricultural sector (22% of the total plan outlay). The major programmes adopted during the plan were, a special rice production programme in the eastern region, national watershed programme for rain-fed agriculture, national oil-seed development project and social forestry. Unfortunately enough, the first three years of this plan were poor monsoon years. As a result, agricultural production received a set-back during these years. However, it increased sufficiently during the last two years for which the agricultural production recorded a commendable growth of 4.1%. This plan was constituted with several antipoverty programmes. On 1st April, 1989, Jawahar Rozgar Yojana was launched with merged the earlier two employment schemes namely, RLEGP and NREP. Employment for the unemployed in rural areas, strengthening the rural economic infrastructure and improvement in the overall quality of life in rural areas were the objectives of the JRY. It was a centrally sponsored scheme and expenditure was shared by central government and state government in the ratio of 80:20. The Million Wells Scheme (MSW) programme launched in 1988-1999 providing open imitation wells free of cost to rural poor, small and marginal farmers belonging to SCs/STs and free bonded labourers including scheme of Bhoodhan and land ceiling. Indira Awas Yojana (IAY) is an integrated part of RLEGP. The aim of the Yojana is providing dwelling house to the poorest of the poor of the rural masses belonging to SCs/STs and bonded labourers. The houses should have a smokeless kitchen and sanitary latrine. The target of national growth income was 5.05% and its actual growth was 5.8%.

Eighth Five-Year Plan (1992-97) :- The basic objectives of this plan were to consolidate the gains already achieved in agricultural productivity and production during the last 40 years; to sustain agricultural productivity and production in order to meet the increased demands of the growing population; to enlarge the income of the farmers; to create more-employment opportunities in the agricultural sector; and to step up agricultural exports. 22% of the total plan outlay amounting to Rs. 93,680 crores was allotted for agriculture and irrigation. The Plan targets a growth rate of 4.1% per annum for the agricultural sector. Thus, during different plan periods, the Government has accorded vital importance to the agricultural sector and has tried to increase the agricultural production and productivity through different policy measures. In 1989-1991 period was an economic instability in India and hence no five year plan was implemented. Between 1990 and 1992, there were only Annual Plans. The privatization and liberalization were started from this period of five year plan. Modernization of industries was target goal of the eighth Plan. During this plan India became as a member of the WTO on 1 January, 1995. The major objectives of the eight plans were - control rapid population growth, poverty eradication, increase employment, strengthening the infrastructure, develop tourism management, human resource development, Involvement of Panchayatiraj in rural development, Nagar Palikas Law, NGO's and Decentralizations of power and people's participation in governmental policies. In this plan, target national growth income was 5.6% and achieved 6.78%. During this plan period the major programmes were IRDP, JRY, IAY and MWS.

Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997-2002) :- Ninth Five Year Plan was developed in the context of four important dimensions:

- (i) Quality of life,
- (ii) Generation of productive employment,
- (iii) Regional balance and
- (iv) Self-reliance. Target growth was 6.5% but 5.35% actual growth achieved. It was formulated

from 1997-2002 with the prime objectives like drastic industrialization human development, poverty eradication, self-reliance in economy, increase employment, to provide basic infrastructure of life like education for all, safe drinking water, provide primary health care, food security, women empowerment etc. During 1999-2000 the IRDP, TRYSEM, DWCRA, SITRA, MWS were merged to form a new self-employment program called rename as Swarna Jayantri Gram Swarajgar Yojana (SJGSY) with effect from 1st April, 1999. The eradication of poverty, security of nutritional food, water supply, empowerment of women and socially disadvantages groups, provide universal primary education, health, shelter etc. (GOI, 1997).

Tenth Five-Year Plan (2002-2007) :- During the tenth five year plan under Swarna Jayanti Gram Swarozgar Yojana (SJGSY) emphasized to form 1.25 lakhs SHG benefiting 25 lakhs women, establishment of micro enterprises, training for improvement of skill and capacity building, credit linkages vocational training for about 5 lakhs rural women, etc. The erstwhile wage employment Programmes. JGSY and EAs were merged and a new scheme namely Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY) was launched from 15th August, 2001. The Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) introduced in the year 2000-2001 for road connectivity in the rural areas. During this plan a new scheme viz, Rastriya Sam Vikas Yojana was introduced to investigate the real problems of high poverty, unemployment etc. which would remove barriers to growth and accelerate the development process. The scheme is founded by Central and State Government in the ratio of 75:25. The target growth was 8.1% of national income and achieved 7.7%.

Eleventh Five-Year Plan (2007-2012) :- The eleventh five year plan was constituted with two rural development program i.e. Bharat Nirman Programme and flagship program to provide opportunities to improve living conditions as well as livelihoods. The objective of the Bharat Nirman Programme is to impart a sense of urgency to

create rural infrastructure by setting time-bound goals under various schemes, creation of average rate of irrigation, rural roads connectivity for rural development, poverty alleviation in India, rural electrification, pure drinking water etc. which form a part of the Bharat Nirman Program. In order to roads connectivity for rural habitations Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) was launched as a hundred CSS in December, 2000. The flagship programs were included National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (NREGP), National Rural Health Mission (NRHM), Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), Mid-Day-Meal (MDM), National Social Assistance Programme (NSAP), Total Sanitation Campaign (TSC), Backward Regions Grant Fund (BRGF). The BRGF has replaced the Rastriya Sam Vikas Yojana (RSVY) in order to provide a more participative approach through the involvement of Panchayatiraj institutions (GOI, 2007).

Twelfth Five-Year Plan (2012-2017) :- Twelfth Five Year plan is devoted to agricultural and rural development and committed to all round development of the country. The following seven major flagship programmes are operating in rural areas. MGNREGA, NFRLM, IAY, NRDWP, TSP, IWDP, PMGSY, RGGVY (GOI, 2012). Besides these, the Government of India launched the other programmes for uplift of the poor classes like village self-sufficiency scheme, Member of Legislative Assembly Constituency Development Scheme, Integrated Sanitary Complex for Women, Clean Village Campaign and Rural Sanitation, Capital programme of Infrastructure Development by rural local Bodies, Construction of village Administrative Officers Office Buildings, Rejuvenation of water Bodies and Rain Water Harvesting in Rural Areas etc.

Conclusion :- Agriculture is an integral part of the rural life and agricultural and rural development programmes should be devised in order to meet the needs of the rural community. Efforts should be made during next planning five year plan to bring science and technology closer to the farmers

in order to utilize the limited available resources efficiently to increase the productivity of the land. The other important aspects like supply of agricultural inputs, farm machinery, irrigation facilities, cropping pattern, agricultural processing and general aspects like health, housing facilities, sanitation, welfare programmes for people should be given due importance. Agricultural and rural development is a continuous process for which Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Rural Development both are primarily responsible for planning, implementation and monitoring of various centrally sponsored programmes and schemes designed by the planning commission of India for rural poverty alleviation. The creation of self-employment opportunities for the people of below poverty line with improving the overall quality of life in the rural areas and empowerment of women in socio-economic and politics are important issues of the five year plans in India. To improve the rural areas it is necessary popular participation in policy making. The rural development would be "time-bound oriented, participatory orientated, decentralized oriented, collective oriented, improvement oriented, equity oriented, institutional oriented.

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AFRICA : The continent of diversities and challenges

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The African continent has had the most glorious history of being the birthplace of not only early humans and earliest Paleolithic cultures of the world but also the cradle of one of the earliest bronze-age civilization. During the Egyptian civilization that flourished around the Nile valley, man took the quantum leap from simple food producing Neolithic cultures to a complex Bronze Age civilization, with multiple urban centers. Historical progression does not always have a linear development and technological advancement does not arrive over a land during the same period of time. While the north-east part of Africa moved towards a magnificent urban civilization, people in the rest of the continent continued to live as tribal & pastoral communities and agriculture peasants with petty land holding. This checkered development is still a reality in Africa as there are overwhelming social, economic and cultural/ ethnic differences within each region of the continent.

Africa is a large continent with huge dimensions. In fact, it is the second largest in the world, in terms of geographical area. Apart from its geographical vastness, it is also a diverse continent with people living at different levels of social formations. Africa has around fifty- five countries, with a huge population of more than 700 million and an enormous linguistic and cultural diversity. People in Africa speak more than 1,000 languages. Linguistic and ethnic composition varies from one region to another as a result one comes across massive cultural and economic diversity among the people who inhabit this vast continent.

Africa has witnessed tremendous economic growth in recent past as its GDP has exceeded that of the world over the last fifteen years, and the sub-Saharan African region in particular, is

expected to reach a GDP \$29 trillion by 2050. In stark contrast to this upward economic trend, the countries in West Africa have the lowest standards of living all over the world. According to the 2015 Human Development Index of the United Nations Development Program, eleven out of the fifteen countries of the Economic Community of West African States figure in the bottom thirty countries among the total 188 countries of the world. Some countries like Botswana, which is among the richest countries in Africa on the basis of per capita income, have been able to achieve the highest growth rate in the world, with an average of 4.7 percent per year from 1971 to 1981 and 4.5 in 2018. On the other hand, according to International labor Organization statistics approximately 200,000 to 300,000 children are trafficked every year and subjected to forced labor and sexual exploitation in west and central African countries. Even a cursory glance at the pattern of economic development in Africa brings forth overwhelming economic differentiation among various regions and countries.

Culture is like the bricks in the edifice of the lives of African people. There are profound differences in the physical geography and even ethnicity of the countries lying north or around Saharan region and those that are located south of the desert. Although the term "sub-Saharan Africa" is problematic and considered derogatory by some scholars, international institutes as well as newspapers use it to refer to all the countries that are located in the greener part of Africa, south of the Sahara desert. Africa seems to be divided into two zones by a wall of sand, as the territories lying in North Africa viz. Egypt, Morocco, Libya, Tunisia, Sudan and Algeria are members of the League of Arab states within the Arab world. These North African countries share a

common ethnic, cultural, religious and linguistic identity which gives this region its uniqueness. The people of the Maghreb i.e. northwest Africa and the Sahara almost exclusively adhere to Islam. They speak various dialects of the Berber and Arabic languages. In the wake of Arab invasions from the middle- east between 600 AD to 1000 AD, the Berber population of the northwest and the Egyptians of eastern part of North Africa merged into the Muslim-Arabic culture. This process of Arabization and Islamization has since defined the cultural landscape of North Africa, giving it its Islamic identity. This part of Africa is sparsely populated and is devoid of cities. Even Somalia, Djibouti, Comoros and Mauritania are part of the League of Arab states. According to the UN Development Program 46 of the 55 countries of Africa are termed as "sub-Saharan", with the exception of only Algeria, Djibouti, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia that lie to the north of Sahara.

Apart from popularity of Islam in North Africa, Africans mostly adhere to Christianity and to a lesser extent several traditional African religions, which are multifaceted. Other religions prevalent in various parts of Africa are Baha'i, Hinduism, Rastafarai, Voodoo, Buddhism and Judaism, some of which have a following among the migrant population. Apart from the native Africans with their innumerable tribal groupings, there is a fairly large population of non-Africans like the Europeans, Indians and some Syrians, Lebanese, Chinese etc. as well, residing in various countries. However about two-third of the Europeans and half of the Indians reside in South Africa. This brings home the fact that any attempt at generalization can prove to be counterproductive. Each region and each country in Africa has its own identity formed by its rich history and inter-cultural exchanges.

Cultural practices and customs dominate the lives of the people and provide the most basic identity of an individual. The diverse African culture varies not only from one country to another, but within each country as well. Each ethnic group dwelling within a country follows their own characteristic customs that are unique

to their community. The linguistic diversity of Africa is sometimes mind-boggling as it poses a challenge before international agencies involved in human development projects. Crisis- responders often do not know what language expertise they require during fieldwork. Taking the example of Nigeria, most educated people speak English and Hausa, one of the country's biggest languages. But, Hausa is of little use in Borno State of north-eastern Nigeria, where most people speak Kanuri. In fact in Borno State alone twenty- eight languages are spoken. In this multi-lingual situation the most vulnerable and those who are in need aid are at a loss. During the latest outbreak of Ebola in West Africa, it is the women who were the worst affected because most international advisory on prevention of the disease was issued in English and French, the languages they were less likely to read or speak. The situation is little different in some countries like Botswana where the Bantu language Setswana is the dominant national language. It is the first language of more than 80 percent of the people living in Botswana, while English is the official language used in government documents. Apart from Setswana, around 20 other Bantu languages are also prevalent here. More than 20 ethnic groups live in Botswana, speaking multiple languages of the Bantu or Khoisan language families. This reflects the multiethnic character of the communities of Botswana with considerable opportunities for cultural arbitrage. Whether a tribe is major tribe or a minor one is not determined on the basis of its population but on the basis of its language and ethnicity. If it belongs to one of the eight Setswana tribes and speaks anyone of the eight Setswana dialects then it is major. The general pattern in Botswana is that Setswana speaking groups dominate over all the non-Setswana tribes. In order to foster national cultural identity and unity, the languages and cultures of the minority groups are repressed and their expression in the public domains is restricted. The state government in Botswana believes in an assimilationist model of national unification and thus discourages linguistic and cultural diversity.

Africa also has a substantial tribal population of hunting-gathering communities who are still living in pre-Neolithic social formations. The Zhu/oasi or Kung Bushmen of the Kalahari desert region; the Hoansi and other Khoisan and San speaking communities of Botswana; the Hadzabe of the eastern rift valley of north Tanzania; the Isanzu and Datoga of east Africa are some of the tribes living in Africa. They subsist on various kinds of hunting-foraging activities like hunting big or small game, collecting nuts and honey, digging tubers, gathering fruits and berries, etc. These communities have a profound knowledge about wild plants and animals found in their geographical and ecological zones. They face continuous prejudice and discrimination from other settled communities as well as government authorities. The Khoisan hunters and gatherers of Botswana are pejoratively known as Bushmen and a lot of social stigma still applies to Sarwa, a term used for them in the Tswana language. In 1995, the government of Botswana began a project for the relocation of thousands of Sarwa from the Central Kalahari Game Reserve. Although the indigenous Sarwa population of Kalahari protested bitterly and even took the government to court against their alleged forced relocation, the government went ahead with its plans. Some international organizations also raised their voice in favor of the Sarwa, arguing that this forced resettlement seems to be a pretext to remove people away, for giving way for new diamond mines in the area. However, by 2005 almost all the indigenous Sarwa residents were removed away from the Central Kalahari Game Reserve. The government attitudes clearly smacks of inherent bias. President Festus Mogae once bared his heart and complained, "How can you have a Stone Age creature continue to exist in the age of computers? If the Bushmen want to survive, they must change or otherwise, like the dodo, they will perish." This largely sums up the general attitude of government and people in the rest of Africa.

The African continent is the home of about half of the world's pastoral population. Pastoralism is a viable economic system for making productive use of huge arid and semi- arid

areas of Africa. Despite this fact, the budgets allocated for livestock productions in various countries of Africa are considerably and consistently lower than the share of its contribution in the gross domestic products. Around 40 percent of Africa's land mass is under pastoral activities. In Kenya, around 80 percent of the total land area is pastoral area, which is inhabited by 10 million people. We have several pastoral communities like the Massai of east Africa who occupy the region extending from Kenya to Tanzania and subsist on cattle rearing, herding and other agro-pastoral activities. They domesticate animals such as cattle, camel, sheep, goat, donkey etc for dairy products, meats, hides, transportation, trade and exchange. The livelihood of the pastoral communities depends on the exchange of their pastoral products with that of the agriculturalists. However, the terms of exchange are more often than not, tilted in favor of agriculturalist. In light of the fact that more than 70 per cent of the land under livestock production is not fit for cultivation, pastoralism remains the most viable economic option.

One of the major bottleneck that hampers cattle economy in Africa is the periodic outbreak of foot-and-mouth disease and other natural calamities such or drought. For instance during the period of 1960-1993 the Maasai and other tribal communities of the region have lost about 80% of their livestock due to droughts. In 1995, when the deadly bovine pleura pneumonia became contagious, around 320,000 cattle were culled in Botswana alone. However, the most challenging aspect that adversity affects the pastoral policy of Africa is that in most governments, pastoralists do not find adequate representation. Most governments have been pushing pastoralists to abandon their lifestyle as they do not consider it viable enough and make a case against the degradation of the environment. Governments have tried to control pastoral activities through various policies, like the Tribal Land Grazing Policy was established in 1975 in Botswana to control overgrazing. The British and the German colonial settlers in the early twentieth century used force to push away the Maasai from

about 60% of their land. The Maasai community and their sub-groups were restricted in certain administrative districts and their movement was constrained by the British authorities. They also restricted and forbade the Maasai people from selling their merchandise in settler-dominated marketplaces. Such prejudices have continued till date as they are now also sidelined in National politics and their political representation remains a major issue. The tourism industry has boomed in East Africa in a big way. National governments of African countries along with the international environmental groups blame pastoral communities and their cattle for overgrazing and reducing wildlife population. The entry of Maasai and other herders has been banned from majority of national game parks in the name of conservation. The exclusion of the Maasai from the area, which they consider as their land or Maasailand through various legislations like the Conservation Act of 1974 has led to deep anguish and frustration in these communities. Faced with major problems of land loss and displacement, majority of the poor and landless tribes are forced to migrate and take up odd jobs in the urban centers as herding or other laborers.

The challenge before Africa is to establish equilibrium between various cultures and lifestyle of different communities so that each becomes a contributor towards a glorious future while retaining its cultural identity. Africa's future lies in its people. Some of these problems are indeed intractable. The need of the hour is to devise a workable mechanism by integrating the time-honoured cultural practices into modern life. The road ahead is through accommodation with a human face and not coercive assimilation. Multiculturalism needs to be fostered, where all cultures can contribute in resource formation in a meaningful way and share the fruits of development in an equitable manner. Heterogeneities need to be recognized and respected. Diversity of Africa needs to be integrated within a system where each culture receives its due respect and place in the sun without prejudice.

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Impact of Family Environment Dimensions on Study Habits of Science Stream Students of Senior Secondary Schools' of Jabalpur District of Madhya Pradesh

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Abstract :- The present paper reports on the study of impact of Family Environment dimensions of the students of government senior secondary schools on their study habits. Family is the first place for a child where start learning and cultivating their knowledge. The Environment of the Family plays an important role in study habits of the students which results in their achievements and helps in creating dynamic personality. For this study the total sample size of 400 senior secondary school students (Boys and Girls) from Science Streams, of fourteen Government senior secondary schools of Jabalpur district of Madhya Pradesh, have been selected, adopting simple random sampling method. The Standardized questionnaire of Family Environment Scales (FES) by Harpreet and Chadha (1993) and Study Habit Inventory (SHI) by Palsane and Sharma (2004) were used for desirable collection of data. The data was analyzed by using the statistical methods of Mean (M), Standard Deviations (S.D.), and t-test. The findings of the study reaffirm the significance of eight different dimensions of Family Environments as an independent variable of senior secondary students on their study habits. These findings also give categorically guidance for Families and their children, that they should try to strengthen those dimensions of Family Environment which are not able to contribute significant impact for their better study habits to improve their success in academic life.

Keywords :- Family Environment Dimensions, Study Habits.

Introduction :- Education is not limited to a

classrooms or schools only. It is considered to be a lifelong process, where all the experience, knowledge and wisdom that an individual acquires at different stages of one's life through different channels (i.e., formally, informally and incidentally) are termed as education. Family is the first to affect an individual. It is the family who gives their child the first experience of living and learning. The child gets all care when they are completely uninformed, unprotected and unconscious, before any other agency (Like community, School, Institutions, etc.) has chance to affect them. The influence of the family on the child is immense and the importance of family with its function is primarily responsible for the over-all development of the child. Family Environment is the care process with the quality and quantity of socio-emotional support and understanding that parents provide every child to upbringing with positive and negative influences within the home. The Family Environment consists of different dimensions and sub-dimensional aspect of family, influences the study habits affects academic success of the students, in addition to the school environment. Crouter et al. (2004), reported that families who have much warmer family relationship and spend more quality time together amounts to better psychological adjustments have produced better academic performances. Family Environment is a vast term it includes diverse component affects collectively and individually. If a Family Environment is positively influenced for an average child make into a distinct personality, but it's influenced by negative, unfavorable one, it would diminish all the possibility of success of an

average child. The next to the family, after the child himself, is the peer and community environment. But the most important factor for the child is the effective parenting, parents are role models for the children, nature of parents and ability to provide healthy, warm and nurturing Family Environment are a valuable part of the family.

The learning, habits and study is not innate abilities of human being's intellect and wisdom, but these are generally created, gained, often, with deliberate and careful effort, can be cultivated by repeating it in fixed manner. Nagargu (2004), has explained about study, "Study means application of mind to a problem or subject, a branch of learning, an investigation of particular subject, and Habit implies a fixed routine response to a specific situation". Habits start developing with the birth of a child. It is the parental care and attention who make them and turn them in good habits. As the child develops the good habits reflects with his good efficient character which improves his learning and confidence to achieve success. On the other hand, the poor habit of the child leads to reflect his poor performance and interest towards the subject, which make him struggle throughout his life until s/he improves his poor habits. The study habits of the students automatically induced many fruitful results in their successful life. The Family Environment is the first place of every child to develop all kinds of habits. Therefore, the development of good habit or habits at the proper time leads to better result towards the object.

For the factual estimation in the present investigation of Family Environment impact on the senior secondary students on their study habits have been based on test Family Environment Scale (FES) developed by Bhatia H. and Chadha N.K., (2004), is described in eight dimensions of Family Environment and for study habits in the Study Habits Inventory by M.N. Palsane and Anuradha Sharma (SHI-PS, 2003) has been used. The present study will help the counsellors, Teachers and Educationalist for better educational guidance.

Review of Related Literatures :- The study of Ekeke H. et al. (2013), on the "Influence of home on study habits of secondary school students in Kolo-Creek development Centre of Bayelsa State, Nigeria. It was found that 134 (67%) of the respondents agreed that motivation from parents like provision of the recommendation books influences them to read at home. Also, some independent variables like Parent income, education, living abode influence their wards study habits. The study went further to investigate some practical steps that parent could take in order to improve their wards' study habits; which include making home a miniature of school (that is home should be conducive for reading), drawing up reading time table for their children and encouraging them to follow through every evening as well as devote their time to teach their children, although, parents level of education could be a setback for the latter. Finally, it was recommended that parent should be more responsive to their children's' education by providing learning facilities as well as conducive and motivating learning atmosphere at home. Effective study habits help students to achieve good results, also supported by Sadia, (2005). The good study habits act as a strong weapon for the students to excel in life. Study habits is an indispensable aspect of learning process. Effective study habits result in positive learning outcomes while defective study habit results in poor learning outcomes. Crouter et al. (2004), has revealed in the study that families who have much warmer family relationship and spend more quality time together amounts an average child make into a distinct personality, but it's influenced by negative, unfavorable one, it would diminish all the possibility of success of an average child. According to Bryan, (2005) explained that Children can achieve more and improve their behavior when families as well as parents are involved in their educational endeavor. As a child who is cherished and well cared for, usually develops good study habit. On the contrary, children who have lack parental affection, love and care, have difficulty forming stable relationships with their parents. The Family Environment includes parental involvement and

encouragements contribute to study habits and academic achievements of the younger children. The subjective discussion of “boosting to the younger children also increase the likelihood of their ultimate graduating from high school”, Hovell and frese (1982). Kanchan (2017), study has been designed to investigate the study habits of secondary school students as related to Family Environment. The results revealed that significant difference between study habits and Family Environment of boys and girls of secondary school students. Significant and positive relationship between study habits and Family Environment of secondary school students.

Objectives of The Study :-

1. To study the impact of different Dimensions of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science stream students (Boys and Girls) of senior secondary schools of Jabalpur district of M.P.
2. To study the difference between different Dimensions of Family Environment of Science stream Boys and Girls on their Study Habits of senior secondary schools of Jabalpur district of M.P.

Hypothesis (H) For The Study :- The following hypotheses have been constructed for the present objective of the study:

H1: There is no significant impact of Cohesion dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

H2: There is no significant impact of Expressiveness dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

H3: There is no significant impact of Conflict dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

H4: The Acceptance and Caring dimension of Family Environment does not have any significant impact on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of S. S. School.

H5: There is no significant impact of Independence dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

H6: The Active-Recreational Orientation dimension of Family Environment does not have any significant impact on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of S. S. School.

H7: There is no significant impact of Organization dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

H8: There is no significant impact of Control dimension of Family Environment on Study Habits of Science Boys, Girls and Students of Senior Secondary School.

Sample :- In the present study the total sample size of 400, senior secondary students (XI and XII class) from Science Streams, Boys and Girls of various Government secondary schools of Jabalpur district of Madhya Pradesh, were selected, adopting simple random sampling method technique. Out of these total sample size of 400 Science stream students, 200-Boys and 200-Girls students was categorically selected for the study.

Tools Used :- The following tools has been used for collection of data are:

1. Family Environment Scale (FES) by Bhatia and Chadha (2004)
2. Study Habits Inventory (PSSHI) by Palsane & Sharma (2003).

The science stream students -Boys and Girls students were administered for their perception of different eight dimensions of Family Environment with Family Environment Scale (FES) by Bhatia and Chadha (2004) and study habits with Study Habits Inventory (PSSHI) by Palsane & Sharma (2003).

Statistical Methods :- In the present investigation the tools were used for collection of data and tabulated in the data sheet as per the instruction given in the manuals. The Statistical methods was applied those are: Mean, Standard Deviation (S.D.) and t-test/CR to analyze the tabulated data, to

investigate the significance impact of considered variables in the study.

Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion of The Results :- In the present study of “Impact of Family Environment Dimensions on Study Habits of Science Stream Students of Senior Secondary Schools’ of Jabalpur District of Madhya Pradesh”, the data from fourteen schools, of science students (400), where boys (200) and girls (200), were randomly administered by collected from urban and rural government senior secondary schools. The collected data was analyzed (using SPSS software) to find out the Mean, SD and t-test/CR for the results of the study. As describe in the tools about categorization of levels and statistical significance of data as High/Low for Family Environment Scale with their respective scores of study habits of the students has been considered for statistical analysis for the results. On the basis of the following results and discussion we have reach to some fruitful conclusion for the present study.

Table-1: Statistical analysis of the eight different Dimensions of Family Environment Scales (FES) of Science Stream Students (Boys and Girls) of Senior Secondary Schools’ on their Study Habits.

Dimensions	Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value/C.R.
Cohesion	HIGH	25	65.00	6.78	0.83
	LOW	61	61.06	6.97	
Expressiveness	HIGH	13	66.30	5.26	1.85
	LOW	83	62.53	7.40	
Conflict	HIGH	84	60.94	5.95	3.01**
	LOW	23	65.08	5.36	
Acceptance and Caring	HIGH	8	70.00	7.00	2.22*
	LOW	96	61.04	6.85	
Independence	HIGH	8	66.37	1.30	1.31
	LOW	225	63.42	6.08	
Active-Recreational Orientation	HIGH	47	65.65	3.89	2.78**
	LOW	62	62.04	8.12	
Organization	HIGH	104	65.14	6.27	3.40**
	LOW	87	62.09	6.05	
Control	HIGH	96	65.75	5.24	4.79**
	LOW	114	61.57	7.06	

(The symbol * and ** is used for table P-value of significance at 0.05 level and 0.01 level respectively)

The Statistically analyzed data in the Table-1 describe the impact the eight different Dimensions of Family Environment of Science Stream Students (Boys and Girls both) of Senior Secondary Schools’ on their Study Habits. This analysis shows that, there is no significant impact of Cohesion, Expressiveness and Independence – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Students (Boys and Girls) on their study habits,

because the observed t-values are 0.83, 1.85 and 1.31 respectively, which are less than the P-value for significance at 0.05 level. Therefore, insignificant impact of Cohesion, Expressiveness and Independence – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Students on their study habits has been observed in the study.

The finding of these results indicates that the degree of cohesion, expressiveness and independent dimension of the students family environment which are related to degree of commitment and support for one another family members, to act openly with encouragement and share their thoughts and feelings freely with each other, and assertiveness and make decisions by their own, of the students have not perceived significant difference on their study habits. The reasons behind these findings may be that the study of senior secondary students belong to Government schools where mostly lower to middle class families enrolled their children for study, they may not have addressed to some of the dimensions of family environment effectively, due to many reasons in the families like less educated, unawareness, distress, psychological adjustments, unfavorable conditions of family members and sometime ignorance and psychological adjustment of the students etc, affects the study habits. These reasons of the results have been supported by many researchers like Grolinck et al. (1997) suggested that more educated parents could provide better environment and learning skills, and Halle et al. (1997) mentioned that parents having poor economic background suffers many obstacles for providing cordial family environment of their children.

Whereas, the above analyzed data in Table-1, reflects that there is a significant impact of Conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation, Organization and Control – dimensions of Family environment of Science Students on their study habits, since the observed t-values are 3.01**, 2.78**, 3.40** and 4.79** respectively, these are greater than the P-value for significance at 0.01 i.e. (**) level. Therefore, the significant impact of Conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation, Organization and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Students have been clearly observed on their study habits. The statistically analyzed results of these dimensions also indicates that the Science Students with low degree of Conflict -dimension of Family Environment have better study habits than those have high degree of Conflict - dimension of Family Environment in their families. Whereas the Science Students with high degree of Active-Recreational Orientation, Organization and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Students have better study habits than those have low degree of Active-Recreational Orientation, Organization and Control – dimensions of Family Environment in their families. These findings are in concurrence with the resulted view of Sadia, (2005), Pual (1998) stated that “student high achievements and study habits is result of orientation and organization of family regardless of their social class”, and the findings of Enos and Handal (1985) and Whitehead and Deborah (1991), have found that these family factors influenced on the study habits and higher achievements.

Table-2: Statistical analysis of the eight different Dimensions of Family Environment Scales of Science Stream Boys of Senior Secondary Schools’ on their Study Habits.

Dimensions	Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value/C.R.
Cohesion	HIGH	13	64.07	6.06	1.38
	LOW	37	61.02	7.08	
Expressiveness	HIGH	6	65.50	6.34	0.72
	LOW	40	62.87	8.09	
Conflict	HIGH	41	60.12	5.77	2.37*
	LOW	10	65.10	6.62	

Acceptance and Caring	HIGH	6	66.00	2.52	1.73
	LOW	48	60.79	7.24	
Independence	HIGH	3	65.00	1.30	0.46
	LOW	112	63.21	6.08	
Active-Recreational Orientation	HIGH	16	67.50	5.17	2.48*
	LOW	33	62.15	7.64	
Organization	HIGH	53	65.00	6.78	1.58
	LOW	38	62.84	5.81	
Control	HIGH	44	66.22	5.03	3.63**
	LOW	52	61.28	7.72	

The Statistically analyzed data in the Table-2 describe the impact the eight different Dimensions of Family Environment of Science Stream Boys-students of Senior Secondary Schools' on Study Habits. The analysis shows that, there is no significant impact of Cohesion, Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Independence and Organization – dimensions of Family Environment on study habits of Science Boys , because the observed t-value is 1.38, 0.72, 1.73, 0.46 and 1.58 respectively, which are less than the P-value for significance at 0.05 level. Therefore, the Cohesion, Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Independence and Organization – dimensions family environment of science Boys have not found significant impact on their study habits.

In the case of Science Boys, the two addition dimensions Acceptance and Caring, Organization including the three same dimensions i.e. Cohesion, Expressiveness and Independence, of the Students (Boys and Girls) family environment have been found insignificant influence on their study habits. It indicates that Science Boys are not perceiving cooperativeness, commitment for one another, encouragement, express their feelings and thought directly with family members, degree of caring and

unconditional acceptance, effecting their assertive and decision making by their own, importance of clear organized structure for planning family activities and responsibilities, in the family environment which could not significantly impact on their study habits. The reasons for the insignificant impact of these dimensions of the family environment of science Boys on their study habits are unawareness, less educated parents, distress, financial crises (poverty), psychological adjustments, unfavorable conditions of family members and sometime ignorance and psychological adjustment of the students etc, affects the study habits. Grolinck et al. (1997) suggested that more educated parents could provide better environment and learning skills, and Halle et al. (1997) mentioned that parents having poor economic background suffers many obstacles for providing cordial family environment of their children.

Whereas, the above data reflects that, there are a significant impact of Conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation, and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Boys on their study habits, since the observed t-values are 2.37*, 2.48* and 3.63** respectively, are greater than the P-value for significance at 0.05 i.e.

(*)and at 0.01 i.e. (**) level. Therefore, there is a significant impact of Conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Boys on their study habits. These analyzed data also indicate that the Science Boys with low degree of Conflict -dimension of Family Environment have better study habits than those have high degree of Conflict - dimension of Family Environment in their Families. Whereas the Science Boys with high degree of Active-Recreational Orientation and Control – dimensions of Family Environment have better study habits

than those have low degree of Active-Recreational Orientation and Control – dimensions of Family Environment in their families. These findings of the results have been supported by the results of Pual (1998) that “student high achievement and study habits are result of orientation and organization of family regardless of their social class” and Fox et al. (1983) studies that “Control is the degree of limit setting within the family, those who have highly controlled environment shows better study habits and academic achievement than low control over adolescents”.

Table-3: Statistical analysis of the eight different Dimensions of Family Environment of Science Stream Girls of Senior Secondary Schools’ on their Study Habits.

Dimensions	Degree	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value/C.R.
Cohesion	HIGH	12	66.00	7.63	1.92
	LOW	24	61.12	6.93	
Expressiveness	HIGH	7	67.00	4.54	2.02*
	LOW	43	62.20	5.97	
Conflict	HIGH	43	61.72	6.09	1.83
	LOW	13	65.07	4.46	
Acceptance and Caring	HIGH	2	71.50	9.19	2.12*
	LOW	48	61.29	6.50	
Independence	HIGH	5	67.20	4.50	1.30
	LOW	113	63.63	6.34	
Active-Recreational Orientation	HIGH	31	64.07	5.54	1.68
	LOW	29	61.93	7.19	
Organization	HIGH	51	65.29	5.76	3.15**
	LOW	49	61.51	6.22	
Control	HIGH	52	65.34	5.42	3.11**
	LOW	52	61.80	6.52	

The Statistically analyzed data in the Table-3 describe the impact of eight different Dimensions of Family Environment of Science Stream Girls of Senior Secondary Schools’ on their Study Habits. This statistical

analysis shows that, there is no significant impact of Cohesion, Conflict, Independence, Active-Recreational Orientation– dimensions of Family Environment on study habits of Science Girls, because the observed t-value is 1.92, 1.83, 1.30 and 1.68 respectively, which are less than the P-value for significance at 0.05 level. Therefore, there is no significant impact of Cohesion, Conflict, Independence, Active-Recreational Orientation – dimensions of Family Environment on study habits of Science Girls has been observed in the study. In the case of Science Girls, the two addition dimensions Conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation including the some of the same dimensions i.e. Cohesion and Independence, of the Students (Boys and Girls) family environment have been found insignificant influence on their study habits. It indicates that Science Girls have not significantly influenced by the conflict, Active-Recreational Orientation - dimension of family environment, contrary to boys. This indicates that the Science Girls have not perceived cooperativeness, degree of commitment of the family members, amount of openly expressed their aggression and conflict among member of family, extent to their family members were assertive and decision making by their own, extent to participation in social and recreation activities in the family environment could not have significantly influenced their study habits.

Some of these insignificant dimensions impact of the family environments on study habits of science Girls are not similar to the Boys, indicate that both have perceived different environmental impact on their study habits. The reasons for the family environment of different dimensions not significantly influenced the study habits of science girls may be the same as described in the case of Students and Boys.

Whereas, the above statistical analysis reflects that, there is a significant impact of Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Organization, and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Girls on their study habits, since the observed t-values are 2.02*, 2.12*, 3.15** and 3.11** respectively, which are greater than the P-value for significance at 0.05 i.e. (*) and at 0.01 i.e. (**) level. Therefore, there is a significant impact of Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Organization, and Control – dimensions of Family Environment of Science Girls on their study habits. These analyzed data also indicate that the Science Girls with high degree of Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Organization, and Control – dimensions of Family Environment have better study habits than those have low degree of Expressiveness, Acceptance and Caring, Organization, and Control – dimensions of Family Environment in their Families. These findings are in concurrence with the resulted view of Sadia, (2005), Pual (1998),

Enos and Handal (1985) and Fox et al. (1983) discussed in case of Students and Boys.

Conclusions and Suggestions :- The overall findings of the above results of the study reveal that there is a no significant impact of Cohesion dimension of Family Environment of Science Students, Boys and Girls on their study habits.

There is a significant impact of Expressiveness dimension of Family Environment of Science Girls (t-value/CR- 2.02*) and no significant impact of Expressiveness dimension of Family Environment of Science Boys and Students on their study habits (t-value/CR- 0.72 and 1.85). Girls with high degree of Expressiveness of Family Environment have better study habits.

There is a significant impact of Conflict dimension of Family Environment of Sci. Boys and Students (t-value/CR- 2.37* and 3.01**) and no significant impact of Conflict dimension of Family Environment of Sci. Girls (t-value/CR- 1.83), on their study habits. Sci. Boys and Students with low Conflict of Family Environment of have better study habits.

There is no significant impact of Acceptance and Caring dimension of Family Environment of Boys (t-value/CR-1.73) and a significant impact of Acceptance and Caring dimension of Family Environment of Science Girls and Students (t-value/CR- 2.12* and 2.22*), on their study habits.

Science Girls and Students with higher Acceptance and Caring of Family Environment have better study habits.

There is a no significant impact of Independence dimension of Family Environment of Science Boys, Girls and Students on their study habits (t-value/CR- 0.46, 1.30, and 1.31)

The Active-Recreational Orientation dimension of Family Environment of Sci. Boys and Students have a significant on their study habits (t-value/CR- 2.48* and 2.78**) and no significant impact of Active-Recreational Orientation dimension of Family Environment of Sci. Girls on their study habits (t-value/CR- 1.68). Science Boys and Students with high degree of Active-Recreational Orientation dimension of Family Environment have better study habits.

There is a significant impact of Organization dimension of Family Environment of Girls and Students (t-value/CR- 3.15** and 3.40**) and no significant impact of Organization dimension of Family Environment of Science Boys (t-value/CR- 1.58), on their study habits. Science Girls and Students with higher Organization of Family Environment have better study habits.

There is a significant impact of Control dimension of Family Environment of Science Boys, Girls and Students on their study habits (t-value/CR- 3.63**, 3.11** and 4.79**). And Science Boys, Girls and Students with high degree Control of Family Environment have better study habits.

The overall findings of the above results (Table -2 and Table -3) of Science stream Boys and Girls, also revealed that there is no significant difference i.e. similar affects has been found in the some dimensions like - Cohesion, Independence and Control of the Family Environment of Science stream Boys and Girls on their study habits, whereas a significant difference i.e. not a similar affects has been found in the other dimensions like – Expressiveness, Conflict, Acceptance and Caring, Active-Recreational Orientation and

Organization of Family Environment of Science stream Boys and Girls on their study habits.

Therefore, the findings of the present study reaffirm the impact and significance of eight different dimensions of Family Environment as independent variable of students of government senior secondary on their study habits. These findings give categorically educational guidance for Families and Children for different dimensions of Family Environments of the group of considered Science students (Boys and Girls), that they should try to strengthen those dimensions of Family Environment which are not able to contribute any significant impact for their better study habits.

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A Study of Sports Schemes Offered By Directorate of Youth and Sports of M.P. in Relation to Their Implementation and Outcomes

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Introduction :- The facilities for athletics, physical education recreation, health education and camping programme have become a necessary ingredient in the modern community. The contribution, size and location of these facilities are closely related to the total community pattern. Such facilities should be planned in relation to the other physical, economic and social characteristics of the community. The basis of each community's master plan must be a study by the community of its own needs. Facilities should be planned in with due regard for the community's existing or potential resources.

Statement of the problem :- The purpose of this study was to examine different sports schemes offered by directorate of sports and youth welfare of Madhya Pradesh in relation to their implementation and outcomes.

Objectives of the study :- For the purpose of this study, the main aim was to examine different sports schemes offered by Directorate of sports and youth welfare of Madhya Pradesh. To achieve this aim following objectives were framed.

1. The main objective of this study was intended to critically examine the various aspects of organization, administration and sports schemes offered by Directorate of sports and youth welfare of Madhya Pradesh.
2. The idea behind this study was to observe as to how best the sports schemes and policies had been formulate to suit the practical situation of Madhya Pradesh.
3. Also how much comprehensive and effective

these sports schemes were implemented in their application.

4. To find out the outcome of implemented sports schemes offered by the Directorate of sports and youth welfare of Madhya Pradesh.
5. To evaluate the organizational structure and administrative set up of Directorate of sports and youth welfare.
6. To determine the short coming which were affecting the implementation of sports schemes offered by the Directorate of sports and youth welfare of Madhya Pradesh.

Delimitation of study :-

- This study was delimited to sports schemes offered by the Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare, Madhya Pradesh.
 - This study was further delimited to selected districts of Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare of Madhya Pradesh.
1. Bhopal
 2. Gwalior
 3. Bhind
 4. Morena
 5. Datia

Limitation of study :- Though all efforts were made by the researcher to bring uniformity in the studies, limitation of the studies could be:

1. Language barrier between the researcher and the subjects and incorrect perception of questionnaire by the subjects.
2. The limitation of the selected questionnaire, and

3. The subject's personal motivations at the time to fill the questionnaire truly.

Hypotheses :- On the basis of literature reviewed, available research findings, guidance from the experts and scholar's own understanding, it was hypothesized that:

- Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare had an ideal and effective administrative set up to facilitate the sports culture in the state and sports schemes.
- Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare had been formulating the sports schemes and policies to suit the practical situations of Madhya Pradesh.
- Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare had implemented the comprehensive and effective sports schemes in their application.
- Directorate of Sports and Youth Welfare had positive outcomes of implemented sports schemes.

Procedure :-

Selection of subjects :- For the purpose of this study, sports administrators, coaches of sports hostels, sports colleges and those deputed at various coaching center of the Directorate of sports and youth affairs of Madhya Pradesh were considered for the study.

Sports persons were randomly recruited from sports colleges, sports hostels and various coaching centers managed by Directorate of sports and youth affairs. The distribution of various types of sample is given as under:

Selection of test items :- Questionnaire developed by Prasad (1993) was used to collect the data. It consists of three parts, A – for Administrators, B – for Coaches and C – for Players. The format of the questionnaire was developed by Prasad (1993) to know the existing facilities and to obtain the requisite information from the sample to fulfill the objectives of the study. The contents included in it were analyzed, studied and listed carefully. The contents to be covered in the questionnaire were divided into the following items:

1. Playing facilities : Track, Indoor, Outdoor, Sports grounds and Swimming pool
2. Coaching facilities : Summer coaching camps, Competition coaching camps
3. Satisfaction with the quality of equipment.

Analysis of Data and Result of The Study :- In this chapter the statistical analysis of data, results of the study and discussion of findings have been presented. Cross tabulation method and Chi-Square test were used in IBM-SPSS version 20 to compute the data collected using questionnaire developed by Prasad. The data were collected from five selected districts of Madhya Pradesh, viz. Bhopal, Gwalior, Bhind, Morena and Datia.

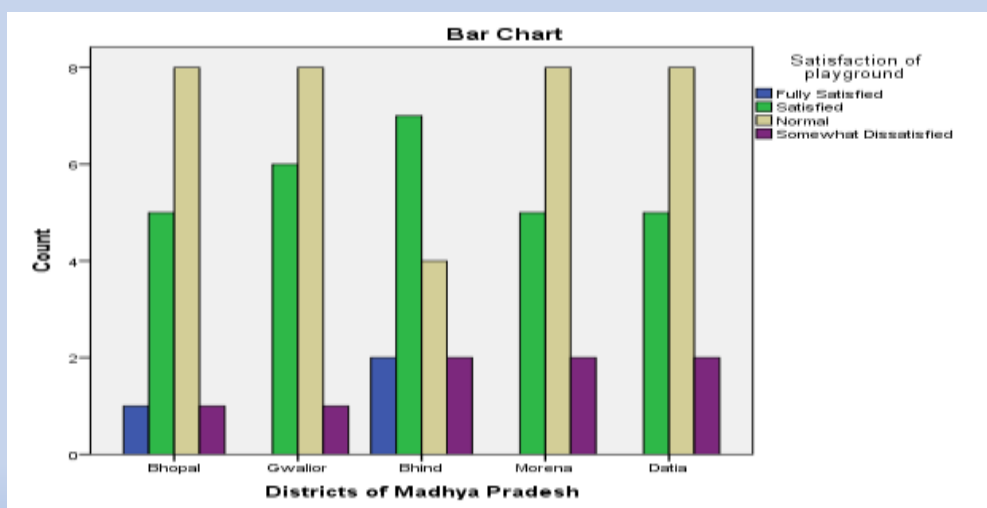
An Sample of Findings in The Study :-

- Responses of Administrators
- Responses of administrators of selected districts of Madhya Pradesh regarding their level of satisfaction of various sports facilities have been presented in different tables for their interpretation.

Sample of table in the study :-

		Fully Satisfied	Satisfied	Normal	Somewhat Dissatisfied
Bhopal	Count	1	5	8	1
	Expected Count	.6	5.6	7.2	1.6
	%	6.7%	33.3%	53.3%	6.7%
Gwalior	Count	0	6	8	1
	Expected Count	.6	5.6	7.2	1.6

	%	0.0%	40.0%	53.3%	6.7%
	Count	2	7	4	2
Bhind	Expected Count	.6	5.6	7.2	1.6
	%	13.3%	46.7%	26.7%	13.3%
	Count	0	5	8	2
Morena	Expected Count	.6	5.6	7.2	1.6
	%	0.0%	33.3%	53.3%	13.3%
	Count	0	5	8	2
Datia	Expected Count	.6	5.6	7.2	1.6
	%	0.0%	33.3%	53.3%	13.3%
	Count	3	28	36	8
Total	Expected Count	3.0	28.0	36.0	8.0
	%	4.0%	37.3%	48.0%	10.7%



Sample figure: Graphical representation of responses of administrators of selected districts of Madhya Pradesh regarding their level of satisfaction for playground

Discussion of findings :-

- From the results it can be seen that majority of administrators of Madhya Pradesh are having normal views regarding the playground. And also around 11% administrators are dissatisfied with the facilities of the ground. This may be due to the reason that much attention is not given in developing or maintaining the playground, which

should be the first priority. As the players will play in the ground, and if the grounds are not up to the mark then proper results won't be the outcome. And unmaintained ground may cause injury to the players too. So, it can be seen that more number of administrators doesn't seem to be satisfied with the playground facilities available.

Women and sustainable development - Women's Empowerment is a key factor for attaining sustainable economic growth

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Abstract :- Sustainable development depends on an equitable distribution of resources for today and for the future. It cannot be achieved without gender equality. Women's empowerment is a key factor for achieving sustainable economic growth, social development and environmental sustainability. Sustainable development is broadly defined as development which meets the requirements of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainable development should be a key principle of all policies and actions, which are broadly designed to create a society which is based on freedom, democracy and respect for fundamental rights, fostering equality of opportunity and solidarity within and between generations. Sustainable development is based on the principles of democracy and the rule of law and respect for fundamental rights including freedom and equal opportunities for all. Sustainability cannot exist without equity in the distributional process. Women and girls are crucial contributors, implementers and beneficiaries of sustainable development. At the Sustainable Development Summit on 25 September 2015, UN Member States adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which includes a set of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to end poverty, fight inequality and injustice, and tackle climate change by 2030. Women's empowerment through gender equality is a cross-cutting development issue, and unless addressed in multidimensional way, gender equality will not become a reality. Women's contribution to sustainable development must be recognized. Women have a strong role in education and socializing their children, including teaching them

care and responsibility. In order to build women as catalyst for sustainable development, their role in family, community and society at large has to free from socio-cultural and religious traditions that prevent women participation. The secondary data will be used for this paper. The objective of this paper is to highlights the essentials of women contribution in sustainable development as partner and beneficiaries.

Keywords :- Equity, Sustainable Development, Empowerment, Gender Equality, Human Rights.

Introduction :- For the empowerment of women and girls to be realised through sustainable development, there needs to be more than a commitment to these goals. There must be concerted action across all countries and communities -dedicated resources should be provisioned to empower women of all ages and girls as part of the SDGs. Approaching gender equality as a crosscutting issue in the SDGs requires that gender is included at all stages of policy development, means of implementation, monitoring and accountability. The need for a cross-cutting, inclusive and gender-sensitive approach is clear: without this approach the global transformation envisaged by the SDGs will not be achieved. Women and girls are crucial contributors, implementers and beneficiaries of sustainable development. Their empowerment is fundamental to the achievement of the 2030 Development Agenda. The stand-alone SDG on gender equality (Goal 5) should be celebrated, as it outlines targets for every country to make gender equality a reality. However, Goal 5 does not stand in isolation and will not achieve gender equality

alone. A gender-sensitive approach must be implemented across the entire agenda for the 2030 development agenda to be successful.

Women and Girls as Agents of Change :- Women and girls comprise the majority of people living in poverty, and experience multidimensional inequalities. Previously, efforts were only made to include women and girls in 'women's issues' in development which failed to recognise the multidimensional nature of gender in development. Additionally, persistent and chronic underinvestment in gender equality and women's empowerment has exacerbated development limitations. These mistakes must not be repeated. Therefore, sustainable development initiatives must reinforce the consideration that women and girls are at a higher risk of being left behind. The voices and perspectives of women and girls must be included in policy development, implementation and monitoring on all issues and not only Goal 5. This would promote the inclusion of women and girls as leaders and decision makers, as well as relevant stakeholders and partners in sustainable development. How resources are mobilized and how programmes are implemented has clear implications for women's empowerment and the achievement of gender equality. Gender equality is not only an aspect of implementation but a critical means of implementation, and an essential policy measure for countries to achieve their full development potential. To mainstream the involvement of women and girls in sustainable development demands a change in attitudes and behaviour towards women and girls across all levels. For women and girls to be agents of change their input must be considered important; they should not only be thought of as 'beneficiaries' or 'vulnerable', they must be considered as equal partners and valuable contributors to sustainable development. With this attitude change it would be unnecessary to repeatedly call for women's and girls' inclusion because they would be included automatically. Women and girls can increase community capacity at the grassroots level, by leading effective community-based sustainable

development actions that contribute to the achievement of the SDGs.

Sustainable development and Women Empowerment :- Sustainable development should be a key objective for all national policies, and should aim at the continuous improvement of the quality of life on earth of both current and future generations. It is about safeguarding the earth's capacity to support life in all its diversity. It is based on the principles of democracy and the rule of law and respect for fundamental rights including freedom and equal opportunities for all. It brings about solidarity within and between generations. It seeks to promote a dynamic economy with a high level of employment and education, of health protection, of social and territorial cohesion and of environmental protection in a peaceful and secure world, respecting cultural diversity.

Over the years, women have continued to speak out for policies and practices that do not threaten the health and well-being of future generations. They continue to fight for improved living standards and protection of the environment. In almost all countries, women are disproportionately represented among the poor. And studies have found that the poor, in urban and rural areas of rich and poor countries, bear the greatest burden of environmental degradation and pollution.

Women share the primary responsibility for nutrition, child care and household management in almost all countries. They are also active in environmental management. In most developing countries, women play a major role as farmers, animal tenders, and water and fuel collectors. Yet, despite their roles, women are not adequately represented in the decision-making processes related to the issues of environment and development at local, national or international levels.

Having their expertise, knowledge and perspective been overlooked for years, women are

now demanding that their voices be heard. They recognize that an integrated approach to sustainable development is necessary since political, economic, social and environmental issues are closely interlinked.

Women took active part in the Rio Earth Summit process and succeeded in obtaining a chapter on women and sustainable development and over one hundred references and recommendations pertaining to women in the final agreement, Agenda 21. The 1992 Rio Summit, together with the 1993 Human Rights Conference, the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development, the 1995 Social Summit and the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women, have focused the work of the United Nations on the environment, population, human rights, poverty and gender, and the relationships between these issues.

In Rio, women were considered a "major group" whose involvement was necessary to achieve sustainable development. Today, there is a growing emphasis on "mainstreaming"- integrally incorporating women's concerns and participation in the planning, implementation and monitoring of all development and environmental management programmes to ensure that women benefit. The United Nations system is in the process of mainstreaming a gender-perspective in its work.

The Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in September 1995, emphasized that empowerment, full participation and equality for women are the foundations for peace and sustainable development. The plan also acknowledges that sustainable development policies that do not involve women and men alike will not succeed in the long run.

Women and poverty :- According to broad estimates, more than one in five people around the world live in conditions of extreme poverty on little more than \$1 per day. In all developing regions except East Asia, the number of poor people has been rising since the 1980s. Studies

indicate that the gaps between rich and poor are widening, and that the majority of the world's poor are women. Since the 1970s, the number of rural women living below the poverty line has increased by 50 per cent, in comparison with 30 per cent for men.

Women accrue less income than men over their lifetime for a variety of reasons. They get paid less for the same work and are more likely to work less in order to reconcile their careers with child or elder care. These gaps in women's employment history reduce the amount of social security women gain. It also decreases the likelihood of receiving credit or loans. All these facts increase women's vulnerability to poverty, especially in old age. Governments must introduce policies, programmes and quota systems which correct this imbalance.

The United Nations Development Programme has defined sustainable development as development that not only generates economic growth but distributes its benefits equitably, that regenerates the environment rather than destroying it, and that empowers people rather than marginalizing them. It is development that gives priority to the poor, enlarging their choices and opportunities and providing for their participation in decisions that affect their lives.

Many women's groups are concerned that current patterns of economic development and globalization are increasing the gap between rich and poor, benefiting men more than women, and leading to increased environmental degradation. One report published by the Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO), "The imperatives of the global economy seem to be outrunning the post-Rio agenda five years later. How to bring them into closer step is the current challenge." Women are calling for gender-sensitive research in this area. They are also calling for increased access to resources - land, credit, education, technology and information--so that they can participate equally with men in key decisions that affect their lives

and all life on planet Earth.

Women have also raised demand that Governments establish new forms of economic accounting to include women's unpaid work and promote public policies that will reduce the disproportionate time women spend working, which is often twice as much as men.

Management of natural resources :- In almost all developing regions, women are often the primary users and managers of land, forest, water and other natural resources. Women in rural areas of developing regions spend major parts of their day growing food, gathering fuel wood, cooking and carrying water.

Women are responsible for most local food production in Africa and Asia. Consequently, they are responsible for the selection of seeds, fertilizers and pesticides and the maintenance of productive soil to nourish seedlings and plants. Women are also users, preservers and managers of biodiversity. Research on 60 home gardens in Thailand revealed 230 different species - many of which had been rescued from a neighboring forest before it was cleared.

Indigenous women have a special relationship to natural resources. Their cultures and practices promote a balanced, respectful use and preservation of natural resources so that future generations can meet their needs. Yet most development schemes today ignore the needs and practices of indigenous peoples. As consumers and producers, caretakers of their families and educators, women play an important role in promoting sustainable development through their concern for the quality and sustainability of life for present and future generations. However, due to discrimination, many women are unable to exercise their full potential in natural resource and environmental management, given their lack of training, status, land and property rights and capital.

Human Rights, the SDGs and Women's Empowerment

:- That the SDGs are 'aspirational global targets' and can be adjusted for 'national circumstances', is of concern. Although it is important for sustainable development policies to be contextualized, there is the potential for national agendas to dilute the strength and purpose of the SDGs to the disadvantage of all. It is a risk to allow countries to define development according to their own priorities in their national plans, as numerous countries systematically disadvantage and legally disempower key development stakeholders, including women and girls. Human rights frameworks and mechanisms are crucial to ensuring that 'national circumstances' are not used as a justification for diluting the implementation of the SDGs. Human rights mechanisms like CEDAW and UPR can provide a valuable contribution to monitoring, accountability, and promoting a human rights-based implementation approach of the SDGs that would legally protect and ensure the empowerment of women and girls. Human rights standards facilitate the empowerment of all people, including women and girls. That the political declaration accompanying the SDGs acknowledges the role that human rights have in sustainable development is significant in achieving human rights for all. Human rights must be seen as part of development and as a mechanism for achieving the SDGs.

Empowering Women through NGOs and Civil Society

:- Civil society organisations, including women's and grassroots organisations are critical to facilitating the inclusion and empowerment of women and girls in sustainable development. These organisations increase capacity through their networks and roll out sustainable development programmes effectively. As accountable organisations that represent the views of traditionally disempowered groups, including women and girls, NGOs can provide support and legitimacy to sustainable development programmes that other development agents cannot. Empowering civil society is also critical to the empowerment of

women and girls.

Since the SDG negotiation process started, hundreds of laws and regulations across the world have been agreed that limit civil society space. This encroachment upon civil society, and the limitations being placed on NGOs, will only further disempower women and girls and will work against efforts to implement the SDGs. Without the support of NGOs and CSOs women and girls will not be able to access essential services that empower them, including legal representation, education and healthcare. If women and girls are to be empowered through the effective implementation of sustainable development principles then CSOs including women's organisations, must be included as well. Through CSOs and NGOs, women and girls will be listened to as partners and not merely co-opted into a development agenda that does not reflect their needs.

Conclusion :- The achievement of Goal 5 alone will not create a gender-equal world. Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls must be used as a method of implementation across the SDGs to ensure their success. All countries hold the same responsibility to ensure the full implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development within their own borders, and to support other countries in achieving the SDGs which includes reaffirming and contributing to the fulfilment of gender equality. Gender equality is a cross-cutting development issue, and unless addressed in multidimensional way gender equality will not become a reality. Not one of the SDGs will be achieved without including women and girls as equal partners. Including women and girls in sustainable development would complement and support state responsibilities. The challenge now is establishing what sustainable development means in practice: how the SDGs, development policies and means of implementation, will empower women and girls at every level. Women and girls must be equal partners in sustainable development.

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A Theoretical Perspective of Human Rights

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Human Rights can be generally defined- as those rights which are inherent in our nature and without which we cannot live as human beings.

Key words :- Natural Rights, Freedom, Declaration, violation, Universalization.

Human beings are rational beings :- The notion of human rights is the most important one the purpose of securing human rights as such are to provide protection to these rights against the abuse of power committed by the origin of the state, to establish institutions for the promotion of living conditions of human beings and for the development of their personality; and at the same time, to provide effective remedial measure for obtaining redress in the event these rights are violated.

Origin and Development of Human Rights :- The origin of Human Rights is traced by some schools of ancient Greeks. The fact that Human Rights were recognized as natural rights of man is illustrated by a Greek play Antigone. In philosophy the development of the notion of natural rights of man was contributed by the stoic philosophers. The stoic philosophers formulated the theory of natural law after the break down of the Greek city state. The central notion of the stoic philosophy was that the principles of natural law were universal in their nature were able to preach the idea of Universal brotherhood of mankind and laid stress upon the equality and freedom of all after stoic romans applied the stoic conception of natural law in the formation of body do legal rules for the administration of justice. It was the most outstanding intellectual contribution of Romans (Jus Civil of the Roman law).

The Middle Ages :- In the medieval period, which stretches from 15th Century to the peace of Westphalia (1648), encompassing the period of

Renaissance and the decline of feudalism, certain basic changes in the belief and practices were witnessed because the people felt the idea of human rights as general social need and reality. It was during this period when resistance to religious intolerance and political-economic bondage began and the real foundation of human rights were truly laid.

Widely viewed as one of the most important legal document in the development of modern democracy, the **Magna Carta** was a crucial turning point in the struggle to establish freedom.

Petition of Rights (1628) :- The next recorded milestone in the development of human rights was the petition of rights, produced in 1628 by the English parliament and sent to Charles I as a statement of civil liberties. In this period Holmes and Locke who profoundly influenced the thought on liberty they believed that "**The natural liberty of man is to be free from any superior power on earth**". John Locke, developed the concept of natural rights, the notion that people are naturally free and equal.

In 18th century, the so called age of enlightenment, a growing confidence in Human reason and in the perfectibility of human affairs led to its more comprehensive expression in the writings of English philosopher John Locke and the work of Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, John Locke, the father of liberalism argued in detail, mainly in writings associated with the Glorious Revolution (1688). That certain rights like **Right to life, liberty and Property** self-evidently pertain to individuals as human beings because they even existed in the state of Nature that is, before human kind entered into civil society, the further argued that while entering into civil society through contract to the state only the right to enforce these natural rights and not the right

themselves. He also continued that if state failed to protect these rights, people also have the right to revolt against state.

The teachings of these liberal thinkers has a profound influence on the western world. Together with the practical example of England's revolution of 1688 and the resulting Bill of Rights, the liberal intellectual ferment had great influence on the western world.

The teachings of these liberal thinkers has a profound influence on the western world. The American declaration of independence (1776) stated. We hold these truths to be self-evident that all men are created equal, they are endowed by their creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness similarly that French declaration of the rights to men (1789) emphasized that '**Men are born and remain free and equal in rights which are 'Liberty, Property, Safety and Resistance to Oppression'**'. The proclamation of the declaration of the right of man and of the citizen was annexed to the constitution when it was adopted in 1791. In the worlds of Gaius Ezejofor, "the completed one the most crucial epochs in the development of the concept of human rights. Before the American and French revolution it had what was for all practical purpose only a philosophical appeal but after the declaration and the constitutional Bill of Rights the concept assumed a positive importance.

The notion of natural rights as having arisen under the influence of natural law theory has been opposed by contemporary liberal and radical circles.

Edmund Burke, David Hume started questioning the very basis of the doctrine of Natural Rights.

Jeremy Bentham goes on the extent of calling natural rights Rhetorical nonsense, besides the him in 19th & 20th century philosophers & communists like Mill, Savigny. Sir Henry Maine,

John Austin, Karl Marx, who intensified the attack on natural rights.

Despite all these assaults, the notion of human rights manifested itself in one of the other form. But It was not until the rise and fall of Nazism in Germany that the real meaning was imparted to the ideal of human rights.

Universalization of Human Rights :- Although at the end of first world war some attempts on modest level were made though the treaty of Versailles to promote and universalize human rights but it met with no success.

Human rights were further development in the international sphere with establishment of the league of Nations, after the first world war the contribution of the International Labour Organization under the aegis of the League was equally noteworthy in creating an atmosphere of international involvement in securing fair and human conditions of labourers.

After the oppressive and brutal practice adopted by Nazi regime in Germany. The individual on the ground of their race or religion were subjected to persecution, tyranny and brutality. They were deprived of their civil and political rights. It caused global concern for the protection and promotion of human rights universally, and with the program of the second world war deep concern was shown for the international of human rights and for establishment of world organization for the protection and promotion of human rights. It was believed that no permanent peace could be established without securing international without securing international safeguards for human Rights and freedom fundamental freedom. President Roosevelt took the lead in the matter, the then British P.M Mr. Churchill was equally concerned with the violation of human origin and social persecution / with the good efforts, it was only after the U.N. charter was signed in 1945 that any serious attempt was made to provide comprehensive protection of all individual against

all forms of injustice and human right violations the charter of the united nation however did not define the content of human rights. For this purpose the V.N. General assembly on 10th Dec., 1948 proclaimed the universal declaration of rights. It defined specific rights – civil and political as well as economic, social and cultural. it spells out the rights to life, liberty and security of person, to fair trial by due process of law, to freedom of conscience, thought, expression, association and privacy, freedom of movement.

Adoption of Declaration was really an event of great significance. It launched a new era of hopes in the protection and promotion of human rights across the globe. In the connection, the first documentary use of the expression took place in Universal Declaration of Human Rights and two other international covenants – **internal covenants on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and internal covenants on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966 which came into force in 1976 with the approval of the United Nations.**

This article has attempted to throw a light that the 20th Century brought a new and changing political context for human rights and transformed the philosophical and ideological debate about it. In a way, the historical narration underscores men's struggle for rights being as old as the history of mankind itself.

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Is FPTP System a real representation of people's mandate in Multi party democracy like India

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Abstract :- Prima facie it may appear that main purpose of an electoral system is to translate the will of voters as expressed through the ballot box or electronic voting machine into seats of a legislative body that is state assembly or parliament resulting into formation of a government. But one of indispensable aspect of any electoral system is ensuring representation. Representation is the activity of making citizen's voices, opinions and perspective presents in the public policy making process (Hanna Pitkin; 1967). A parliament or assembly is referred as representative because it constitutes the elected people. Therefore the electoral system at play may be questioned on the basis of representative character of the candidate who wins the election. The International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, Stockholm classifies electoral systems under practice in various countries around the globe in three groups namely Plurality System, Majoritarian System and Proportional Representation system. Plurality system have single member electorates or constituencies, FPTP is electoral method under plurality system. Under First Past The Post system(FPTP), the candidate who secure the highest number of valid votes from that particular electoral constituency is declared winner irrespective of the fact that whether he or she has the absolute majority or not(i.e. fifty percent plus one vote). So in multi part democracy like India where there are officially 7 national parties, 36 State recognized parties, 329 regional Parties in India as per recent Election Commission of India data, questions are raised about the non representation of another major chunk of population. Especially after seeing the voting pattern and electoral outcomes of last few sate and general elections of Lok sabha, where marginal difference in percentage of vote share lead to major difference in number of seats

obtained by parties which decided the formation of Government. So the paper will deal with different aspects of FPTP, why it was adopted in India and what can be a possible alternate to overcome the anomalies of this system in diverse country like India.

Types of Electoral Systems which are practiced globally

:- Political institutions shape the framework under which democracy is practiced, and it is often argued that the easiest political institution to be manipulated, for good or for bad, is the electoral system. In translating the votes cast in a general election into seats in the legislature, the choice of electoral system can effectively determine who is elected and which party gains power. Even with exactly the same vote cast by each voter and exactly the same number of votes for each party, one electoral system may lead to a coalition government or a minority government while another may allow a single party to assume majority control.

Electoral Systems adopted by any country depends upon various factors like its historical past, demography economic and political situation. Worldwide the different electoral methods in practice are grouped in following three categories by The International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, Stockholm :

1. **Plurality System** : Plurality system is always with single member electorate or constituencies like India. It is simplest of all electoral system, USA presidential election also follow this system with a candidate whosoever garner the largest number of vote in a state will win all the electoral college vote available from the state. In plurality system it is not necessary to get fifty percent and plus vote to get elected but the candidate win by securing

highest number of votes amongst other contestant which is called First past the post system.

2. **Majoritarian System** : Under this electoral system candidate needs to secure absolute majority that is fifty percent plus one vote for getting elected. Example is French presidential election. Such majority obviously cannot be achieved through a single ballot system or in the first round of voting so it requires a second ballot in a second round of polling by means of preferential voting. This is also called a second ballot system.

3. **Proportional Representation** : Under this system legislative seats are won by parties in proportion to the percentage of vote gained by them. By necessity this requires more than one seat in an electorate so multi member constituencies are used. The rationale behind PR system is the conscious translation of a party's share of votes into a corresponding proportion of seats into legislature. To avoid candidate being elected with very few votes some countries establishes an 'electoral threshold', which means fixing the minimum vote percentage required to be declared elected. Examples of it are Germany where threshold is 5 percent and Italy where it is 3 percent.

Electoral Method currently practiced in India and Its Historical Background :- Different democracies choose different electoral systems to represent people and their preferences or interests. India adopted for FPTP as a British legacy. However during the debate of constituent assembly there were voice for both the methods-FPTP and Proportional Representation by various members. Many members, during the constituent assembly debates, had proposed various forms of proportional representation (PR) as the most appropriate form of electoral system for the newly independent country.

However, for a country ravaged by sectarianism, B.R. Ambedkar believed that a stable government with a majority in the Lok Sabha was more essential in order to maintain law and order.

Also, members of the assembly believed that the PR system may prove to be too complex for Indian voters, most of who were illiterate at that time and were being introduced to universal adult suffrage for the first time. Ambedkar also regarded PR as an inadequate mechanism to ensure representation of minorities. He believed that PR system would give historically marginalised groups a mere voice in the election of their representatives and not a definite quota as ensured by the reservation of seats. Thus, Ambedkar's opposition to PR was under the impression that the Indian constitution would have better means of ensuring minority participation in the democratic process than afforded by Proportional Representation.

While the constituent assembly was right in concluding that PR is a complex system and may lead to fragmented legislatures and unstable governments, Because parties are granted seats in accordance with their vote share, numerous parties get seats in the legislature in the proportional representation system, without any party gaining a majority. This detracts from the stability of the system. Coalition government becomes inevitable with challenges to such governments also becoming frequent. This is also why the Constituent Assembly decided that proportional representation would not be suited to the Parliamentary form of government that our Constitution lays down.

So the makers of the constitution like Dr, B.R. Ambedkar chosen FPTP over proportional representation on ground of its simplicity, the educational status of the voters at that time, better representation of different section of society and need of stability.

Arguments in support of FPTP :- Other than its simplicity it is also argued by different expert that It excludes extremist parties from parliamentary representation. Unless an extremist minority party's electoral support is geographically concentrated, it is unlikely to win any seats under FPTP. This contrasts with the situation under

straight PR systems, where a fraction of one per cent of the national vote can ensure parliamentary representation.

It retains the link between constituents and their Member of Parliament (MP). Perhaps the most often quoted advantage of FPTP systems is that they give rise to a parliament of geographical representatives: MPs represent defined areas of cities, towns, or regions rather than just party labels. Many proponents of FPTP argue that true representative accountability depends upon the voters of one area knowing who their own representative is, and having the ability to re-elect, or throw them out, at election time. Some analysts have argued that this 'geographic accountability' is particularly important in agrarian societies and developing countries like India.

Why we need to rethink on FPTP :- After analyzing the few recent election outcome has strongly compelled the academia and political experts to rethink the suitability of FPTP in India in present context. The current First Past the Post electoral system gives rise to several questions viz about the composition of the assemblies, about the representative character of the elected assemblies, and which could potentially weaken their substantive legitimacy, about the relation between voters and their elected representatives. In 2004 Election's in Karnataka the congress candidate from Santhermarahalli R. Dhruvanarayan won by meager margin of one vote, in such case the opinion of other half who casted almost equal vote against him went in vain and UN represented. Further many times it is seen that vote received by winning candidate is just about one third of the total polled votes. There is no direct relation between a party's vote-share and the number of seats it wins. Constituencies elected under FPTP do not reflect the spread or range of voter support across all parties, and significant third or even fourth parties are severely underrepresented. If we see the outcome of UP assembly election 2012 the disparity between vote share and number of seat obtained would be

crystal clear. In the 2012 UP assembly elections the Samajwadi Party won heavily, taking 226 seats in the 403-seats assembly; its nearest rival, the Bahujan Samajwadi Party, won 80 seats, but if we see the vote share, SP's vote share was 29.29 percent whereas BSP had 25.95 percent of vote share. So we can see that a mere difference of 3.3 percent resulted into a massive difference of 146 seats. It is also evident that a slight swing of vote percentage bags a disproportionate number of seats for some party and loss for other. Other than this FPTP is also witnessing following anomalies:

Winners with Small Percentages Of The Vote :- In the 2012 UP assembly elections, only 16 of the 403 winning candidates got 50% or more of the vote; the majority of the winners had less than 40%, and 117 winners had less than 30%. This is also a feature of recent British general elections; in 2005, only two candidates gained over 40% of the vote in their respective constituencies. Another won a seat with the votes of 18.36% of the constituency electorate. In the 2010 election, 433 MPs, or two thirds of the Commons, did not get 50% of the turnout vote, and the current House has the lowest share of majority winners in any British parliament since at least the 1920s; in fact a record number, 111 MPs, won their seats on a vote-share of under 40% (Electoral Reform Society 2010).

Unrepresented voters :- In effect, substantial proportions of voters in most constituencies go unrepresented. Even going by turnout figures alone, it is not unusual for 60% of those who voted to be unrepresented, because only one candidate is elected to represent the constituency.

'Wasted' votes :- The votes cast for all except the winner are wasted in that they had no effect on the result, but in fact the figure for such ineffectual votes is even larger, because a plurality of only one vote is needed to win a seat under the FPTP system. Any more votes cast for the winner are superfluous; one estimate for the 2010 British

general election is that 71.1% of votes, or 21.1 million of the 29.7 million cast, had no effect on the composition of the House of Commons (Rallings and Thrasher 2010: 2).

Tactical voting :- This is quite common in FPTP systems, with voters opting not for their preferred candidate but for an alternative so as to keep a third candidate out. This often happens in seats which are “safe” for particular candidates and therefore votes for all others except a likely runnerup are useless.

Targeted campaigning :- This is widely used under the FPTP system, because small swings can decide large proportions of seats. In some countries, “swing” voters form only about 5% of the electorate. In India, as candidates sometimes admit privately election, campaigns are often aimed at particular castes or communities. Post-policies may then favour the swing voters who may have decided the outcome. Targeted campaigns can be effective; in the UK in 1992, the Liberal Democrats won 20 seats on a vote-share of 17.8%, but in 1997 a campaign targeted on the seats where they had the best chance won them 46 seats on a lower vote-share, namely 16.8% (Tall 2012).

The fact that FPTP provides only one representative per constituency means the winner becomes the sole gatekeeper, that is, the only person constituents can approach with their concerns. If the elected representative belongs to a party which opposes whatever the constituent seeks (or is hostile to the constituent for any reason), then the voter has nobody else to approach. In addition, voters who support a party but do not like the party’s candidate get no other option. Parties tend to choose “safe” candidates. This can work against women and minority candidates. Furthermore, able local party members could be excluded from candidature because they belong to the “wrong” social group for the constituency concerned (Beetham 2007; Electoral Reform Society 2008).

Also from last 70 years there has been great transformation in literacy rate of the country which was one on main reason behind adopting FPTP also if we consider the stability advantage related with FPTP we will see that India saw a regime of instable Government in coalition era especially between 1996 to 1999 when we saw three short span Governments.

What can be possible alternate method and is that free of all anomalies :- Proportional Representation is often suggested as a alternative method with an argument that the system is more reflective of the popular will and also dilutes the perils of majoritarianism that FPTP unleashes with its unilateral focus on absolute majority. Key Variants of PR The system of proportional representation has many variants, out of which two systems are most popular viz. List system and System of single transferable vote.

1. List system : In the list system, political parties present lists of candidates in advance, who are awarded seats in proportion to their party’s vote share, usually with some minimum prescribed thresholds.

2. Method of the single transferable vote: In this system, the voters make an electoral college and while voting, they rank candidates in order of preference, and if no one emerges with a majority, the least voted candidate is removed from consideration and the second choices of those who voted for him are taken into consideration. This process continues till a winner with a majority emerges.

However the supporter of PR system must have to answer the questions that even this method in not free of anomaly. Especially if we see in context of country like India which has wide diversity on ground of caste, religion etc, it is feared that PR would lead to political parties being formed on sectarian grounds. Also one potential drawback of this system is that the relationship between a voter and the candidate may dilute, for the candidate may now be seen as representing

the party and not the constituency. The other way of looking at this is that a constituent could approach any representative of their choice in case of a grievance, which plays out as an advantage of this system. This would also lead to less focus on development of a geographical reason and resources available there. I should also be noted that India has defied the notion that FPTP is discouraging for small emerging parties and strengthen the dominant two party system because following the same system of FPTP India saw it journey from a single party dominated system in for of huge majority command by Congress to a coalition era where the regional state paries acquired quite prominent role.

Conclusion and Suggestion :- Considering all these different situations where different system have different advantages and disadvantages for country like India, a Hybrid system that is blend of FPTP and PR may be useful. Here the recommendation of the Law Commission of India is worth noting. The Law Commission in its 170th report, submitted in 1999, recommended that India may combine the FPTP system with PR, modeled on the lines of the hybrid system followed in Germany. The report suggested an increase in the Lok Sabha seats by an additional 25% which could be filled by PR while the FPTP system would continue to be used as earlier for the existing seats. Further in its 255th report in 2015 under chairmanship of Justice A.P. Shah it reiterates its stand by stating "It is clear that both the electoral systems come with their own merits and demerits – proportional representation theoretically being more representative, while the FPTP system being more stable It is also clear, from the experience of other countries that any changes in India's electoral system will have to follow a hybrid pattern combining elements of both direct and indirect elections. This, in turn will necessitate an increase in the number of seats in the Lok Sabha, which raises concerns regarding its effective functioning."

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Conditions and Problems Faced By Waste Pickers in India

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ABSTRACT :- There are few things certain in life – 1. Death 2. Change and 3. Waste. No one can stop these things to take place in our lives. But with better management we can prepare ourselves. Waste picking ranks lowest in the hierarchy of urban informal occupations and a large number of those employed in this occupation are women and children. Illiterate, unskilled persons, migrants, those lowest in the caste hierarchy and the poorest of the poor, predominantly work as waste pickers, as they are unable to find any other kind of employment. Currently, many of them collect waste from landfills dotting urban spaces. Waste picking ranks lowest in the hierarchy of urban informal occupations and a large number of those employed in this occupation are women and children. Illiterate, unskilled persons, migrants, those lowest in the caste hierarchy and the poorest of the poor are predominantly work as waste pickers, as they are unable to find any other kind of employment. Currently, there are no clear or comprehensive policies or legislations to protect the rights of the waste pickers, in India. The lacunae brings to fore the lack of vision in protecting livelihoods in the country. Not only does the formal system of collecting and segregating waste provide scope for employment, the informal economy of the recycling industry provides ample opportunities to protect and encourage self-employment. My study is a secondary analysis. The present study seeks to improve our understanding of conditions and problem of the waste pickers and to understand the law and policy framework governing the waste and recycling industry.

KEYWORDS :- Msw, Waste Pickers, Landfills.

INTRODUCTION :- There are few things certain in life – 1. Death 2. Change and 3. Waste. No one can stop these things to take place in our lives. But

with better management we can prepare ourselves. Each of us has a right to clean air, water and food. This right can be fulfilled by maintaining a clear and healthy environment. Waste picking ranks lowest in the hierarchy of urban informal occupations and a large number of those employed in this occupation are women and children. Illiterate, unskilled persons, migrants, those lowest in the caste hierarchy and the poorest of the poor are predominantly work as waste pickers, as they are unable to find any other kind of employment. Currently, many of them collect waste from landfills dotting urban spaces.

SIZE AND SIGNIFICANCE :- Estimates of the total number of waste pickers in the country are not easily available. However, some estimates, city wise have been recorded in some studies. In Ahmedabad city alone there are an estimated 30,000 waste pickers – a large proportion of them are women and children. In the state of Gujarat overall there are estimated to be over 100,000 waste pickers. Another study of Delhi estimates that the numbers of waste pickers in Delhi alone would be approximately 100,000.¹ The total population of waste collectors in Pune is estimated to be 6,000, according to one study,² of whom 72 per cent are women.

WORKING CONDITIONS :- Generally, there is no employer-employee relationship in this trade even though it is possible that some of the waste picking activity is organized by contractors. 'Wastepickers are considered to be self-employed having no legally tenable employer-employee relationship either with the municipalities or the with scrap traders. They are not paid by the municipalities while with the waste traders the relationship is a sale-purchase transaction, at most a patron-client relationship built on years of dealing with the same scrap trader.' Waste-pickers

suffer from occupation related musculo-skeletal problems, respiratory and gastro-intestinal ailments. They also face regular harassment and extortion from both the police and the municipal authorities. No social security benefits are available to workers in this sector. However, with the changing profile of the waste sector, particularly with the entry of e-waste which has deposits of precious metal, the actors in the recycling industry are fast evolving. Waste, now has recyclable material that is very valuable. Many technologies, particularly incineration-based waste-to-energy technologies using thermal treatment are now entering the Indian market. Globally, many of them being phased out as they are found to be in contravention of the global environmental regimes, on account of the toxic chemicals they emit. Technologies such as pelletization, refuse derived fuel, plasma arc, pyrolysis and incineration are examples of technologies known to emit dioxins, one of the 12 chemicals scheduled for phase-outs under the Stockholm Convention. Therefore, the need to optimize recycling and reduce waste is crucial from an environment perspective, too. Thus, a need exists to acknowledge and promote the existing practices as environmentally sustainable. An overall comprehensive framework policy is required to guide the central, state, and local governments in undertaking a sustainable and decentralised integrated solid waste management system. The policy needs to steer the country eventually to a 'zero waste' model - a model that involves decentralised and effective waste handling (which includes collection and processing) at the primary level, which in turn ensures a minimal residual quantum of garbage to be transported and dumped at the secondary level.

EXPLOITATION BY SCRAP TRADERS :- The relationship between the waste picker and the trader is almost always exploitative. Most women waste pickers have no idea at what price the trader is reselling the products and have no

bargaining power, vis a vis the traders. Further, as result of their lack of education and literacy, waste pickers are exploited at all turns – traders under weigh the waste products, count money inaccurately, or manipulate prices. Underweighing of scrap, random cutting of weights, price manipulation, deferred payment of dues and abuses are some of the common exploitative practices. Scrap traders do not issue any receipts so there is no record of the transaction. Credit arrangements with the trader is a double edged sword – on the one hand it helps the worker tide over lean periods and emergencies (and a steady tied source of supply of scrap for the trader), it also results in the trader sourcing the material at highly exploitative rates.

PLACE OF WORK :- Most of the waste pickers work at dump site, collecting and segregating waste. Several workers also walk for miles picking up waste in the hot sun or in rain. Those who work in dump sites work under extremely unhealthy and unhygienic conditions. No protective gear such as gloves, aprons or boots is available to the workers. They often have no access to drinking water or public toilets. Many carry the heavy load on their head or shoulders and others cycle or use a pushcart to transport their load. The workers thus engage in manual work which is physically taxing.

OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH :- The occupational health problems of waste pickers are very many. Apart from all the health issues that arise from poverty (such as malnutrition, anemia, tuberculosis), the conditions of work put them at special risk. The waste bins and landfills are a breeding ground for bacteria and parasitic diseases are common among waste pickers. At times, they come in contact with medical waste resulting in infections and blood poisoning. They are often bitten by dogs and rats, get injured by broken glass and ragged metal edges, leading to tetanus or burns caused handling acid or explosives in the garbage. Infections also result from contact with human and animal excreta,

sputum and dead animals. They often suffer from skin or stomach infections and also other diseases like scabies, asthma and other respiratory infections, due to unhygienic conditions of work. Long hours of work, carrying heavy loads, poor living conditions further add to their vulnerability. For women waste pickers' the laborious work regime often takes a toll on their health. They often suffer from acute anemia, miscarriages and other reproductive ailments.

Report of the Second National Commission on Labour, Government of India, 2002.

The problem is acute because waste pickers are not protected by occupational health and safety measures. None were found to use any kind of protective gear like gum boots, plastic aprons, masks or gloves. Moreover, waste pickers do not come within the purview of any labour legislation. Hence they are not covered by social security schemes that provide health cover.

HARASSMENT :- Harassment at work is very common for the waste pickers. Women waste pickers face harassment from police or municipal workers. They are also ostracized by the society, people hesitate to offer them even a glass of water and are often treated as ill omen. The residents welfare committee and security personnel of middle class residential areas often see them as 'thieves' and treat them with suspicion.

PRIVATISATION :- Private sector participation in SWM has been actively encouraged in the last decade in several urban local bodies. The scope of the participation however, is restricted largely to awarding contracts for door-to-door collection of waste, street sweeping, composting of waste, transportation of waste and storage in depots/dust bins. There have been a few experiments to set up treatment facilities for the final disposal of waste with or without financial participation of the urban local body.

In the privatization models, the workers employed (Safai karamcharis or Pourakarmikas) are contract workers. The provisions of Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Act 1970 prohibit the contracting out of the services already being provided by the urban local bodies. Several urban local bodies have sought exemptions from the respective state governments for engaging contractors for providing SWM services or even privatizing those services. Private sector participation should generally be considered in those areas where Municipal Corporations or municipalities are not providing the service. Tenders are invited and the lowest bidder given the contract for door-to-door collection or transportation of waste. Payments are made on the number of trips or per metric tonne basis, restricting the total tonnage per truck and having a penalty provision for failure to perform or delay in clearance of bins.

In India waste pickers play an important role in collecting and segregating waste such as paper, glass, plastic, metals and other such recyclable materials? The hand picking and sorting at dumps and landfills is tedious and hazardous work, fetching the waste picker a meagre livelihood. Though being the lowest in the recycling rung, they are vital to an environmentally sustainable waste management model. Remarkably, their contribution is rarely documented or quantified. These livelihoods need to be protected and mandated through law and policy in the country. As efforts at segregation of recyclables and composting of organic waste by the municipality are non-existent, huge quantities of waste are being dumped on waste lands in and surrounding the city. Despite laws mandating scientific land filling, these facilities have not been set up.

LAWS AND POLICIES :- The **Municipal solid waste (MSW)** Rules passed in January 2000 (but came into effect in January 2004) under the Environment Protection Act, 1986 by the ministry of Environment and forests of the government of

India after directions from the Hon. Supreme court of India in the Almitra Patel Case, mandating a comprehensive policy for collecting, handling and managing solid waste.

CASE :- The land mark case that drew attention to and changed the manner in which waste is handled in major cities is the ruling in the Almitra Patel case. A writ petition was filed by Almitra H. Patel regarding the management of solid waste disposal in four metropolitan cities—namely, Mumbai, Chennai, Calcutta and Delhi. It also referred to Bangalore, but the Court took up the case of National Capital Territory of Delhi. The Court by an order dated January 16, 1996 appointed a Committee headed by Mr. Asim Burman to look into the aspects of 'municipal solid waste management'. The Committee gave its report which was circulated to all the States. The pronouncement made by the Supreme Court in Almitra H. Patel v. Union of India¹³ compelled the Central Government, the Ministry of Environment and Forest to notify the Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules, 2000. The Almitra Patel case brought to fore the need for door-to-door collection of waste, segregation of waste at source as dry and wet, new and appropriate technologies for the handling of waste and final disposal. While it was a good first step in addressing serious concerns relating to waste management, regrettably, the focus of this petition was not on reducing and recycling waste with the concomitant directions to ensure penalties on large polluters and reward efforts to recycle with tax breaks and subsidies. It may well be the subject of another writ petition.

Legislative framework Environmental laws The Central Government has enacted laws to regulate many kinds of waste generated in the country. The wide range of wastes include household/municipal waste, biomedical waste, e-waste, waste electronic & electrical equipment, waste from construction and demolition activities, waste from end of life cars, mining waste, waste

from power plants, hazardous waste, waste from agriculture/forestry etc,. The Environment Protection Act (EPA), 1986 is the umbrella Act that pertains to management of solid waste in the country. Ministry of Environment and Forests has enacted rules under the EPA that would govern the management of all kinds of waste in India.

The other methods available for waste disposal are processing/ treatment and disposal of MSW are composting, vermin-composting, anaerobic digestion/biomethanation, incineration, gasification and pyrolysis, plasma pyrolysis, production of Refuse Derived Fuel (RDF), also known as pelletization and sanitary landfilling/landfill gas recovery. Some of these methods are now being introduced in several parts of the country and they are discussed in brief below.

A. Land Filling :- Land filling is the most popular method for waste disposal. Sanitary land filling – which requires the use of technology and effective monitoring – is rarely practiced in the country. On the other hand, waste is dumped in open, abandoned land, often close to water bodies leading to large scale contamination of surrounding land and ground water sources. As a large amount of dumping across the country happens on fallow land in surrounding villages, the village local authorities there is growing protest from locals and local bodies in several instances, have refused permission for dumping. Several conflicts have also erupted as villagers protest wide spread contamination of their land and water sources.

Landfills also release methane gas, which is more potent than carbon dioxide, thus contributing to global warming. It is important therefore to reduce the emission through composting, recycling and reduction of waste generation. Thus, where land filling is inevitable, it must ensure leachate control and bio-gas utilization to ensure sanitary land filling at its

optimum.

B. Composting :- Composting as a method of effective disposal of organic waste is practiced in a few select areas. Composting is the decomposition of organic matter by microorganism in warm, moist, aerobic and anaerobic environment. This method is simple, effective, low cost and the compost generated can be sold to farmers in surrounding areas. In March 2003, the Ministry of Urban Development appointed an inter-ministerial task force on using city compost for plant nutrient management, in accordance with court orders. Its 2005 report has been accepted by the ministry and, in September 2006, the court also ordered its implementation with immediate effect. It recommended the setting up 1,000 composting plants based on garbage in cities across the country.

Vermi-composting is the natural organic manure produced from the excreta of earthworms fed on scientifically semi-decomposed organic waste. It requires less mechanization, is easy to operate but it requires careful handling to ensure toxic material does not enter the chain which could kill the earthworms. Only a few small towns in the country are practicing vermi-composting while some large cities have aerobic compost plants of a larger capacity. But many of these plants are functioning much below installed capacity.

C. Waste to Energy :- An alternative is converting waste to energy—burning garbage to produce electricity. It involves large capital investment and several government subsidies are on offer to encourage businesses from taking up WTE projects. up in the country – one each in Hyderabad, Vijayawada, Lucknow and Delhi. The Delhi plant was forced to shut down soon after it was commissioned and the lucknow plant was never operational. The viability of WTE projects are largely determined by the quantum of investment, scale of operation and the availability

of quality waste.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK: INDIAN CONSTITUTION AND SOLID WASTE MANAGEMENT :- The Indian Constitution provides the broad framework of powers and functions vested in different branches of the state. **Article 243 (W)** of the Constitution of India specifies the powers, authority and responsibility of the Municipalities. The Article provides for the State government to empower Municipalities to carry out the functions listed in the Twelfth Schedule of the Constitution. The functions that are relevant to the informal sector in solid waste management are entry 6: public health, sanitation conservancy and solid waste management; entry 8: protection of environment; entry 9: safeguarding the interests of weaker sections of society; and entry 11: urban poverty alleviation.

Several **provisions** in the **Directive Principles of State Policy** define the state's role in protecting the marginalized and weaker sections of society, ensuring better wages and the protection of the environment.

Article 38 urges the State to secure a social order for the promotion of welfare of the people. It states – "(1) The State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order in which justice, social, economic and political; shall inform all the institutions of the national life. (2) The State shall, in particular, strive to minimise the inequalities in income, and endeavour to eliminate inequalities in status, facilities and opportunities, not only amongst individuals but also groups of people residing in different areas or engaged in different vocations.

Likewise **Article 39** maps the principles of policy to be adopted by states. These are: (a) direct its policy towards securing that the citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood; (b) that ownership and control of the material resources of the

community are so distributed as best to sub serve the common good; (c) that the operation of the economic system does not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment; (d) that there is equal pay for equal work for both men and women; (e) that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter a vocations unsuited to their age or strength; (f) that children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment. All of these have a bearing in formulating policy for the waste pickers. **Article 41** requires that the State within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness and disablement, and in other cases of undeserved want. Crucially, **Article 43** prescribes that the state, secure to all workers a living wage. It states that the "State shall endeavour to secure, by suitable legislation or economic organization or in any other way, to all workers, agricultural industrial or otherwise, work, a living wage, conditions of work ensuring a decent standard of life and full enjoyment of leisure and social and cultural opportunities and, in particular, the State shall endeavour to promote cottage industries on an individual or co-operative basis in rural areas." **Article 47** imposes a duty on the state to improve the standard of living and public health of its people. The Constitution also imposes certain duties on citizens of the country. **Article 51(A)** of the Indian Constitution obliges every citizen to protect and improve the environment. This duty of the citizen has been reiterated in Municipal Solid Waste Management Rules, 2000 wherein citizens are required to segregate and dispose waste in the manner prescribed under the Rules.

Significantly, the courts have also expanded the understanding of certain provisions in keeping with changing times and have read into **Article 21** the right to clean environment including the right to sanitation. The courts are however, yet to assert that Article 21 the right to livelihood, implicit within it is the right to waste, for waste pickers. We examine below some of the court rulings pertinent to the waste sector.

Supreme Court and Waste -The Supreme Court and the high courts have in several cases held that maintenance of health and preservation of sanitation falls within the purview of Article 21 of the Constitution as it adversely affects impacts health and life of citizens, in the event of default. It has therefore mandated municipal authorities to remove rubbish, filth, night soil or any noxious or offensive matter and to ensure their proper and scientific disposal.

Apart from the municipal authorities, the Pollution Boards also have a basic duty under the **Environment (Protection) Act, 1986** to assist in the proper disposal of the waste. In *Virendar Gaur v. State of Haryana*¹² the Supreme Court has declared that right to life under **Article 21** encompasses right to live with human dignity, quality of life, and decent environment. Thus, pollution free environment and proper sanitary condition in cities and towns is considered to be integral part of right to life. It is noteworthy that none of these cases mention the central and symbiotic relationship played by waste pickers and the recycling industry in ensuring a clean environment and recovering resources for reuse, thus contributing significantly to the larger objectives of the 'right to life' enshrined in the constitution.

Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules 2000 The Ministry of Environment and Forest notified Municipal Solid Waste (Management and Handling) Rules 2000 after widely circulating the draft rules in 1999 inviting objections and made it mandatory for all municipal authorities in the country, irrespective of their size

and population, to implement the rules. Some salient features of the rules are:

1. Prohibit littering on the streets by ensuring storage of waste at source in two bins; one for biodegradable waste and another for recyclable material.
2. Primary collection of biodegradable and non-biodegradable waste from the doorstep, (including slums and squatter areas) at pre-informed timings on a day-today basis using containerized tricycle/handcarts/pick up vans.
3. Street sweeping covering all the residential and commercial areas on all the days of the year irrespective of Sundays and public holidays.
4. Abolition of open waste storage depots and provision of covered containers or closed body waste storage depots.
5. Transportation of waste in covered vehicles on a day to day basis.
6. Treatment of biodegradable waste using composting or waste to energy technologies meeting the standards laid down.
7. Minimize the waste going to the land fill and dispose of only rejects from the treatment plants and inert material at the landfills as per the standards laid down in the rules.

Interestingly, the Rules do not mention the crucial role played by the informal sector workers in the waste management model envisaged therein. On the contrary, the promotion of newer technologies such as incineration seek to displace waste pickers as the focus is on collecting high calorific waste to make incinerators a viable proposition. The entire responsibility of implementation of MSW Rules, as well as development of required infrastructure, vests with municipal authorities. They are required to obtain authorization from the state pollution control boards/committees for setting up waste processing and disposal facilities and furnish annual report of compliance. The secretary, Urban Development Department of the respective state government is responsible for the enforcement of the provisions in metropolitan cities. A District Magistrate or a Deputy Commissioner of the concerned district is responsible for the

enforcement of these provisions within the territorial limit of his jurisdiction in other places. The state pollution control boards are expected to monitor the compliance of standards regarding ground water, ambient air, leachate quality and the compost quality including incineration standards as specified in the rules.

While there are Central Rules for the handling and management of Municipal Solid Waste, it is the State Municipal legislations that will determine the structure, Waste picking ranks lowest in the hierarchy of urban informal occupations and a large number of them are women and children. As stated earlier, the sector has a large number of unskilled persons, migrants, those lowest in the caste hierarchy, as they are unable to find any other kind of employment. Waste pickers are generally categorized as self-employed as the transaction between the waste pickers and the scrap traders is a sale purchase transaction. Whilst there is no specific labour legislation protecting the workers, a wide array of other laws impact waste pickers.

Child Labour Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986 and the National Policy on Child Labour provide the framework for intervention on child labour issues. The above law prohibits employment of children in certain listed hazardous industries and provides regulation of employment of children in other industries. In 2001 waste picking was included in the schedule of hazardous occupations prohibited children being employed under the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1986. Migrant workers Migration brings with it certain vulnerability for workers. A lack of support system in a new city denies them the bargaining power and the ability to protect their basic rights. Migrant waste pickers face regular harassment from authorities in various states. Conditions of Work Conditions of work for the average waste picker are appalling and they are exposed to several contaminants in the course of their work. Waste-pickers suffer from occupational hazards such as musculo-skeletal problems, respiratory and gastrointestinal

ailments. They also face regular harassment and extortion from both the police and the municipal authorities. No social security benefits are available to workers in this sector.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS :- In reviewing the law and policy framework pertaining to waste pickers in the country, we conclude that there is a dire need for a comprehensive and inclusive policy that deals with the whole cycle of waste management from generation to collection and disposal. The critical role of the waste pickers in the entire waste management cycle needs to be acknowledged and integrated. Such progressive policy efforts need to be adopted by other states in the country. However, this lacuna in policy brings to fore the lack of vision in protecting livelihoods in the country. Not only does the formal system of collecting and segregating waste provide scope for employment, the informal economy of the recycling industry provides ample opportunities to protect and encourage self-employment. The right to waste and access to waste, need to be envisaged in a holistic solid waste management system that gives due recognition and protection to the waste picker. An integrated waste management system, in which segregation at source enables sustainable management of waste and provides employment with better working conditions to waste pickers, needs to be mandated by law for all local bodies across the country. The 'access and right to waste' to waste pickers would be a crucial aspect that can help secure livelihoods of the waste pickers.

An inclusive law and policy framework also takes on greater significance in the background of the looming threats, as waste management models transform with changing needs. It must be noted that the privatization has the potential to cut off the access to waste of traditional waste pickers. A new class of contractors and waste sorters are likely to be employed by the private actors, with no effort at absorbing the existing communities that work in this trade. Newer

technologies being promoted by the government also further seek to displace and alienate the workers. What is essential is an urgent response to the secure and protect this highly vulnerable class of workers.

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Microfinance in India and Rural Development

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Abstract :- Microfinance is used to supply small credits to very poor section of society that is unable to access the traditional economical financial institutions such as banks. It helps them in acquiring finance to expand their tiny businesses and other financial needs. Microfinance's also helps in improving contribution of women in economic activities by providing economical resources to invest. This research paper is an effort to bring light the role of microfinance in rural development through the study of micro financial schemes. We can learn important lessons from microfinance for developments in terms of what can be the strategy that we can adapt to make a difference. We can conclude that weak sector of Indian economy is in dire need of money lending methods to earn credits so microfinance programs should be an important area of focus to provide these people the chance to improve their standard of living via means of economical growth.

Keyword :- Economical growth, Microfinance, NABARD.

Introduction :- Microfinance has, in the recent past become one of the more promising ways to use core development funds to achieve the objectives of poverty alleviation. Further he stated that certain microfinance programs have gained prominence in the development field and beyond. The ultimate aim is to attain social and economic empowerment. These microfinance institutions may very well have had a major impact on improving the standard of living of millions of poor people as well as on promoting economic development. Therefore microfinance has become one of the utmost active involvements for economic enablement of the poor.

As we discussed in earlier chapters microfinance operation is not a new concept in the financial transactions. There were different forms of credit and lending activities existed in different parts of the world since the development of human history. It includes individual money lending, various types of chitties, and also kurikkalyanam in Malabar area of Kerala. All these indigenous financial institutions were conducted microfinance activities in one way or the other. But modern types of microfinance were started its development since later half of 20th century especially after 1970. Our country also witnessed the development of such like institutions in the same period. Government's initiative to reduce poverty by improving access to financial services to poor started since independence. India's overwhelming majority of pooris located in rural areas and this motivated the government to give special attention to rural credit. Following the report of All India Rural Credit Survey in mid 1950's, the Government took crucial steps in reviewing Cooperative structure including the partnership of State in cooperatives. Also the policy initiative of 'social banking' concept led to the nationalization of commercial banks, adoption of direct lending programmes to rural areas and development of credit institutions such as Regional Rural Banks (RRBs) and National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development(NABARD).

Objectives of the Study :-

- To know the impact of micro financial services initiatives on rural development.
- To know whether there is need for microfinance initiatives in India.
- To identify whether the Micro financial services initiatives are dependent of the interest and financial conditions of rural

people.

- To throw light on role played by Micro Financial institutions in Improving standard of living of rural people of India .

Literature Review :-

Otero (1999), illustrates the various ways in which “microfinance, at its core combats poverty”. She states that microfinance creates access to productive capital for the poor, which together with human capital, addressed through education and training, and social capital, achieved through local organisation building, enables people to move out of poverty (1999). By providing material capital to a poor person, their sense of dignity is strengthened and this can help to empower the person to participate in the economy and society (Otero, 1999).

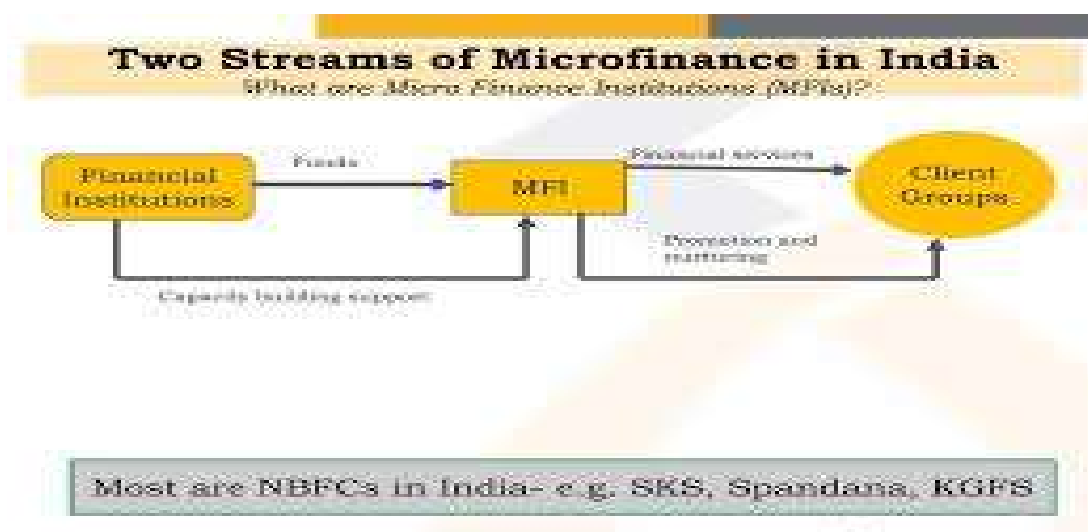
Goankar, Rekha. (2001), the study resolved that the program of SHGs can considerably add towards the decline of poverty and unemployment in the rural sector of the economy and the SHGs can lead to social change in terms of economic growth and the social modification.

Jayasheela, Dinesha P T and V.Basil Hans (2008), in their paper on “Financial inclusion and microfinance in India: An overview” studied the

role of microfinance in the empowerment of people and provision of a sustainable credit availability to the rural low income population. The study relates to the opportunities available for the microfinance institutions with an increasing demand for credit in the rural areas due to inadequate formal sources of credit.

Micro Finance Models in India :- A wide range of microfinance models are working in India. Experts opinion is that India host the maximum number of microfinance models. Each model has succeeded in their respective fields. The main reason behind the existence of these models in India may be due to geographical size of the country, a wide range of social and cultural groups, the existence of different economic classes and a strong NGO movement. Micro Finance Institutions in India have adopted various traditional as well as innovative approaches for increasing the credit flow to the organized sector. They can be categorized in to six broad types.

- 1) Grameen model
- 2) SHG model
- 3) Federated SHG model
- 4) Cooperative Model
- 5) ROSCA s
- 6) Micro-finance companies (MFCs)



NABARD; Government initiative in microfinance in India :-

The National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD) was established by the Government of India in 1982 as a development bank for providing and regulating credit and other facilities for the promotion and development of agriculture, small scale industries, cottage and village industries etc. Later in 1986-87, the NABARD has also included to facilitate and support the orderly growth of the microfinance sector through diverse modalities for enlarging the flow of financial services to the poor particularly for women and vulnerable sections of society consistent with sustainability. Then NABARD launched a pilot project to provide micro-credit by linking SHGs with nationalized and different state cooperative banks in the year 1991-92. These banks acted also as promoter of MFIs. The SHG-Bank Linkage Programme's aim was to improve rural poor's access to formal credit system in a cost effective and sustainable manner by making use of the SHGs.

Conclusion :- We can say Microfinance tries to overcome the short comings and failures of the existing financial institutions and development programmes by providing adequate and hassle free finance to the needy and also acts as gap filler in the formal institutional network for providing small finance to poor people Rural development implies both the economic betterment of people as well as greater social transformation. In order to provide the rural people with better prospects for economic development, increased participation of people in the rural development programmes, decentralization of planning, better enforcement of land reforms and greater access to credit are needed. This section provides complete information on initiatives taken by the government for bridging the urban-rural divide by upgrading the standard of living of people in rural areas. Information about programmes, schemes, employment opportunities, Panchayatiraj institutions, development authorities, drinking water, sanitation, road construction, electrification of villages and food supply etc. is provided. Conclusion can be drawn that there is a noticeable

and positive impact of microfinance activities on the living standards, empowerment and poverty alleviation among the poor people in the society. There are economic policy active in the area already serving the poor and they provide a strong option to the regulator to further expand financial inclusion efforts. the less developed districts of the country is a big task to the microfinance model to revolutionize on multiple fronts including products, processes and technologies. There is a need for Microfinance Initiatives it has a positive impact on rural development.

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